

Map 3



SELF-GOVERNING MEMBERS of the Commonwealth.



THE FEDERATION OF RHODESIA AND NYASALAND, which came into being in 1953, comprises Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland, which remain Protectorates, and Southern Rhodesia, whose status as a self-governing Colony, with certain qualifications, remains unchanged.



SOUTH WEST AFRICA. Territory under mandate assumed by the Union of South Africa on 17th December, 1920.

The Commonwealth



DEPENDENCIES of Members of the Commonwealth, including Protectorates and Protected States. Barbados, Jamaica, the Leeward Islands (except the Virgin Is.), Trinidad and Tobago, and the Windward Islands are federated in The West Indies.



TRUST TERRITORIES administered by Members of the Commonwealth under trusteeship agreements with the United Nations.

BRITAIN

An Official Handbook



HER MAJESTY THE QUEEN AND
H.R.H. THE DUKE OF EDINBURGH



BRITAIN

An Official Handbook

PREPARED BY
THE CENTRAL OFFICE OF INFORMATION

1959 EDITION

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CONTENTS

	<i>Page</i>
INTRODUCTION	ix
I. THE BRITISH ISLES	
The Physical Background	1
The Demographic Background	7
II. GOVERNMENT AND ADMINISTRATION	
General Survey	22
The Monarchy	23
Parliament	27
The Privy Council	39
Her Majesty's Government	40
Government Departments	44
The Civil Service	62
Local Government	67
The Law	75
Treatment of Offenders	88
The Police Service	95
The Fire Service	100
III. DEFENCE	
The Defence System	104
The Fighting Services	112
Home Defence	122
IV. SOCIAL WELFARE	
State and Voluntary Services	127
National Insurance and Related Services	128
Health	139
Education	151
Youth Services	165
V. HOUSING AND PLANNING	
Problems and Administration	170
Housing	170
Town and Country Planning	176
VI. THE CHURCHES	
	184

	<i>Page</i>
VII. PROMOTION OF THE SCIENCES AND THE ARTS	
The Promotion of the Sciences	192
The Promotion of the Arts	210
VIII. THE NATIONAL ECONOMY	
Background	226
The Structure of the Economy	228
IX. INDUSTRY	
Organisation and Production	237
Agriculture	252
Fisheries	275
Forestry	279
Fuel and Power	285
Water Supply	302
Building and Contracting	305
Manufacturing Industries	308
X. TRANSPORT AND COMMUNICATIONS	
Shipping	335
Inland Transport	344
Civil Aviation	358
The Post Office	369
XI. LABOUR	
Manpower	376
Government Employment and Training Services	381
Terms of Employment and Working Conditions	386
XII. FINANCE	
Public Finance	405
Banking and Private Finance	416
XIII. TRADE	
External Trade	425
The Balance of External Payments	442
Internal Trade	450
XIV. SOUND AND TELEVISION BROADCASTING	456
XV. THE PRESS	466
APPENDIX British Currency and Currency Exchange Rates, Weights and Measures, and Conversion Tables	474
BIBLIOGRAPHY	477
INDEX	508

DIAGRAMS

	<i>Page</i>
Birth Rates and Death Rates 1871-1957	9
Expectation of Life at Birth in England and Wales 1871-1955	9
Percentage Change in Population since 1901 by Age Group	11
The Royal Family: Genealogical Tree	24
Organisation of the National Health Service in England and Wales	142
Supply of Goods and Services in 1935 and 1956	229
Production and National Income Trends 1900-57	229
Sources of Savings 1948 and 1956	231
Gross Investment Expenditure 1948 and 1956	231
Unemployment Rates (Great Britain) 1922-57	380
Earnings, Wage Rates and Retail Prices 1947-57	398
The National Budget 1958-59	414
Changes in the Volume of Trade 1947-57	427
Composition of Trade by Value 1938-57	428
Area Distribution of Trade 1938-57	432
The Balance of Payments 1947-57	443

The sources of the pre-war figures for the graph of Production and National Income Trends are: Production Index, T. S. Ridley in *Economica*, February 1955; National Income Index, A. R. Prest in *Economic Journal*, March 1948.

MAPS

The Commonwealth	<i>end-papers</i>
United Kingdom: Physical	3
New Towns, National Parks and Forest Parks	179
Nuclear Energy Establishments	203
Location of Industry	238-9
Agriculture	255
The United Kingdom	<i>fold-in map</i>

The end-papers map is based on a projection by G. Philip & Son Ltd.

PHOTOGRAPHS

Her Majesty the Queen and H.R.H. the Duke of Edinburgh	<i>frontispiece</i>
	<i>facing page</i>
An English Village Street at Stockton in Wiltshire	6
Cardiff, Capital of Wales	6
Western Scotland: Highland Cattle by Loch Fyne	7
Northern Ireland: the Mountains of Mourne	7
Popular Sports	22
Parliamentary Election: Declaration of the Poll	23
The Houses of Parliament	23
The London Fire Brigade Fighting a Fire	118
The London County Council in Session	118
The <i>Scimitar</i> Naval Fighter Aircraft	119
The <i>Vulcan</i> , <i>Valiant</i> and <i>Victor</i> Bomber Aircraft	119
The <i>Thunderbird</i> Surface-to-Air Guided Missile	119
The Aircraft Carrier H.M.S. <i>Victorious</i>	119
Model of Extensions to the Imperial College of Science and Technology, University of London	134
Boys Entered for the Duke of Edinburgh's Award with Sir John Hunt	134
<i>Majestas</i> by Sir Jacob Epstein	135
The High Altar in St. Paul's Cathedral, London	135
The <i>Goliath</i> Giant Crane	318
The Universal Beam Mill at Lackenby on Tees-side	318
Some Export Products	<i>between pages 318 and 319</i>
Special-Purpose Vehicles	319
Dounreay Nuclear Energy Research Establishment	406
Using Radioisotopes for Research	406
Zeta I: the Zero Energy Thermonuclear Assembly	406
Eilean Donan Castle, Wester Ross, Scotland	407
Bodiam Castle, Sussex	407
Harlech Castle, North Wales	407
The Mark 4 <i>Comet</i> Turbo-jet Airliner	422
Gatwick Airport	422
The Decca Navigator	422
The New Underwriting Room at Lloyd's	423
The Annual Show of Shorthorn Cattle at Perth, Scotland	423

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INTRODUCTION

BRITAIN: AN OFFICIAL HANDBOOK, 1959, is the tenth in the series prepared and extensively revised each year by the Reference Division of the Central Office of Information with the co-operation of other Government Departments and of many national organisations.

The Handbook, which is the mainstay of the reference facilities provided by the British Information Services in many countries, was at first only available overseas in a limited free edition. In 1954 it was placed on sale throughout the world and has become widely known as an established work of reference.

BRITAIN: AN OFFICIAL HANDBOOK, 1959, which covers events up to September 1958, gives, like its predecessors, a factual account of the administration and the national economy of the United Kingdom and of the part played by the Government in the life of the community, thus presenting a continuing picture of the pattern of life in Britain and a record of recent developments.

The Handbook does not claim to be comprehensive, nor does it attempt to cover Britain's participation in Commonwealth or world affairs. The factual and statistical information it contains is compiled from official and other authoritative sources, and, while most sections of the book relate to the United Kingdom as a whole, facts and figures for England, Wales, Scotland, and Northern Ireland are also given separately when these are available.

Readers who require more detailed information on the United Kingdom should consult the *Annual Abstract of Statistics* and the *Monthly Digest of Statistics*, issued by the Central Statistical Office, and standard works of reference and Government publications, some of which are listed in the bibliography at the end of the Handbook. Readers are also asked to note that the Central Office of Information reference documents listed in the bibliography as free and marked with an asterisk are available free of charge only at United Kingdom Information Offices overseas; they can, however, be obtained in the United Kingdom from the Reference Division, Central Office of Information, on payment of a small charge.

REFERENCE DIVISION

CENTRAL OFFICE OF INFORMATION, LONDON

September 1958

I. THE BRITISH ISLES

THE PHYSICAL BACKGROUND

The British Isles form a group lying off the north-west coast of Europe with a total area of about 121,600 square miles. The largest islands are Great Britain proper (comprising the greater parts of England, Wales and Scotland) and Ireland (comprising Northern Ireland and the Republic of Ireland). 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 numerous islands and to the far north are the important groups of the Orkneys and Shetlands. All these form administrative counties or parts of counties of the mainland, but the Isle of Man in the heart of the Irish Sea and the Channel Islands between Great Britain and France have a large measure of administrative autonomy and are not part of England, Wales or Scotland.

England (excluding the county of Monmouth on the Welsh border), has a total area (including inland water) of 50,327 square miles and is divided into 40 geographical or 49 administrative counties; Wales (including Monmouth), with a total area of 8,017 square miles, has 13 counties, Scotland, including its 186 inhabited islands, has a total area of 30,411 square miles and is divided into 33 counties. Northern Ireland, consisting of six counties, has a total area of 5,459 square miles. Together, these countries constitute the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland with a total area of 94,214 square miles. The total land area of the United Kingdom (excluding inland water) is 93,018 square miles: England, 50,051; Wales and Monmouthshire, 7,966; Scotland, 29,795; and Northern Ireland, 5,206 square miles.

Care must be taken when studying British statistics to note whether they refer to England as defined above, 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 as a whole. The position is further complicated by the fact that the county of Monmouth is sometimes included with England. United Kingdom statistics and other data sometimes include the Isle of Man, 227 square miles, and the Channel Islands, 75 square miles, which are strictly not part of the United Kingdom, but are dependencies of the Crown. Since southern Ireland became an independent republic, official statistics do not normally refer to the British Isles as a whole.

The latitude of 50° North just cuts across the southernmost part of the British mainland (the Lizard Peninsula) and latitude 60° North passes through the Shetland Islands. The northernmost point of the Scottish mainland, Dunnet Head, is in latitude 58° 40'. The prime meridian of 0° passes through the old Observatory of Greenwich (London), while the easternmost point of England reaches nearly 1° 45' East and the westernmost point of Ireland is approximately 10° 30' West. It is thus rather under 600 miles in a straight line from the south coast of Britain to the extreme north and rather over 300 miles across in the widest part. Owing to the numerous bays and inlets no point in the British Isles is as much as 75 miles from tidal water.

The seas surrounding the British Isles are everywhere shallow—usually less than 50 fathoms (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 600 feet to 3,000. These shallow waters are important because they provide excellent fishing grounds as well as breeding grounds for the fish. The North Atlantic Current, the drift of warm water which reaches the islands from across the Atlantic, spreads out over the shelf and its ameliorating effect on the air is thus magnified. The effect of tidal movement is also increased by the shallowness of the water.

Geology and Topography

Despite their small area, the British Isles contain rocks of all the main geological periods. In Great Britain the newer rocks, which are less resistant to weather, and have thus been worn down to form low land, lie to the south and east, and the island can therefore be divided roughly into two main regions, Lowland Britain and Highland Britain.

In Lowland Britain the newer and softer rocks of southern and eastern England have been eroded into a rich plain, more often rolling than flat and rising to chalk and limestone hills, but hardly ever reaching a thousand feet above sea level. The boundaries of this region run roughly from the mouth of the Tyne in the north-east of England to the mouth of the Exe in the south-west.

Highland Britain comprises the whole of Scotland, the Lake District in north-west England, the broad central upland known as the Pennines, almost the whole of Wales, and the south-western peninsula of England coinciding approximately with Devon and Cornwall. Highland Britain contains all the mountainous parts¹ of Great Britain and extensive uplands lying above the thousand foot contour. This high ground, however, is not continuous but is interspersed with valleys and plains. Geologically the mountains and hills consist mainly of outcrops of very old rocks (archaeon and palaeozoic), while the top strata in the valleys and plains are mainly more recent (carboniferous age) and similar to those in the northern and western parts of Lowland Britain.

These carboniferous strata are rich in minerals and include the coal measures which have been the foundation of Britain's industrial expansion. The outcrops and shallow seams of coal which have now largely been exhausted were found on the edge of the plains and up the valleys leading to the high land. Most of the present deep coal workings underlie the fertile lowlands.

Towards the end of Britain's long geological history, when the ancestors of present-day man had already settled in the country, came the great Ice Age, and at one period or another during this time the whole of Britain north of a line joining the Thames and the Bristol Channel was covered by ice caps and ice sheets. The ice naturally accumulated on the higher ground and swept from the mountains of Scotland, northern England and Wales any loose rock or soil which had previously been formed, so that when the ice eventually disappeared the hills stood out as barren rocky areas, while a thick mantle of glacial debris—boulders, boulder-clay, sands and gravels—lay distributed widely over the lower ground. The ice had blocked up previous drainage channels and left large lakes, which have since gradually dried up, leaving deposits of sand, silt and mud, often affording soils of great fertility.

In Ireland, where the solid rocks are covered deeply by the debris left by the ice sheets, the great central plain has large boggy areas, due to interruption of the previous natural drainage. The mountains and hill masses of Ireland are irregularly

¹ The highest peaks are: in Scotland, Ben Nevis, 4,406 feet; in Wales, Snowdon, 3,560 feet; and in England, Scafell Pike (in the Lake District, Cumberland), 3,210 feet. The highest peak in Northern Ireland is Slieve Donard, 2,796 feet.

UNITED KINGDOM Physical



disposed round the fringes of the island, and in the higher parts the moorland cover resembles that of the higher parts of Highland Britain.

Because of the complex geology and the varied relief which results, Britain has not only very attractive and contrasting scenery within short distances but a characteristic, ever different, coastline. The ancient rocks of Highland Britain often reach the coast in towering cliffs; elsewhere the sea may penetrate in deep lochs, as along much of the west coast of Scotland. Bold outstanding headlands are notable features in other parts of the varied coastline: the granite cliffs of Land's End; the limestone masses or forbidding slates of the Pembrokeshire coast in South Wales; the red sandstone of St. Bees Head on the Cumberland coast; and the vertically jointed lavas of Skye and the island of Staffa in the Inner Hebrides. Even around Lowland Britain there are striking contrasts. In some parts the soft, white limestone—the chalk—gives rise to the world-famous white cliffs of Dover or the Needles off the Isle of Wight; while other parts of the south and south-east coastline have beaches of sand or shingle. The eastern coast of England between the Humber and the Thames estuary is for the most part low-lying, and for hundreds of years some stretches of it have been protected against the sea by embankments. These have occasionally been breached, as in the flood disaster of January 1953, which was caused by the abnormal concurrence of violent gales and exceptionally high tides.

The marked tidal movement around the British Isles sweeps away much of the sand and mud brought down by the rivers and makes the estuaries of the short British rivers¹ valuable as natural havens. In times past every little cove round the rocky coasts afforded shelter to a fishing village from the waves of the North Sea or the giant rollers of the Atlantic.

Climate

Britain enjoys a temperate and equable climate. It lies in middle latitudes to the north-west of the great continental land mass of Eurasia, but as the prevailing winds are south-westerly the climate is largely determined by that of the eastern Atlantic, although occasionally during the winter months easterly winds may bring a cold, dry, continental type of weather which, once established, may persist for many days or even weeks. The weather from day to day is controlled mainly by a succession of depressions from the Atlantic which, moving in a generally easterly or north-easterly direction, pass over or near the British Isles. During the summer months the Azores high pressure system extends its influence north-eastwards towards north-west Europe, and the depressions take a more northerly course, often passing entirely to the north of the British Isles.

Winds. In Britain, south-westerly winds are the most frequent, and those from the south-east and east the least; easterly winds occur about half as often as south-westerly ones. In hilly country, wind direction may differ markedly from the general direction owing to local conditions. Winds are generally stronger in the north than in the south of the British Isles, stronger on the coasts than inland, and stronger in the west than in the east. The strongest winds usually occur in the winter; the average speed at 50 feet at Kew Observatory, on the western outskirts of London, varies from about 10.3 m.p.h. in January and February to a minimum in August of 7.5 m.p.h. The stormiest region of the British Isles is along the north-west coast with about 40 gales a year; south-east England is the least stormy, with gales occurring on about 18 days a year inland and on some 25 days on the Channel coast.

¹ The longest rivers in England—the Severn and the Thames—are only 210 and 200 miles long respectively.

Temperature. At stations near sea level the mean annual temperature ranges from 47° F. in the Hebrides to 52° F. in the extreme south-west of England; it is slightly lower in the eastern part of the country in the same latitude. The mean monthly temperature in the extreme north, at Lerwick (Shetlands), ranges from 39° F. during the winter (December, January and February) to 53° F. during the summer (June, July and August): the corresponding figures for Jersey (Channel Islands), in the extreme south, are 43° F. and 63° F. The average range of temperature between winter and summer varies from 15° F. to 23° F., being greatest at inland stations in the eastern part of the country. During a normal summer, the temperature occasionally rises above 80° F. in the south, but temperatures of 90° F. and above are infrequent. Extreme minimum temperatures depend to a large extent on the environment, but 20° F. may occur on a still, clear winter's night, 10° F. is rare, and 0° F. or below has been recorded only during exceptionally severe periods during the winter.

Rainfall. The British Isles as a whole have an annual rainfall of over 40 inches, while England alone has about 34 inches. The geographical distribution of annual rainfall is largely governed by topography and exposure to the Atlantic, the mountainous areas of the west and north having far more rain than the plains of the south and east. Between 150 and 200 inches of rain fall on the summits of Snowdon and Ben Nevis during the average year, whereas some places in the south-east of England record less than 20 inches. Rain is fairly well distributed throughout the year, but, on the average, March to June are the driest months and October to January the wettest, the former period of four months having about 60 per cent of the rainfall of the latter. A period of as long as three weeks without rain is exceptional, and is confined to limited areas.

Sunshine. The distribution of sunshine over the British Isles 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 and a half hours in western Scotland to seven and a half hours in the extreme south-east of England; during the months of shortest daylight—November, December and January—sunshine is at a minimum, with an average of 0·5 hours a day in the Highlands of Scotland and in the Peak District (Derbyshire) and 2·0 hours a day on the south coast of England.

Soil and Vegetation

Many parts of the surface of Highland Britain have only thin, poor soils, with the result that large stretches of moorland are found over the Highlands of Scotland, the Pennines, the Lake District, the mountains of Wales and in parts of north-east and south-west England. In most areas the farmer has cultivated only the valley lands and the plains where soils are deeper and richer; villages and towns are often separated by uplands with few if any habitations.

With the exception of a few patches of poor soil or rocky land, almost the whole of Lowland Britain has been cultivated, and farmland stretches over the whole area except where interrupted by urban and industrial settlements. Elaborate land drainage systems have been developed through the centuries to bring under cultivation the fertile soil of the low-lying Fenland of Lincolnshire and other nearby areas in East Anglia.

With its mild climate and varied soils, Britain has a diverse pattern of natural vegetation. When the islands were first settled, oak woodland doubtless covered the greater part of the lowland, giving place to extensive marshlands, thin forests of Scots pine on higher or sandy ground and perhaps some open moorland. In the

course of the centuries nearly all the forests have been cleared so that forest and woodland now occupy only about 6 per cent of the surface of the country. Midland Britain appears to be well wooded because of the numerous hedgerows and isolated trees. The greatest density of woodland occurs in the north and east of Scotland, in some parts of south-east England and in Monmouthshire on the Welsh border. The principal kinds of trees are oak, beech, ash and elm and, in Scotland, pine and birch.

There are various types of wild vegetation, including the natural flora of woods, fens and marshes, foreshores and cliffs, chalk downs and the higher levels of mountains; the most widespread is that of the hilly moorland country, which consists mainly of heather, grasses, gorse and bracken, with cotton grass in the wetter parts. Most of Britain, however, is agricultural land, of which about a third is arable and the rest pasture and meadow, a varied semi-natural vegetation composed of indigenous grasses and flowering plants.

Farming land is divided into fields by hedges or stone walls and, especially in the mixed farms which cover most of the country, presents a pattern of contrasting colour. The cool temperate climate of Britain and the even distribution of rainfall ensure a long growing season; streams rarely dry up, and grassland is green throughout the year and studded with wild flowers from spring to autumn; there is scarcely a month in which some flowers may not be found in hedgerows and sheltered woodland glades.

Fauna

The fauna of the British Isles is in general similar to that of north-western Europe. Some of the larger mammals, including the wolf, the bear, the boar and the Irish elk, have become extinct; but red deer, protected for sporting reasons, flourish in the Scottish Highlands and on Exmoor in Devon and Somerset, roe deer are found in Scotland and in the wooded areas of southern England, and fallow deer (which are not indigenous) have been introduced into parks. The badger, a nocturnal animal, is rarely seen; there are foxes in most rural areas, and otters are found along many rivers and streams. Seals are fairly common around much of the coast. Smaller mammals include mice, rats, voles, shrews, hedgehogs, moles, squirrels (the imported grey ousting the native red), hares, rabbits (a serious farming pest before the recent outbreak of myxomatosis), weasels and stoats.

There are about 430 species of birds, including many song-birds. About 230 species are resident and the rest are regular visitors to Britain. The chaffinch and the blackbird are probably the most numerous birds and are widely and evenly distributed, but sparrows usually predominate near houses, and huge flocks of starlings, which gather at certain seasons, may congregate in London and other large towns. In general, the number of small birds has been on the increase for several decades owing to their success in adapting themselves to a man-made environment and also to their more considerate treatment by the public. The number of large birds, on the other hand, has tended to decline except for those specially preserved for sporting purposes, such as the pheasant, the partridge, and the red grouse which is found only on the moors of Highland Britain.

The drainage and reclamation of marsh lands have diminished the natural habitat of duck, geese and other aquatic birds. Such birds, however, now frequent reservoirs, gravel pits and sewage farms in addition to the nature reserves and bird sanctuaries which the Government, endowed with new powers, is establishing on an increasing scale.

Reptiles are few; besides some small lizards, including the snake-like slow-worm, there are two snakes, the poisonous (though not deadly) adder and the grass-snake.



An English Village Street at Stockton in Wiltshire.



Cardiff, capital of Wales: the Civic Centre and (*left foreground*) University College.



Western Scotland: Highland cattle on the shores of Loch Fyne, Argyllshire.



Northern Ireland: a view of the Mountains of Mourne, County Down.

The principal amphibians are frogs, toads and a few species of newt. River and lake fish include salmon, trout, sea-trout, perch, roach, dace, grayling and pike.

There are more than 21,000 different kinds of insects, most of them small, in the British Isles. Among the largest are the rare swallowtail butterfly (3 to 4 inches) and the stag beetle ($2\frac{1}{2}$ inches). The insect fauna in Britain is less varied than that of continental Europe. Many kinds which can withstand the severe cold of Scandinavia, for example, seem unable to survive the frequent weather changes characteristic of the British winter. With modern methods of pest control, serious insect damage to crops or timber is exceptional, and diseases commonly spread by insect vectors are virtually unknown in Britain.

THE DEMOGRAPHIC BACKGROUND

The people who now inhabit the British Isles are descended mainly from the people who inhabited them nearly nine centuries ago. The last of a long succession of invaders and colonisers from Scandinavia and the continent of Europe were the Normans, a branch of the Norsemen or Scandinavian Vikings who, after settling in northern France, intermarrying with the French, and assimilating the French language and customs, crossed to England and conquered it in 1066.

It is neither possible nor suitable to attempt in this chapter to estimate the relative importance of various early peoples—pre-Celts, Celts, Romans, Anglo-Saxons and the Norsemen, including the Danes—in the ancestry of the present English, Scots, Welsh and Irish. It is significant, however, that over most of England and the Lowlands of Scotland the language which soon came to predominate was English, mainly a marriage of Anglo-Saxon and Norman-French, while the use of Celtic languages persisted in Wales, Cornwall, the Isle of Man, the Highlands of Scotland and in Ireland.

The available records do not permit of any precise estimates of the size of population or of the extent or direction of population movement until the beginning of the nineteenth century. It is believed that at the end of the eleventh century the population of Great Britain was of the order of two million, while at the end of the seventeenth century a reasonable contemporary estimate put the population of England and Wales at $5\frac{1}{2}$ million and the population of Scotland at about one million. The main factor in this gradual growth of population was a slow natural increase, the rate of which was retarded in Britain, as in all countries before the development of medical science, by high death rates and particularly by very high infant and maternal mortality. Immigration from the continent of Europe, e.g., of Flemish weavers, was an influence at certain times.

From the beginning of the nineteenth century, information about the British people—their number, sex, age, geographical distribution, births, deaths, marriages, occupations, language and family structure—is relatively plentiful and reliable. Most of it is derived from two main sources: the periodic census of population which gives a national snapshot at a particular moment of time, and the regular flow of statistical information based on statutory registration of births, marriages and deaths.

The Census

Censuses of the people of Great Britain were taken regularly every ten years from 1801 to 1931. There was no census between 1931 and 1951, but a count of the population by age and sex was a by-product of the national registration which was instituted at the outbreak of the second world war in September 1939.

Censuses were taken on 8th April, 1951, by the appropriate authorities in the United Kingdom, the islands of the British seas and the Republic of Ireland.¹ This was the first simultaneous population count covering all these areas since the censuses of 1911. The co-operation of the Republic of Ireland in arranging a simultaneous census was of particular value, owing to the considerable sea and land traffic and the movement of population between that country and the United Kingdom. Nearly all the reports based on these censuses have now been published.

The short demographic account of the United Kingdom given in this chapter is based mainly on census reports and on the regular returns of births, marriages and deaths, though some use has been made of other special investigations, including the Reports of the Royal Commission on Population.²

Total Population

The enumerated population of the United Kingdom at the censuses taken on 8th April, 1951, was, to the nearest thousand, 50,225,000, excluding 158,000 persons in the Isle of Man and the Channel Islands, which are not strictly parts of the United Kingdom.

The population had increased by about 2½ million since mid-1939, by about 4 million since 1931, by about 6 million since 1921 and by about 43 million—or about sevenfold—since 1700. The main causes of this increase were a progressive reduction in death rates and a continuance of high birth rates into the beginning of the twentieth century. The population is still increasing, though relatively slowly, and at mid-1957 the home (*de facto*) population of the United Kingdom (i.e. those people actually in the United Kingdom at that time) was estimated at 51,455,000.

The population density of the United Kingdom is one of the highest in the world. It was approximately 533 persons per square mile at the time of the 1951 censuses, and had risen to 546 persons per square mile at mid-1957.

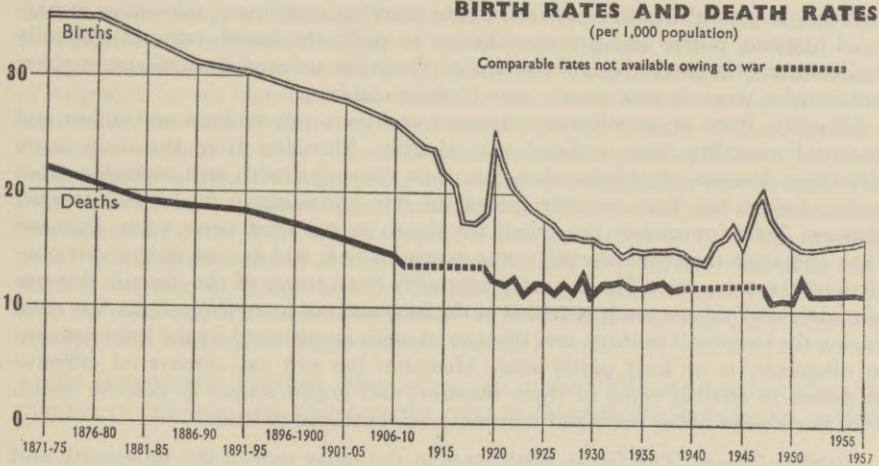
Birth and Death Rates. During the nineteenth century the annual birth rate was usually about 35 per thousand of the population. The annual death rate was just over 20 per thousand. Both birth and death rates fell over the last 30 years of the century, but the natural increase of the population changed but little. It rose from 12 per thousand in 1851 to 15 per thousand in 1881, and fell to 11 per thousand in 1901.

These fertile years, with their comparatively high death rates in all age groups, produced a population of low average age. At each successive census the population of any age group exceeded the corresponding figure at the preceding census, while the short expectation of life further reduced the ratio of older to younger persons. When, therefore, death rates in all age groups fell by an average of about 33 per cent, as they did between 1880 and 1910, the result was first a very low general death rate which helped to maintain the population increase in spite of a fall in the birth rate, and, secondly, a gradual increase in the average age of the population.

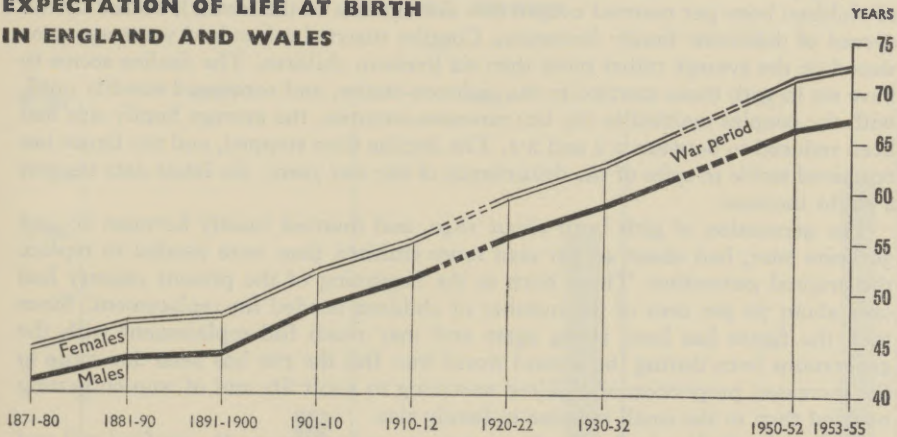
After the first world war the birth rate fell to less than half the nineteenth-century rate. Even so, the population continued to increase slowly, though its average age rose more rapidly (see diagram p. 11).

¹ These authorities are: the General Register Office, Somerset House, London; the General Registry Office, Edinburgh; the General Register Division of the Ministry of Finance of the Government of Northern Ireland; the Governments of the Isle of Man, of Jersey and of Guernsey and its associated islands; and the Central Statistical Office of the Republic of Ireland.

² This Commission was appointed in March 1944; its main report was published in March 1949.



**EXPECTATION OF LIFE AT BIRTH
IN ENGLAND AND WALES**



Owing to the changing age composition, the general death rate has remained nearly stationary at around 12 per thousand of the population though death rates have continued to fall heavily in every age group, particularly among pre-school children, school children, and adults in their thirties and forties, with a consequent lengthening of the expectation of life from about 50 years at birth in 1900 to 1910 to about 70 years at birth in 1954 to 1956. From 1933 onwards the birth rate steadied itself and thereafter rose slowly up to the outbreak of the second world war, after which all orderly movement was interrupted by the disturbed conditions of the war years. The 1947 birth rate (20·7 per thousand of the population) was the highest since 1921, but the 1948, 1949, 1950 and 1951 birth rates were progressively lower, though higher than pre-war. From 1951 to 1956, the birth rate remained fairly steady and slightly higher than before the war, at about 15½ to 16 per thousand of the population; in 1957, it was 16·3 per thousand (see diagrams above).

Mortality Causes. 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, public and private schemes to make the health services generally available, and the smaller size of the family, which has reduced the strain on mothers and enabled them to take greater care of their children.

Mortality from acute infectious diseases and from tuberculosis and infant and maternal mortality have declined very sharply. Mortality from the main acute infectious diseases of childhood is less than one-hundredth and mortality from tuberculosis is less than one-thirtieth of the rate prevailing in the mid-nineteenth century. Infant mortality has fallen by about 70 per cent since 1900. Between 1934 and 1942 maternal mortality was nearly halved, and is now only about one-sixth of the 1934 rate. The reported mortality from many of the chronic diseases of middle and old age, such as cancer of the lung and coronary thrombosis, has risen during the twentieth century, and this rise, though exaggerated by the improvement in diagnosis, is at least partly real. Medicine has not yet discovered effective measures to combat some of these diseases, and improvement in positive health does not always bring increased immunity or resistance to them.

Fertility Trends. The fall in birth rates in the latter part of the nineteenth and the early part of the twentieth centuries was due mainly to a decline in the number of children born per married couple (the average size of the family), caused by the spread of deliberate family limitation. Couples married a hundred years ago produced on the average rather more than six liveborn children. The decline seems to have set in with those married in the eighteen-sixties, and continued steadily until, with the couples married in the late nineteen-twenties, the average family size had been reduced to between 2.2 and 2.1. The decline then stopped, and the figure has remained stable in spite of the disturbance of the war years; the latest data suggest a slight increase.

The generation of girls born about 1840, and married mostly between 20 and 30 years later, had about 40 per cent more children than were needed to replace the original generation. Those born at the beginning of the present century had only about 70 per cent of the number of children needed for replacement. Since then the figure has been rising again and may reach full replacement with the generations born during the second world war. But the rise has been due more to the increased proportion of children surviving to adult life and of women getting married than to the small increase in family size.

At first the decline in family size was most marked among the professional and salaried classes. Among couples married between 1900 and 1930 the families of manual workers were about 40 per cent larger than those of non-manual workers, but this class difference appears to have been diminishing. The decline in family size has been slower in Scotland and Northern Ireland than in England and Wales.

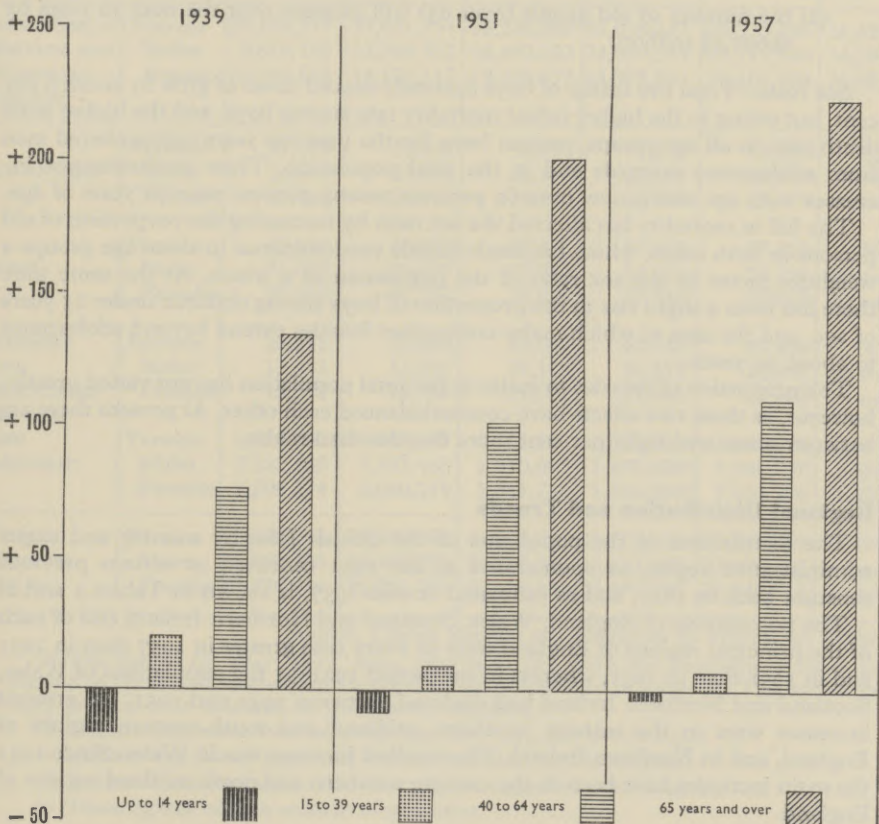
Migration. Since the beginning of the nineteenth century, net migration has been markedly outward. About 25 million persons born in the British Isles are estimated to have gone overseas in this period to settle in the United States and Commonwealth countries. On the other hand large numbers of Europeans, mainly Russians, Poles, Germans and Hungarians, have entered the British Isles during the last 80 years. The net loss by migration since 1871 from the present area of the United Kingdom is about $3\frac{1}{2}$ million. During the inter-censal period 1931-51 the net balance of migration to and from the United Kingdom was inward for the first time in the past century. The net gain to the United Kingdom from civilian migration was about half a million, a net gain of three-quarters of a million to England and Wales being offset by net losses from Scotland and Northern Ireland. This net gain was the balance of a large outward movement mainly of British subjects emigrating,

mostly since 1945, to Canada, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa, and a larger inward movement mainly of aliens from Europe, many of whom were refugees seeking sanctuary in Britain. Taking only the period 1946-51 the balance of migration by sea (figures for air transport are not available) was outward owing to the high net outflow (some 65,000 a year) of British citizens to Commonwealth countries overseas. In 1952 this net outflow reached a peak of 87,000, but it was subsequently reduced, chiefly owing to increased immigration into Britain from other parts of the Commonwealth, particularly the West Indies, and the net balance of migration to and from all countries for the years 1952 to 1956 was certainly small. In the fourth quarter of 1956 and the first half of 1957, however, there was a marked increase in emigration to Canada. In 1957, total migratory movement both into and out of Britain is estimated to have been very high, probably over 200,000 each way, with a slight outward balance.

Age Distribution. The first effect of the fall in the birth rate was to reduce the number of children, and therefore the ratio of dependent population to working

**PERCENTAGE CHANGE IN POPULATION SINCE 1901
BY AGE GROUP**

1901 = 0



population. This ratio was at a minimum in the 1930s. Since then the continuous fall in death rates and the low inter-war birth rates have been increasing the proportion of elderly people, and thus reducing the proportion of the working population to the total population. The small age groups born between the wars have been coming to maturity. The size of the age groups reaching retirement age increases yearly, as these groups were born during a period of rapidly expanding population. The continuing fall of death rates in all age groups has still further increased the number of old persons. Moreover, the higher birth rates since 1942 have arrested the compensating fall in the number of dependent children and have thus reduced the ratio of working to dependent population.

At mid-1957 the age distribution of the United Kingdom was estimated as follows:

Under 15	23.2 per cent
15 to 64	65.3 per cent
65 and over	11.5 per cent

During the present decade an unusually large proportion of the population of the United Kingdom (about 15 per cent) is between 40 and 50 years of age. Assuming that mortality rates continue to fall, and disregarding migration, it can therefore be shown that:

- (1) over the next 15 years the population of working age will increase slowly;
- (2) the number of old people (over 65) will increase over the next 30 years by about 2½ million.

Sex Ratio. Total live births of boys currently exceed those of girls by about 6 per cent, but owing to the higher infant mortality rate among boys, and the higher male death rates in all age groups, women have for the past 100 years outnumbered men from adolescence onwards and in the total population. Their predominance increases with age and is now over 60 per cent among persons over 70 years of age.

The fall in mortality has affected the sex ratio by increasing the proportion of old persons in both sexes, which has made female predominance in those age groups a weightier factor in the sex ratio of the population as a whole. At the same time there has been a slight rise in the proportion of boys among children under 15 years of age, and the ages at which males outnumber females extend beyond adolescence to about 24 years.

The proportion of females to males in the total population has not varied greatly, however, as these two effects have counterbalanced each other. At present there are between seven and eight per cent more females than males.

Regional Distribution and Trends

The distribution of the population of the British Isles by country and major administrative region as enumerated at the 1951 censuses, at certain previous censuses back to 1841, and as estimated at mid-1957, is shown in Tables 1 and 2.

The populations of England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland and of each of the principal regions of England were in every case greater in 1957 than in 1951 and in 1951 than in 1931, whereas in the period 1921-31 the populations of Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland had declined. Between 1931 and 1951, the greatest increases were in the eastern, southern, midland and south-western regions of England, and in Northern Ireland. The smallest increase was in Wales. Since 1951 the main increases have been in the eastern, southern and north midland regions of England.

TABLE 1
POPULATIONS 1841-1957^(a)

		1841	1871	1901	1931	1951	1957 ^a
ENGLAND (excluding Monmouth- shire)	Persons	14,867,882	21,299,771	30,514,967	37,359,045	41,159,213	42,296,000
	Males	7,259,028	10,352,934	14,717,155	17,839,205	19,745,530	20,367,000
	Females	7,608,854	10,946,837	15,797,812	19,519,840	21,413,683	21,929,000
WALES AND MONMOUTH- SHIRE	Persons	1,046,266	1,412,495	2,012,876	2,593,332	2,598,675	2,611,000
	Males	518,558	706,000	1,011,458	1,293,805	1,270,103	1,281,000
	Females	527,708	706,495	1,001,418	1,299,527	1,328,572	1,330,000
SCOTLAND	Persons	2,620,184	3,360,018	4,472,103	4,842,980	5,096,415	5,150,000
	Males	1,241,862	1,603,143	2,173,755	2,325,523	2,434,358	2,465,000
	Females	1,378,322	1,756,875	2,298,348	2,517,457	2,662,057	2,685,000
GREAT BRITAIN	Persons	18,534,332	26,072,284	36,999,946	44,795,357	48,854,303	50,057,000
	Males	9,019,448	12,662,077	17,902,368	21,458,533	23,449,991	24,113,000
	Females	9,514,884	13,410,207	19,097,578	23,336,824	25,404,312	25,944,000
NORTHERN IRELAND	Persons	1,648,945	1,359,190	1,236,952	1,243,000 ^b	1,370,921	1,398,000
	Males	799,711	647,285	589,955	601,000 ^b	667,819	681,000
	Females	849,234	711,905	646,997	642,000 ^b	703,102	717,000
TOTALS GREAT BRITAIN AND NORTHERN IRELAND	Persons	20,183,277	27,431,474	38,236,898	46,038,357	50,225,224	51,455,000
	Males	9,819,159	13,309,362	18,492,323	22,059,533	24,117,810	24,794,000
	Females	10,364,118	14,122,112	19,744,575	23,978,824	26,107,414	26,661,000
ISLE OF MAN	Persons	47,975	54,042	54,752	49,308	55,253	55,000 ^e
	Males	23,011	25,914	25,496	22,443	25,774	not available
	Females	24,964	28,128	29,256	26,865	29,479	not available
JERSEY	Persons	47,544	56,627	52,576	50,462	57,310	57,000 ^e
	Males	21,602	24,875	23,940	23,424	27,291	not available
	Females	25,942	31,752	28,636	27,038	30,019	not available
GUERNSEY AND ASSOCIATED ISLANDS	Persons	28,521	33,969	43,042	42,743	45,496	42,500
	Males	12,943	15,433	21,140	20,675	22,091	not available
	Females	15,578	18,536	21,902	22,068	23,405	not available
IRISH REPUBLIC	Persons	6,528,799 ^c	4,053,187	3,221,823	2,933,000 ^d	2,960,593	2,885,000
	Males	3,222,485	1,992,468	1,610,085	1,497,000 ^d	1,506,597	1,456,000
	Females	3,306,314	2,060,719	1,611,738	1,436,000 ^d	1,453,996	1,429,000
TOTALS BRITISH ISLES	Persons	26,836,116	31,629,299	41,609,091	49,113,870	53,343,876	54,494,500
	Males	13,099,200	15,368,052	20,172,984	23,623,075	25,699,563	not available
	Females	13,736,916	16,261,247	21,436,107	25,490,795	27,644,313	not available

Source: Census Reports and Estimates by Population Authorities.

(a) The figures for 1841, 1871, 1901, 1931 and 1951 (with the exception of those indicated in (b) and (d) below) are for populations enumerated in censuses. The figures for 1957 are mid-year estimates to the nearest thousand.

(b) Estimate (censuses were taken in 1926 and 1937, but not in 1931).

(c) Military and Naval personnel are not included in these figures.

(d) Estimate (censuses were taken in 1926 and 1936, but not in 1931).

(e) These figures take no account of migration.

The population of the United Kingdom taken as a whole is predominantly urban and suburban. During the nineteenth century, when the labour demands of newly developing industry drew great numbers from the countryside to the towns, the urban element continuously and rapidly outgrew the rural element. At the end of the nineteenth century, 75 per cent of the British population was living within the boundaries of urban administrative areas and the large conurbation¹ was already the dominant type of British community. By 1911, the economic and social limits of these conurbations extended far beyond the administrative boundaries of the cities which formed their core, owing to the building of outer suburbs which linked up neighbouring towns. Since 1921, nearly 40 per cent of the population has lived in the seven great conurbations whose centres are the cities of London, Manchester (South East Lancashire), Birmingham and Wolverhampton (West Midlands), Glasgow (Central Clydeside), Leeds and Bradford (West Yorkshire), Liverpool (Merseyside), and Newcastle upon Tyne (see Table 2, pp. 15-16).

During the twentieth century, the general character of urbanisation changed, the later increases in urban areas being relatively much smaller and much more due to the natural growth of the towns than to the influx of population from rural areas. Moreover, two new and decided trends became apparent: first, the outer rings of conurbations and the suburbs of large cities began to increase in population much more rapidly than the large cities themselves; secondly, there was a considerable migration, particularly of young adults, to the expanding new light industries and suburban residential areas springing up in and around London and Birmingham. This movement was intensified by the heavy unemployment of the inter-war years which affected with particular severity the textile and heavy engineering industries of Scotland, Northern England and South Wales.

The combined effect of these two trends was that the outer rings of the London and Birmingham conurbations increased most in population, while the remoter country areas and some industrial towns of Scotland, Wales and Northern England declined. In urban areas in England and Wales, the medium-sized towns of between 50,000 and 100,000 inhabitants increased most rapidly, while the populations of very large and very small towns tended to decline.

The second world war halted suburban building and for a time reduced the population of conurbations and large cities, but by the end of the war many people had returned to the neighbourhood of their pre-war homes. At the 1951 Census many large cities and towns had larger populations than in 1939, but the populations of others, notably London, were reduced. The decrease in the County of London was about two-thirds of a million, and in spite of an increase in the population of the outer ring, the population of Greater London,² 8,348,023, was 380,000 less than in 1939. Since 1951, this decline has continued, while the populations of many urban and rural areas surrounding Greater London have continued to increase very rapidly.

Table 2 shows the distribution of the population by urban and rural districts and the populations of the standard administrative regions, of the seven major conurbations and of 16 large cities, some of which are the principal cities included in the conurbations.

¹ An area of urban development where a number of separate towns have grown into each other or become linked by such factors as a common industrial or business interest or a common centre for shopping or education.

² Greater London (area 721.6 square miles) coincides with the Metropolitan and City Police Districts. It consists of the administrative county of London (117.0 square miles, comprising the City of London and 28 metropolitan boroughs), the county of Middlesex and parts of the counties of Surrey, Hertfordshire, Essex and Kent.

TABLE 2
DISTRIBUTION OF THE POPULATION (a) *Thousands*

	Area in square miles(b)	1921	1931	1939(c)	1951	1957(c)
Urban and rural districts						
England and Wales:						
Urban districts ..	8,240.5	30,035	31,952	34,183	35,336	36,408
Rural districts ..	50,104.5	7,851	8,000	7,277	8,422	8,859
Scotland:						
Cities and burghs	416.3	3,311	3,362	3,525	3,563	3,622
Landward areas ..	29,378.6	1,572	1,481	1,482	1,534	1,528
Northern Ireland:						
Urban districts ..	78.5	638(d)	678(d)	684	728	742
Rural districts ..	5,159.5	619(d)	602(d)	611	643	656
Standard regions of						
England and Wales						
Northern	7,470.7	3,020	3,038	3,003	3,141	3,187
East and West Ridings	3,962.7	3,731	3,929	3,976	4,097	4,123
North Western ..	3,083.0	6,023	6,197	6,237	6,447	6,477
North Midland ..	6,303.8	2,746	2,939	3,065	3,378	3,508
Midland	5,024.9	3,503	3,743	3,987	4,423	4,578
Eastern	7,263.9	2,224	2,433	2,691	3,098	3,446
London and						
South Eastern ..	4,190.5	9,486	10,330	11,046	10,906	11,000
Southern	4,846.3	1,954	2,135	2,317	2,649	2,876
South Western ..	8,183.5	2,544	2,615	2,673	3,021	3,101
Wales	8,015.8	2,656	2,593	2,465	2,599	2,611
Conurbations						
Greater London ..	721.6	7,488	8,216	8,728	8,348	8,251
South East Lancashire	379.6	2,361	2,427	2,421	2,423	2,414
West Midlands ..	268.8	1,773	1,933	2,079	2,237	2,276
Central Clydeside ..	326.5	1,638	1,690	1,783	1,758	1,782
West Yorkshire ..	480.9	1,614	1,655	1,658	1,693	1,685
Merseyside	148.5	1,263	1,347	1,357	1,382	1,387
Tyneside	90.1	816	827	825	836	844
Cities						
Belfast	23.9	415(d)	438(d)	439	444	440
Birmingham ..	79.9	919	1,003	1,053	1,113	1,103
Bradford	39.9	286	298	288	292	287
Bristol	41.2	377	397	419	443	440
Coventry	29.9	128	167	220	258	277
Edinburgh	50.6	420	439	472	467	466
Glasgow	60.4	1,034	1,088	1,128	1,090	1,079
Kingston upon Hull	22.4	287	314	318	299	301
Leeds	59.8	458	483	497	505	510
Leicester	26.5	234	239	263	285	281
Liverpool	42.7	803	856	822	789	769

Continued overleaf

TABLE 2 (*contd.*)DISTRIBUTION OF THE POPULATION (*a*)*Thousands*

	Area in square miles(<i>b</i>)	1921	1931	1939(<i>c</i>)	1951	1957(<i>c</i>)
<i>Cities—contd.</i>						
Manchester	42.6	730	766	728	703	682
Newcastle upon Tyne	17.3	275	283	293	292	275
Nottingham	25.3	263	269	279	306	313
Sheffield	61.9	491	512	522	513	499
Stoke on Trent . .	33.1	240	277	271	275	272

Source: Census Reports and Estimates by Population Authorities.

(*a*) The boundaries of some of the administrative areas have been altered from time to time. The population figures given for cities relate to the areas as these were defined in the year noted at the head of each column. The figures for regions and conurbations, however, relate as nearly as possible to areas as constituted in 1951.

(*b*) Area at the date of the 1951 Census of Population.

(*c*) Mid-year estimate.

(*d*) 1926 and 1937 census figures.

Language

In England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland, English is the language predominantly spoken. In Wales, however, Welsh, a form of British Celtic, is the first language of most of the population in some of the central and northern counties and was spoken by 29 per cent of the population at the time of the 1951 census. In Scotland, nearly 100,000 persons, mainly in Ross and Cromarty, Inverness, Argyll, and Lanark, speak the Scottish form of Gaelic,¹ while a few families in Northern Ireland speak the Irish form of Gaelic. The Manx and Cornish varieties of Celtic are no longer effectively living languages, although, in the Isle of Man, Manx is spoken by a few people, and is used in addition to English for certain official pronouncements.

French is still the official language of Jersey, but in Guernsey English is now used for almost all official proceedings. English is spoken throughout the Channel Islands, although a Norman French *patois* is still also spoken there by some people.

Social Patterns

A general summary of trends in social organisation, similar in scope to the foregoing summary of population trends, is not practicable. It may be useful, however, to review some of the evidence relating to the structure of British households and the extent and use of leisure in Britain in order to provide a background to the information given in later chapters on such matters as town planning, housing, and transport.

Number and Composition of Households

In Great Britain, as in other countries, most people live as members of private households (usually families). Less than 5 per cent of the population was enumerated by the censuses of 1911, 1921, 1931 and 1951 in institutions such as hotels, schools, and hospitals.

¹ Most of the islands off the west coast of Scotland where Gaelic is spoken are included in the counties of Ross and Cromarty, Inverness, and Argyll.

In 1911 there were about nine million private households¹ in Great Britain. By 1951, according to the censuses of England and Wales, and of Scotland, there were about 14½ million households, an increase of about 60 per cent. This expansion, so much more rapid than the 19 per cent increase in the total population for the same period, was, in fact, of the same order as the increases in the numbers of persons over 24 years old and of married persons. In other words, the increasing age of the population meant more but smaller families. The average size of household in Great Britain fell from 4·5 persons in 1911 to 3·2 in 1951. In England and Wales the number of persons living in households of one or two persons almost trebled between 1911 and 1951. At the end of this period such households constituted about 40 per cent of private households and comprised about 20 per cent of the population in private households. About two-thirds of the persons living alone in 1951 were 60 years of age or over, while in 43 per cent of families of two persons, the head of the household was 60 or over.

It has been difficult to increase the number of separate dwelling-places (houses or flats) sufficiently rapidly to overtake the increasing number of private households, and this difficulty was aggravated by the suspension of house-building and the destruction of property during the second world war. There were in 1951 only some 13·7 million structurally separate dwelling-places in Great Britain, and about 2 million households shared a home. It is unofficially estimated that about three-quarters of all dwellings in Great Britain are terraced or semi-detached houses (usually of 4 to 6 dwelling-rooms including bedrooms) while the remaining quarter consists of detached houses and flats in approximately equal numbers. In 1951, the proportion of flats was greatly above average in Scotland (estimated at about 60 per cent) and considerably above average in London (estimated at 17 per cent).

Of the 14½ million private households in Great Britain in 1951, 11½ million were estimated according to the 1951 Census One Per Cent Sample Tables (based on an analysis of a representative one per cent sample of census returns in Great Britain) to be of the simplest type, comprising married couples or widowed persons with their children, if any, or persons living alone. More specifically, they comprised 3·2 million married couples with no children, 900,000 widowed persons living alone, 6·9 million married couples or widowed persons with children of any age, 600,000 single persons living alone. Over a third of all married couples living alone were 60 years old or over; less than a quarter of the married couples under 40 years of age in these simplest types of household had no children; and the majority of the single persons living alone were over 40 years old.

Only 2 million households contained persons less closely related to the head than parent or brother or sister, or contained non-relatives. In nearly half of these households, a second family—a married couple or a woman with children—was living with the first family, usually the parents. Of the remaining 1·1 million households which contained some unrelated or distantly related persons (numbering 1·24 million), 300,000 households consisted of only two persons.

Over 8 million households (57 per cent of all households) were estimated in the 1951 Census Sample Tables to be without children under 16, while another 3·1 million contained only one child.

It was estimated that in 1951 there were 180,000 households in Great Britain employing a total of 205,000 resident domestic servants, of whom 178,000 were in England and Wales. This compares with an estimate of 706,800 resident domestic servants in England and Wales in 1931.

¹ Counting persons living alone as one-person households.

Over half of the resident domestic servants in 1951 worked in small households (of not more than three persons including the servant), while more than a quarter were acting as the sole servant and household companion to one person of over 40 years of age. Already in 1951, a large proportion of resident domestic servants—and possibly the majority of those working for families with children—were girls from Ireland or from continental Europe, many of whom were attracted by the opportunity to see Britain or to learn English. Since 1951, the number of girls from overseas coming to take resident domestic posts has increased.

In the years since 1951, considerable changes in the numbers, size and composition of households may have taken place. No firm information on trends is available but, in view of the extent of housebuilding and the continued increase in the number of old people it is likely that the average size of households has continued to decrease.

The small average size of households does not imply that wider family and kinship ties are without strength and social significance. Indeed, a recent study¹ has stressed the importance of the mutual help of relatives and neighbours in the long-established and balanced communities living in the more crowded parts of East London. The survey, which also covered a suburban area of Greater London, noted the dangers of weakening such ties when households are moved out to more congenial suburban surroundings.

Work and Leisure

The great majority of British males over 15 years of age are in full-time gainful employment, and the majority of females are either housewives or in full-time gainful employment. In many cases housewives also undertake part-time or even full-time employment.

Agreed hours of full-time work for the majority of occupations are usually about 44 hours a week, with some variation on each side. Actual weekly hours worked by men average a little longer owing to overtime working, and actual hours worked by women and girls average a little less. In addition, the journey to and from work is often long. The 1951 census showed that three-quarters of the million and a third persons working in central London lived outside it and that many travelled in from the fringes of Greater London and some from farther away. A sample survey of travel in Greater London, made in 1954, showed that 89 per cent of workers in Greater London made regular journeys to work and that 56 per cent used public transport. The average time taken by such persons was 39 minutes each way, though for workers in central London it was 47 minutes each way.

There is also often a long journey for housewives to the main shopping centre in both urban and rural areas. According to a sample survey made in 1946 it averaged about 18 minutes each way, and in many rural areas took much longer. In most areas there are, of course, a few shops much closer at hand.

According to a sample survey made in 1947, only 6 per cent of housewives employed any paid help, and only 1 per cent² had a resident servant. Such surveys confirm, what would in any case be readily deduced from everyday experience, that housewives have less leisure and considerably fewer periods of continuous leisure of over one hour than other persons in Britain, in spite of the growth of the habit of eating some meals away from home and the spread of labour-saving devices for the

¹ *Family and Kinship in East London*, by Michael Young and Peter Willmott, published by Routledge in 1957.

² This estimate has been shown to be approximately correct by the analysis of households employing servants made in the 1951 Census Sample Tables (see p. 17).

home. (Three households in every five now have a vacuum cleaner, one in four a washing machine and slightly less than one in ten a refrigerator.)

Compared with earlier generations, however, most people today have more leisure. In many industries and services, hours of work are usually arranged to give a five-day week, and most employees are entitled to two weeks' continuous holiday a year in addition to the statutory public holidays. About half the population take at least a week's holiday away from home every year, mostly in July and August. Some two-thirds of these spend their holiday by the sea in Britain. A relatively small but rapidly increasing number of holiday-makers go abroad: three million in 1957, including about 1.1 million to the Channel Islands and to the Republic of Ireland; in the same year, 1,180,430 overseas tourists came to visit Britain.

At least a quarter of the adult population is interested in playing or going to watch outdoor sports.¹ Sporting interests are becoming increasingly varied but Association football and cricket are still the most popular sports. In England alone about 20,000 football clubs—mainly amateur clubs—are affiliated to the English Football Association, excluding the numerous clubs in the armed forces, universities and schools. Some 650,000 youths and men play in weekly football matches during the winter months; spectators at professional football matches number between one and two million weekly. Cricket is played by children, youths and men of every walk of life, especially in England. Attendance at first-class cricket matches is much smaller than at professional football matches, but the 'Test' matches with the cricket teams of other Commonwealth countries are of nation-wide interest. Cricket is less popular in Scotland, where golf has pride of place. Race meetings throughout the country draw large crowds, while many other sporting events, for instance, rugby football matches in the winter months and, in the summer, tennis tournaments, especially the annual lawn tennis championships at Wimbledon, have their smaller but devoted public. Amateur athletic associations flourish throughout the country, and every form of outdoor pursuit from swimming, hiking, cycling and motoring² to hunting, shooting and fishing has an enthusiastic following, though many sports, such as sailing, gliding, and rock-climbing, are practised only by relatively few keen amateurs. Climatic and physical conditions in Britain afford few opportunities for ski-ing and mountaineering, but numbers of people go abroad regularly for these pursuits.

The spread of television has added a vast new audience of indoor spectators to the crowds who go to watch sporting events and great national occasions. By mid-1958 rather more than half the families in Britain (and a somewhat higher proportion of the large families) had a television set; viewers are fairly evenly distributed among all sections of the population, irrespective of income or occupation. The number of television licences is still increasing rapidly; from mid-1953 to mid-1958 the number more than trebled, to over eight million.

Rising standards of living and, in particular, the widely distributed ownership of television sets and motor vehicles have affected leisure habits in many ways, both good and bad, and have provided new and varied opportunities for recreation and

¹ A social survey of Derby made in 1953 showed that half the adult population in that town, including two-thirds of the men, were at least occasional spectators of sporting events, and that over one-fifth, including over half those under 25 years of age, actually participated, most of them regularly.

² There were some 7½ million licensed motor vehicles in the summer of 1957, of which over 4 million were private cars and nearly 1½ million were motor cycles (including motor scooters). Many cars and some motor cycles, however, are used partly, if not primarily, for business purposes.

entertainment. One result has been a marked fall in attendances at cinemas and, to a lesser extent at football matches, formerly the main entertainments of large sections of the community. The cinema remains, however, the most popular form of indoor entertainment outside the home. Most young adults and school children go to the cinema, and probably at least half of them go as often as once a week.

Attendances at theatres are much smaller, though most people visit them occasionally. There are only some 500 theatres in the country compared with some 4,200 cinemas. Nevertheless, there is an enthusiastic and growing public not only for plays but for ballet, opera and concerts.

Dancing, mainly ballroom dancing, is popular, especially with those under twenty-five years of age, and it is thought that about five million people go dancing every week. There have been estimated to be some 450 regular dance halls in the United Kingdom which open three times a week or more and employ a manager, and between 4,000 and 5,000 recognised schools of ballroom dancing. Public dances are also often held in other halls, while many of the clubs and societies which abound in Britain hold dances from time to time in their own or hired premises.

Clubs and societies, which may be primarily social or devoted to some particular purpose, range from small informal groups to great national and international organisations with branches throughout the country. Organisations of national importance in social life and in the promotion of social gatherings include, in addition to those connected with religious denominations, the Working Men's Clubs and Institutes, the Townswomen's Guilds and the Women's Institutes. There are some 3,440 clubs, with over two million members (mainly but not entirely men), affiliated to the Working Men's Club and Institute Union. These clubs are primarily social and recreational, though they also arrange lectures and classes. Some 2,000 Townswomen's Guilds, with a total membership of about 200,000 are affiliated to the National Union of Townswomen's Guilds. The Guilds are both educational and social in purpose, and they co-operate in many public welfare activities. The declared objective of the National Federation of Women's Institutes is to improve rural life and amenities; the Institutes make an important contribution to rural life by providing meeting places for countrywomen and by organising social gatherings. There are in villages throughout England and Wales some 8,400 Institutes with over 455,000 members, while in Scotland and Northern Ireland there are Women's Rural Institutes with similar aims and interests.

In spite of the growth of social clubs, one traditional social rendezvous, the public house, has maintained and even increased its popularity both in towns and in villages, although there has been a marked decrease in drunkenness and in consumption of alcohol per head since the nineteenth century. The public house now attracts a very wide circle of casual customers (both men and women) as well as many 'regulars', who meet for a drink and a chat, and perhaps to play some traditional public house game or to watch television. A recent, and in some ways rival, feature of urban life, especially in London and other large cities, is the coffee bar. A characteristic of many of these coffee bars, which stay open until late at night and are popular as a rendezvous for young people, is their modern décor. On the other hand many people, especially the married and the elderly, spend much of their leisure at home—reading, listening to the radio or gramophone, viewing television, looking after pets¹ and pursuing hobbies. Hobbies are, of course, innumerable in their variety, but many are practical and contribute to the improvement of the home. About four out of five families do most of their own decorating,

¹ There are some four million dogs in Britain, over six million cats and eight or nine million pet birds (mainly budgerigars and canaries).

while the sales of hand-tools and the rapidly increasing sales of small power-tools testify to the extent and range of home carpentry and joinery. Even in the towns many houses have some garden, and the standard of both town and country gardens is high.

A number of people, young and old, find their main free-time interest in some form of sustained group activity connected, for example, with the churches, trade unionism, politics, social welfare and reform, or with cultural pursuits, especially amateur dramatics and music-making (see the Arts section of Chapter VII). People with such interests are, of course, in a minority,¹ but they constitute an important and characteristic feature of British life and, indeed, an essential ingredient in the working of British democracy.

¹ The figures from the Derby Survey showed that eight per cent of adults in that town belonged to intellectual or cultural clubs or societies, eleven per cent were members of some political party, thirteen per cent went to church every week (9 out of 10 homes had a Bible), and three per cent held some church office.

II. GOVERNMENT AND ADMINISTRATION

GENERAL SURVEY

The United Kingdom is a monarchical state, whose origins go back to the ninth century when all England was unified under a Saxon king. Wales and Ireland became part of the kingdom before the end of the thirteenth century, and the English and Scottish thrones were dynastically united in the person of James I and VI in 1603. In 1707, the Treaty for the Union of England and Scotland provided that the two countries 'should be forever united into one kingdom', and one Parliament (the Parliament of Great Britain) became the supreme authority in both countries. In 1801, the authority of this Parliament was extended to the whole of the United Kingdom by a provision of the Act for the Union of Great Britain and Ireland, 1800, which joined the Irish Parliament to the Parliament of Great Britain. In 1922, the United Kingdom was diminished by the separation of the 26 counties of Southern Ireland (now the Republic of Ireland). Meantime, the Government of Ireland Act, 1920, had enacted a constitution for Northern Ireland which perpetuated Northern Ireland representation in the United Kingdom Parliament as the supreme authority and, at the same time, provided that country with its own legislature and executive, to deal with domestic affairs.

Fundamental policies on major issues are adopted for the whole of the United Kingdom; methods of government, however, are flexible and adapted to individual needs. Thus, there is a considerable devolution in the administration of Welsh affairs under a Cabinet Minister (who is Minister for Welsh Affairs) assisted by a Minister of State, who spends most of his time in Wales. Scotland has its own system of law, its own courts, its own established church, its own educational system and its own Government Departments which are under the direction of the Secretary of State for Scotland, who is a leading member of the United Kingdom Government. The Northern Ireland Government Departments are responsible to the Northern Ireland Parliament. The Channel Islands and the Isle of Man (which are Crown dependencies, not part of the United Kingdom) have their own legislative assemblies and systems of local administration and of law, and their own courts. At the same time, they have a special relationship with the United Kingdom because of their proximity to the mainland and the antiquity of their connection with the Crown. They are treated as part of the mainland for purposes of trade and postal communication and are 'territories for whose international relations Her Majesty's Government is responsible'. They are also formally subject to the United Kingdom Parliament.

The United Kingdom is thus a multi-national nation; it is also one of the member nations of the Commonwealth, all of which (except the republics of India and Pakistan and the Federation of Malaya) owe allegiance to the Crown. India, Pakistan and Malaya accept the Queen as the symbol of the free association of the member nations and, as such, as the head of the Commonwealth.

Each member nation of the Commonwealth has its own separate constitution, governed by different laws and customs, and subject to different powers of change. The United Kingdom constitution is formed partly by statute, partly by common



POPULAR SPORTS

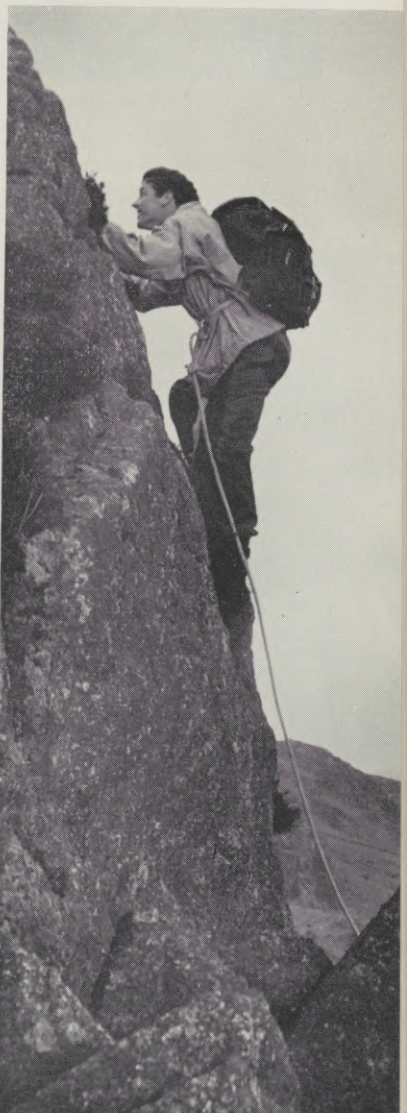
Above, the Football Association Amateur Cup Final at Wembley, April 1958.

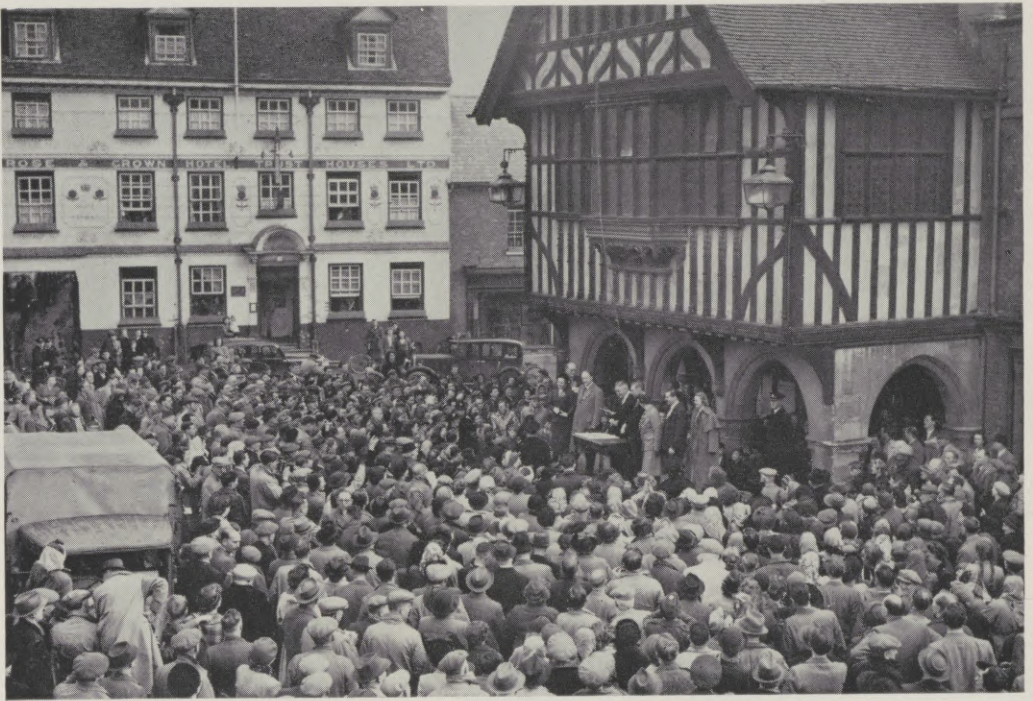


Sailing during Burnham Week, one of many annual regattas held round the coast of Britain.

Rock-climbing from an Outward Bound Mountain School in the Lake District.

Miss Sheila Willcox on *High and Mighty* won the British Horse Society's trials at Badminton in April 1958.





Parliamentary election: the declaration of the poll in front of the Town Hall at Saffron Walden, Essex. The new Member of Parliament is seen with the defeated candidates.

The Houses of Parliament, Westminster. Parliament has met on this site since the fourteenth century.



law and partly by precepts and practices, known as conventions, which are not part of the law of the land in that violation of them may lead to proceedings in a court of law, but which are nevertheless indispensable to the machinery of government. The rules of the constitution have never been codified, and can be changed at any time by the passing of an Act of Parliament or by the general acceptance of a new convention.

The three organs of government in the United Kingdom constitution are readily distinguishable, although their functions often intermingle and overlap. They are:

- (1) the Legislature, which consists of the Queen in Parliament, and is the supreme authority in the realm;
- (2) the Executive, which consists of the Cabinet and other Ministers of the Crown, who are responsible for initiating and directing national policy; Government Departments, most of them under the control of Ministers, and all staffed by civil servants, who are responsible for administration at the national level; local authorities, who administer and manage many services at the local level; and statutory boards, which are severally responsible for the operation of particular nationalised industries or public services, and which may be subject to ministerial control in varying degrees; and
- (3) the Judiciary, which determines common law and interprets statutes, and is independent of both the legislature and the executive.

This chapter will describe these organs of government in some detail in order to show how the constitution of the United Kingdom works.

THE MONARCHY

The monarchy is the most ancient secular institution in the United Kingdom. Its continuity has been broken only once in over a thousand years; and in spite of interruptions in the direct line of succession, the hereditary principle upon which it was founded has never been abandoned. Queen Elizabeth II is a descendant of the Saxon king, Egbert, who united all England in the year 829.

The royal title in the United Kingdom is, according to the Royal Titles Act, 1953: '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 the other member nations of the Commonwealth which owe allegiance to the Crown, to suit the particular circumstances of each.

The seat of the monarchy is in the United Kingdom. In the other member nations of the Commonwealth which owe allegiance to the Crown, the Queen is represented by a Governor-General appointed by the Crown on the advice of the ministers of the country concerned. The functions of the Governor-General are to fill the role of ceremonial head of the State and to exercise the prerogative powers of the Crown in public administration according to the constitutional practice obtaining in the country to which he is accredited. As the Queen's representative, the Governor-General is wholly independent of the United Kingdom Government; he is often a national of the country in which he holds office. In the United Kingdom dependencies the Queen is represented by Governors-General, Governors, High Commissioners or Residents, who are appointed by the Crown, but who have, in addition, varying executive and legislative powers, and are responsible to the United Kingdom Government for the good government of the countries concerned. In the Channel Islands, and in the Isle of Man, the Queen is represented by a Lieutenant-Governor.

Both the permanence of the monarchy, and its divisibility, have been ascribed to the fact that the United Kingdom has no rigid constitutional code. Principles and practice are both alterable, and the rules of the constitution can be adapted to changing conditions without serious disturbance to existing organs and forms.

Succession

The title to the Crown derives from the Act of Settlement, 1701, which laid it down that 'the Crown . . . shall remain and continue to the said most excellent Princess Sophia¹ and the heirs of her body being Protestants'. Subsequent Succession to the Crown Acts have confirmed this declaration; and although succession is not bound to continue in its present line, it cannot now be altered (under a provision of the Statute of Westminster, 1931) except by common consent of the member nations of the Commonwealth which owe allegiance to the Crown.

The inheritance of the Crown is governed by rules of descent, which provide that the sons of the Sovereign are in Order of Succession to the Throne according to their seniority, or, if there are no sons, the daughters in order of seniority. When a daughter succeeds, she becomes Queen-Regnant, and powers of the Crown are vested in her as fully and effectively as though she were a king. By convention, the consort of a king takes the rank and style of her husband; but the converse does not apply, and the constitution has never attached any special rank or privileges to the husband of the Queen-Regnant.

Accession

There is no interregnum between the death of one Sovereign and the accession of another. Immediately on the death of his or her predecessor the new Sovereign is proclaimed at an Accession Council to which all members of the Privy Council are summoned. The Lords Spiritual and Temporal, the Lord Mayor, Aldermen and other leading citizens of the City of London, and the High Commissioners in London of the member nations of the Commonwealth are also invited to attend.

Coronation

The coronation of the Sovereign follows the accession after an interval which may last for a year or more. The ceremony, which has frequently been modified in detail to bring it into conformity with the customs of the time, has remained much the same in substance for nearly a thousand years. The service used at the coronation of Queen Elizabeth II in 1953 was derived from that used at the coronation of King Edgar at Bath in the year 973.

The coronation service is held at Westminster Abbey in the presence of representatives of the peers, the Commons and all the great public interests in the United Kingdom, of the Prime Ministers and leading members of the other Commonwealth countries, and of representatives of foreign States.

Acts of Government

The Queen is the personification of the State. In law, she is the head of the executive, an integral part of the legislature, the head of the judiciary in England and Wales, Northern Ireland, and Scotland, the commander-in-chief of all the armed forces of the Crown and the temporal head of the established Church of England. In practice, as a result of a long evolutionary process, during which many restrictions on the Royal Prerogative have been imposed, these powers have changed from being the weapon of the monarchy to being the means of giving effect to the

¹ The Electress of Hanover, grand-daughter of James I.

public will. Today, the Queen acts only on the advice of her ministers which she cannot constitutionally ignore. She reigns, but she does not rule. The United Kingdom is governed by Her Majesty's Government in the name of the Queen.

Within this framework, and in spite of the fact that the trend of legislation during the past hundred years has been to assign powers directly to ministers without any necessity for royal intervention, there are still important acts of government which require the participation of the Queen.

The Queen summons, prorogues and dissolves Parliament; she opens the new session with a speech from the throne; and she must give Royal Assent before a Bill which has passed all its stages in both Houses of Parliament becomes a legal enactment. The Queen is 'the fountain of justice', and in spite of the fact that the judiciary is now completely independent of the executive, 'all jurisdictions of the courts are either indirectly or immediately derived from the Crown'. As 'the fountain of honour', the Queen confers peerages, knighthoods and other honours,¹ and she makes appointments to all important State offices, including those of judges, officers in the armed forces, governors, and diplomats, and to all leading positions in the established Church of England. The Queen's consent and approval are required before a minister can take up office or a Cabinet be formed. In the realm of international affairs, by virtue of her pre-eminence as head of the State, the Queen has the prerogative power to conclude treaties, to cede or accept territory, to declare war and to make peace.

Other prerogative powers of the Crown relate to the creation of corporations by Royal Charter; the construction and supervision of harbours; the guardianship of infants and persons of unsound mind; the administration of charities; coinage; the grant of franchises, e.g., markets, ferries and fisheries; the right to treasure trove; and the sole right of printing or licensing others to print the Bible, the Book of Common Prayer and State papers.

There is clear ministerial responsibility for all these acts of government, as is shown in the three ways in which the royal will can be constitutionally expressed: by Order in Council made 'by and with the advice of the Privy Council'; by Order, Commission or Warrant signed personally with the Queen's initials and generally bearing the signature of one or more responsible ministers; or by Proclamation, Writs, Letters Patent, or other documents under the Great Seal affixed by the Lord Chancellor in obedience to a Royal Warrant countersigned by a minister.

Ministerial responsibility for the exercise of powers by the Crown does not detract from the importance of the participation of the Sovereign in the smooth working of government; for although the Queen has no personal authority and must show complete impartiality in every field, she must be informed and consulted on every aspect of the national life to the widest possible extent. The Queen holds meetings of the Privy Council, gives audiences to her ministers and other holders of office at home and overseas, receives accounts of Cabinet decisions, reads dispatches and signs innumerable State papers.

Such is the significance attached to these royal functions that provision has been made by Acts of Parliament for a Regent to be appointed to fulfil them if the Sovereign is totally incapacitated, or if the Heir Apparent or the Heir Presumptive is under the age of eighteen on accession to the throne. The latest of these Acts—

¹ Most honours are conferred by the Sovereign on the advice of the Prime Minister; a few, i.e. the Order of Merit, the Royal Victorian Order, the Most Noble Order of the Garter, and the Most Noble and Most Ancient Order of the Thistle, are conferred by the Sovereign personally.

the Regency Act, 1953—laid down that the first potential Regent should be the Duke of Edinburgh and thereafter the Princess Margaret and then those in succession to the throne who are of age. In the event of the Sovereign's partial incapacity or absence abroad, provision is made for the appointment of Counsellors of State to carry out those of the royal functions which are delegated to them.

Ceremonial

Ceremonial has always been associated with the kings and queens of the British Isles, and in spite of the changes that have taken place with the altered outlook of both the Sovereign and the people, certain customs and usages are the same today as they were many centuries ago. Royal marriages, the birth of royal children and royal funerals are still marked by ancient ceremonial, although to a lesser degree than in former days; and the birthday of the Sovereign, formerly the occasion of many royal and public functions, is today officially celebrated early in June by Trooping the Colour on the Horse Guards Parade. State banquets still take place when a foreign monarch or head of State pays a visit to the United Kingdom; investitures are still held at Buckingham Palace; and Royal processions continue to grace such social occasions as the Ascot Race Meeting, known as Royal Ascot, and to add significance to the opening of Parliament, when the Queen drives in state from Buckingham Palace.

The Sovereign is the leader of society by order of general precedence dating from the fourteenth century and sustained until the present day by royal ordinances, ancient usage, established custom and the public will. The Queen's presence at the inauguration of scientific, artistic, industrial, and charitable works of national importance ensures nation-wide interest and support.

PARLIAMENT

The supreme legislative authority in the United Kingdom is the Queen in Parliament, that is to say the Queen and the two Houses of Parliament—the House of Lords and the House of Commons—which together represent all the elements in the nation.

The three sections of 'Parliament' in this sense are outwardly separate: they are constituted on entirely different principles; they do different work in different places and they meet only on occasions of great symbolic significance such as the Coronation or the opening of Parliament by the Queen in person, when the Commons are summoned by the Queen to the House of Lords. As a law-making organ of State, however, Parliament is a corporate body and cannot legislate without the concurrence of all its parts, except in the case of measures passed under the Parliament Acts, 1911 and 1949.

The Parliament at Westminster is representative of all the countries of the United Kingdom; it can legislate for all the British Islands; for the United Kingdom; for Great Britain; for England and Wales separately, or for Scotland alone. It is not, however, the only legislature, for the Northern Ireland Parliament has power to legislate in certain spheres, and within the British Islands the ancient legislatures of the two Channel Island Bailiwicks (the States) and of the Isle of Man (the Tynwald) both legislate on domestic matters.¹ Nevertheless, the Parliament at

¹ The legislatures of the Channel Islands and the Isle of Man 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 becomes law.

Westminster retains supreme authority, and within practical limits there is nothing that it cannot legally do.

By the passing of the Parliament Act, 1911, the normal life of the United Kingdom Parliament was fixed at five years (although it may be and often is dissolved in less than that time); and since one Parliament cannot bind its successor (for otherwise the succeeding Parliament would not be sovereign or supreme), each assembly has a period of time of up to five years during which it may legislate exactly as it chooses. During its life, it can make or unmake any law; it can destroy by statute the most firmly established convention of the constitution; it can legalise past illegalities and thus reverse the decisions of the courts; and it even has power to prolong its own life by legislative means beyond the normal period of five years without consulting the electorate.

In law, therefore, the supremacy of Parliament is absolute. In practice, Parliament does not attempt to exert its supremacy in this way. In the first place, pressure of business in recent decades has resulted in a large and increasing amount of delegation of legislative authority to ministers, and of specific powers to local authorities and to public corporations of various kinds. Powers delegated in this way could, of course, be withdrawn by Parliament, but existing demands on parliamentary time make such a development extremely unlikely. Secondly, the system of party government in the United Kingdom effectively discourages Parliament from acting in too arbitrary a fashion; any parliamentary majority which abused its powers would almost certainly suffer severely at the hands of the electors.

The Meeting of Parliament

A 'Parliament', in the sense of a parliamentary period, begins and ends with a proclamation made by the Sovereign on the advice of the Privy Council. Such a proclamation on the one hand dissolves an existing Parliament and, on the other, orders the issue of writs for the election of a new one and appoints the day and place of its meeting.

Formerly the death of a Sovereign involved the dissolution of Parliament, since Parliament meets on the personal summons of the monarch. However, since the passing of the Representation of the People Act, 1867, made the duration of Parliament independent of the demise of the Crown, both Houses stand adjourned only until their members have taken the Oath of Allegiance to the new Sovereign, which occurs immediately after the Accession Council has made the order for Proclamation.

The time between the meeting of a Parliament and its prorogation or dissolution is called a session. Parliament is usually prorogued by a commission under the Great Seal, which appoints the day and place of its meeting in a new session. The date so appointed may be brought forward or deferred by a subsequent proclamation. The effect of a prorogation is at once to terminate all business until Parliament is summoned again, when any measures not yet passed must be re-introduced, unless it has been decided that they are to be abandoned.

During the session, either House may adjourn itself on its own motion to such date as it pleases. An adjournment does not affect uncompleted business. A re-assembly of the House can be accelerated either by proclamation or by virtue of powers specially conferred by each House on its Speaker.

The average length of a session is about 160 sitting days, divided by custom into the following periods: one from November until Christmas lasting about 30 sitting days, one from January to Easter of about 50 sitting days, one from Easter until Whitsun of about 30 sitting days, and one from Whitsun until the end of July lasting about 40 sitting days. In addition, in recent years, the session has usually

concluded with a short period of about 10 sitting days in October, after the long summer recess.

The House of Lords

The House of Lords consists of over 800 peers, as follows: (1) princes of the royal blood (who nowadays take no active part in proceedings), (2) 26 spiritual peers (the two archbishops and 24 senior bishops of the Church of England), (3) all hereditary peers (other than minors and those who have not proved their right to a writ of summons) of England, Great Britain, and the United Kingdom,¹ (4) 16 hereditary peers of Scotland elected from their own number for each Parliament in accordance with the provisions of the Treaty of Union, 1707, (5) two representative peers of Ireland elected for life,² (6) nine Lords of Appeal in Ordinary appointed to perform the judicial duties of the House and holding their seats therein for life, and (7) a number of life peers (including life peeresses) created (under the provisions of the Life Peerages Act, 1958) to bring into the House persons of eminence and authority who may not wish to accept a hereditary peerage.

Temporal peerages (both hereditary and life) are conferred as a mark of distinction by the Sovereign on the advice of the Prime Minister. Hereditary peerages, with the exception of the Scottish and Irish peerages, carry with them, for men over 21 years of age, a right to a seat in the House of Lords, but, according to Standing Orders promulgated by the House on 16th June, 1958, holders are asked, at the beginning of each Parliament, whether they will attend the sittings of the House as often as they reasonably can or whether they desire to be relieved of the obligation of attendance. If they do so desire, they are required to apply for leave of absence, either for the duration of the Parliament or for a shorter period, during which they are not expected to attend the House. This system helps to ensure that there is a known working body of peers, actively and continuously carrying out the parliamentary functions of the Lords.

Peers in constant attendance at the House of Lords are generally persons of considerable experience, many of whom are elder statesmen and others who have spent their lives in public service. They receive no salary for their work in the House of Lords; but they are entitled to travelling expenses from their homes to the Palace of Westminster (provided they attend at least one third of the number of sittings), and (with the exception of the Lord Chancellor, the Lord Chairman of Committees and any member in receipt of a salary as the holder of a ministerial office) they may claim payment for expenses incurred for the purpose of attendance at the House, except for judicial sittings, within a maximum of three guineas a day.

The House of Lords is presided over by the Lord Chancellor, who is the Speaker of the House. The permanent officers include the Clerk of the Parliaments, who is charged with keeping the records of proceedings and judgments and who pronounces the words of assent to Bills; the Gentleman Usher of the Black Rod, who enforces the orders of the House; and the Serjeant-at-Arms, who attends the Lord Chancellor.

The House of Commons

The House of Commons is a popular assembly elected by an almost universal adult suffrage and containing members from all sections of the community

¹ Peerages created between 1707 (the Treaty for the Union of England and Scotland) and 1800 are peerages of Great Britain; those created since the Act for the Union of Great Britain and Ireland, 1800, are peerages of the United Kingdom.

² By the Act for the Union of Great Britain and Ireland, 1800, the Irish peers were entitled to elect 28 representatives, but since 1922 no new peers have been elected.

regardless of income or occupation. There are at present 630 members of the House of Commons (511 for England, 36 for Wales, 71 for Scotland, 12 for Northern Ireland).

Members of the House of Commons, who receive a salary for their parliamentary work, hold their seats during the life of a Parliament. They are elected either at a General Election, which takes place after a Parliament has been dissolved and a new one summoned by the Sovereign, or at a by-election, which is held when a vacancy occurs in the House as a result of the death or resignation of a member or as a result of the elevation of a member of the House of Commons to the House of Lords.

The chief parliamentary officer of the House of Commons is the Speaker, who is elected by the members as president of the House immediately after a new Parliament is formed. Other parliamentary officers of the House are the Chairman of Ways and Means, and the Deputy-Chairman, who may act as Deputy Speaker; both these officers are elected by the House. In addition, there are the party officials, i.e. the Government and Opposition Whips. Non-parliamentary or permanent officers of the House, i.e. those who are not members of Parliament, include the Clerk of the House of Commons, who is charged with such matters as keeping the records, endorsing Bills and signing Orders; the Serjeant-at-Arms, who attends the Speaker in the House; and the Chaplain to the Speaker.

Parliamentary Electoral System

For electoral purposes, the United Kingdom is divided into constituencies, each of which returns one member to Parliament. In order that the people shall at all times be equitably represented by this means, permanent Boundary Commissions for England, Scotland, Wales, and Northern Ireland (established in 1944) keep constituencies constantly under review and submit periodic reports, either recommending some alteration in boundaries if, for instance, movement of the population has made this necessary, or recommending no change. Changes in the boundaries of constituencies which came into effect for the 1955 General Election increased the number of seats in the House of Commons from 625 to 630.

The law relating to parliamentary elections is contained in three consolidating statutes, the most important of which is the Representation of the People Act, 1949, which repeals and re-enacts in a single statute previous legislation relating to the franchise, the conduct of elections and corrupt and illegal electoral practices. The other Acts are the House of Commons (Redistribution of Seats) Act, 1949, and the Election Commissioners Act, 1949. Under the provisions of these Acts, election to the House of Commons is decided by secret ballot in which all United Kingdom citizens (except members of the House of Lords) and all citizens of the Commonwealth and of the Republic of Ireland who are resident in the United Kingdom are entitled to vote, provided that they are 21 years old or over, and unless they suffer any legal incapacity to vote. A register containing the names of all electors is prepared and published yearly by registration officers, who, in England and Wales, are usually the clerks of local councils, and in Scotland are the lands valuation assessors. Electors normally vote in person at polling stations specially established for the purpose, although Service voters, i.e. members of the armed forces, Crown servants of the United Kingdom employed overseas, and the wives of such persons if resident overseas with their husbands, may vote by proxy. Voting by post, or in certain cases by proxy, may also be allowed if the voter cannot attend in person for such reasons as illness or the nature of his work. All entitled to vote may stand for election, except undischarged bankrupts, clergymen of the established Churches of England and Scotland, of the Church of Ireland and of the Roman Catholic Church,

and persons disqualified under the House of Commons Disqualification Act, 1957, i.e. persons who are holders of public offices or members of public services listed in the Act.

Parliamentary Privilege

Both Houses of Parliament enjoy certain privileges and immunities designed to protect them from unnecessary obstruction in carrying out their duties. These privileges apply collectively to both Houses and individually to each member.

In the House of Commons, the Speaker formally claims from the Crown for the Commons 'their ancient and undoubted rights and privileges' at the beginning of each Parliament. These include freedom from arrest in civil proceedings for a period of forty days before to forty days after a session of Parliament; freedom of speech in debate; and the right of access to the Crown, which is a collective privilege of the House. Further privileges include the right to control its own proceedings (so that it has been able, when the public interest so required, to debate in secret); the right to pronounce upon legal disqualifications for membership and to declare a seat vacant on such grounds; and the right to punish those who commit a breach of its privileges.

The privileges of the House of Lords are: freedom from civil arrest for peers as for members of the House of Commons; freedom of speech in debate; freedom of access to the Sovereign for each peer individually; and the right to commit for contempt. These privileges are not formally claimed by the Speaker as in the House of Commons; they exist independently without grant.

The Party System

The party system has existed in one form or another since the seventeenth century, and has now become an essential element in the working of the constitution.

The present system is based upon the existence of organised political parties, each laying rival policies before the electorate. Whenever there is a General Election, these parties may all put up candidates for election; independent candidates may also stand.¹ The electorate then indicates, by its choice of candidate at the poll on election day, which of the opposing policies it would like to see put into effect.

The party which wins the majority of seats (although not necessarily the majority of votes) at a General Election, or which is able to command a majority of supporters in the House of Commons, forms the Government. By tradition, the leader of the majority party is appointed as Prime Minister by the Sovereign, usually on the formal advice of the retiring Prime Minister; and its most outstanding members in the House of Lords and the House of Commons receive ministerial appointments on the advice of the Prime Minister. The largest minority party becomes the official Opposition with its own leader and its own council of discussion or 'shadow Cabinet'; while the members of any other parties or any Independents who have been elected may support the Government or the Opposition according to their party's or their own view of the policy being debated at any given time.

In the General Election which took place on the 26th May, 1955, 76·8 per cent of the electorate voted, compared with 76·1 per cent in 1945, 84 per cent in 1950, and 82·6 per cent in 1951. The number of votes cast for the principal parties is shown in Table 3.

¹ In the General Election of May 1955, the choice was between Labour and Conservative in most constituencies. Liberal candidates numbered 110. In a few constituencies, two of the parties agreed to support the same candidate. The number of candidates representing other political parties was very small.

TABLE 3
VOTES CAST AT GENERAL ELECTIONS 1945-1955

Party	1945 (a)	1950 (a)	1951 (a)	1955
Labour (and Co-operative) ..	11,992,292	13,295,736	13,948,385	12,405,146(b)
Conservative and supporters ..	9,960,809	12,501,983	13,724,418	13,311,938
Liberal	2,245,319	2,621,489	730,551	722,395
Communist ..	102,780	91,815	21,640	33,144
Others (c) ..	677,749	258,454	177,329	288,038

(a) Figures for 1945, 1950 and 1951 exclude those few constituencies for which candidates were returned unopposed. All seats were contested in 1955.

(b) Includes Northern Ireland Labour (35,614).

(c) 'Others' include Welsh and Scottish Nationalists, Independent Labour Party, other Independents, Irish Labour, Irish Nationalist, Irish Anti-Partitionist and Sinn Fein.

The distribution of seats in the House of Commons resulting from the General Elections of 1951 and 1955 is shown in Table 4.

TABLE 4
SEATS GAINED AT GENERAL ELECTIONS IN 1951 AND 1955

1951		1955	
Conservative and supporters	320	Conservative and supporters	346(b)
Labour	295	Labour	277
Liberal	6	Liberal	6
Others (a)	3	The Speaker	1
The Speaker	1		<hr/>
	<hr/>		630
	625		

(a) Two Irish Nationalists and one Irish Labour Party.

(b) A majority of 63 (excluding the Speaker) over all other parties. This was the first time in 90 years that a Government in office had been returned with an increased majority. Sinn Fein candidates headed the poll in two Northern Ireland constituencies, but as they were serving sentences of penal servitude (for taking part in an armed raid on an army barracks in 1954) they were legally incapable of becoming members of Parliament. Ulster Unionist candidates now represent both constituencies.

By August 1958, as a result of by-elections held since 1955, the Labour party had gained four seats—three from the Conservative party and one from the Liberal party, and the Liberals had gained one seat from the Conservatives. Therefore, at that date, Conservatives and their supporters held 342 seats, Labour 281, and the Liberals 6, and the Government majority (excluding the Speaker) was 55 over all other parties.

The effectiveness of the party system in Parliament rests to a considerable extent upon the fact that Government and Opposition alike are carried on by agreement: that is to say, the minority agrees that the majority must govern and, therefore, accepts its decisions; and the majority agrees that the minority should criticise and, therefore, sets time aside for that criticism to be heard. As far as is compatible with effective government, the Prime Minister meets the convenience of the Leader of

the Opposition and the Leader of the Opposition meets the convenience of the Prime Minister. Through the respective Whips there is a measure of agreement on the subjects to be debated and on the time to be allowed; sometimes even on the information to be provided and the proposed line of attack. In this way, Parliament has a chance of hearing a full discussion on policy from every point of view.

Outside Parliament, party control is exercised by the national and local organisations; inside Parliament, it is exercised by the Whips, who in addition to their other functions are expected to maintain the voting strength of their parties. For the Government, this work is done by the Parliamentary Secretary to the Treasury, the Junior Lords of the Treasury, and the political officers of the Household—the Treasurer, the Comptroller and the Vice-Chamberlain. The Opposition Whips have no official position and are not paid from public funds, but their parliamentary duties are the same.

The Functions of Parliament

The main functions of Parliament today are (1) to make laws regulating the life of the community, (2) to take formal action, cast in legislative form, to make available finance for the needs of the community and to appropriate the funds necessary for the services of the State, and (3) to criticise and control the Government. By custom, Parliament is also consulted before the ratification of certain international treaties and agreements, in spite of the fact that the making of treaties is a Royal Prerogative exercised on the advice of the Government which, strictly speaking, is under no obligation to obtain parliamentary approval at all. In practice, there are two types of agreement about which Parliament is consulted; treaties which could not be implemented without legislation; and treaties of such political importance that the Government feels obliged to arrange a debate on the matter before becoming committed. In the case of other treaties requiring ratification, it is customary to presume parliamentary acquiescence unless disapproval is expressed within 21 days from the date on which the treaty was laid before Parliament.

Parliamentary Procedure

Parliamentary procedure¹ is based on forms and rules, many of which date back to the beginning of the sixteenth century and even earlier.

Each House has its own Standing Orders, but the system of debate is much the same in the two Houses, except that in the House of Commons the Speaker has a much greater measure of control. In the House of Lords, the office of Speaker could be held by a commoner, since the Woolsack on which the Lord Chancellor sits as Speaker is technically outside the precincts of the House. In fact, the holder of the office is always created a peer, but the office carries with it no inherent authority to check or curtail debate. Such matters are decided by the general sense of the House and not by rulings of its Speaker.

In the Commons, the Speaker has the prime duty of controlling debate. It is his responsibility to see that parliamentary time is used to the best possible advantage and, therefore, although he must carefully guard against abuse of procedure or any infringement of minority rights, he has power to limit unreasonable obstruction and his rulings on points of order cannot be challenged at the time. It is the duty of the Speaker to allow or disallow a closure motion (i.e. a motion to curtail or end

¹ The growth of parliamentary business that has characterised the post-war decade has led to a demand for a further review of House of Commons procedure. This has been met by the appointment of a Select Committee to consider the procedure in the public business of the House and to report what alterations, if any, are desirable for its more efficient dispatch.

discussion so that the matter may be put to the vote) and generally to enforce the rules of debate of the House. In cases of grave and continuous disorder, he may even adjourn the House or suspend the sitting.

Voting in the House of Commons is carried out under the direction of the Speaker, and it is his duty to pronounce the final result. If an equal number of votes is cast, the Speaker must give the decisive vote; he does this (if possible) in such a way as to avoid change and leave the question to be debated on another occasion.

The Speaker has the responsibility of deciding whether a Bill is a Money Bill (i.e. a Bill dealing only with national taxation and finance, which comes within the terms of the Parliament Act, 1911); and who, in case of doubt, is the Leader of the Opposition. He is also responsible for such extraneous matters as the decision whether a *prima facie* case has been made against persons accused of breach of privilege; the issue of warrants for elections to fill vacancies in the House; and the appointment of the chairmen of the Standing Committees.

All proceedings of either House (except secret sessions) are public, and a verbatim record is published daily in the official reports, *Parliamentary Debates (Hansard)*.

Parliamentary Committees

A committee of the whole House is the House itself, presided over by a chairman instead of the Speaker, appointed to consider Bills in detail, clause by clause, and also (in the House of Commons) the resolutions authorising the expenditure of public money. The Committees of Supply and Ways and Means are committees of the whole House which mainly discharge the financial duties of the House of Commons concerning the grant of public money and the levying of taxation.

There are two other main kinds of parliamentary committee, both of which exist to a varying degree to relieve their parent House of some of its more specialised and complex work. They are:

- (1) standing committees, which are appointed by the House of Commons as necessary, for the consideration of Bills and other business committed to them. With the exception of the Scottish Standing and Grand Committees¹ (which deal with Public Bills and other matters relating to Scotland) each standing committee consists of twenty members nominated by the Committee of Selection (a body of eleven members drawn from the three main parties in the House at the beginning of each session) and up to thirty additional members; in all cases the parties are represented in proportion to their numbers in the House. The procedure of a standing committee is generally similar to that of a committee of the whole House; and
- (2) select committees, including joint select committees of both Houses, which are appointed to inquire into and report to the House on special matters, e.g., the Select Committees on Public Accounts, on Estimates, on Statutory Instruments, and on the nationalised industries.

Various other committees exist to deal with Private Bill legislation. There are also a number of unofficial committees, consisting either of one party or of members of all parties, such as study groups concerning themselves with particular issues, e.g., the Parliamentary and Scientific Committee; and parliamentary party committees, e.g., the Labour Policy Committee, and the Conservative and Unionist

¹ The Scottish Standing Committee consists of thirty members for Scottish constituencies with up to twenty added members, and the Scottish Grand Committee contains all the members for the Scottish constituencies, together with between ten and fifteen others.

Members Committee, popularly known as the 1922 Committee—a committee of Conservative members of Parliament, who are neither ministers nor, as a rule, ex-ministers.

Legislation

Legislation can be initiated from either side of the House; but no Bill involving taxation or the spending of public money can proceed very far unless the Government agrees to introduce a 'financial resolution' to cover it. This naturally gives the Government the exclusive right of legislating over a wide field and, as a result, most Public Bills are brought forward in this way. Members can, however, still introduce Bills on their own initiative, and certain days in each session are expressly set aside for this purpose. In addition, persons and bodies outside Parliament can introduce Private Bills¹ which relate solely to matters of individual, corporate or local interest.

Bills may be introduced in either House, unless they deal with finance or representation, when they are always introduced in the Commons. As a rule, however, Bills likely to raise political controversy are introduced in the Commons, while legislation of an intricate but non-controversial nature is frequently introduced and fully discussed in the Lords before being sent to the Commons, who can then deal with it more speedily.

The process of passing a Public Bill is basically the same in the House of Lords as in the House of Commons. The Bill receives a formal First Reading on introduction; it is then printed; and after a period of time (which varies between one and several weeks depending on the nature of the Bill) it may be given a Second Reading as the result of a debate on its general merits or principles. It is then referred for detailed examination (in the Commons) either to a standing committee or, if the House so decides, to the whole House sitting in committee; and, in the Lords, to a committee of the whole House. When the committee stage is finished, the Bill is reported to the House, and a further stage takes place during which the committee's amendments may be altered, additional amendments may be suggested and incorporated, and, if necessary, the Bill may be recommitted to committee. Finally, it is submitted for a Third Reading and, if passed, it is sent on from the Commons to the Lords or from the Lords to the Commons (depending on its place of origin), where it enters on the same course again. Any amendments which the second House makes to the Bill must be agreed to by the first House, or a compromise reached, before the Bill becomes law.

An exception to this procedure is made in the case of some financial Bills, such as the Finance Bill, which authorises annual taxation and amends existing taxation, and the Appropriation Bill, which authorises expenditure on the Supply Services from the Consolidated Fund. As a general rule, these Bills must be introduced in the House of Commons upon Resolutions in a Committee of the whole House and they may be initiated only by a Minister of the Crown.

All Bills which have passed through their various parliamentary stages are sent to the Sovereign for Royal Assent, which is now usually given by commission. The Sovereign's right of veto has not been exercised since the early eighteenth century.

The majority of Bills introduced in the House of Lords pass through the Commons without difficulty because of their non-controversial nature; and they are

¹ Such Bills are founded on petitions to Parliament, and promoters must give notice of their intention to all persons and bodies whose interests may be affected by their proposals. The committee stage is quasi-judicial and provision is made for counsel to represent supporters and opposers of the Bill.

then returned to the Lords to be brought forward for Royal Assent. However, should any Lords Bill be unacceptable to the Commons, it would never reach the Statute Book, for no debating time would be allotted to it—at any rate until a new Government came into power, when it might be revived. The Lords, on the other hand, are unlikely to be able to prevent a Bill passed in the Commons from becoming law. In the normal course of events, they either accept a Bill from the Commons and return it unchanged; or they revise and improve it by amendments and return it for the consideration of members of the other House, who frequently agree to the amendments made. They cannot require the Commons to agree to amendments; nor can they delay a Bill indefinitely. They have no powers in respect of Money Bills; and since the passing of the Parliament Act, 1949, any other Bill which has been passed by the House of Commons in two successive sessions may be presented for Royal Assent without the consent of the Lords, provided that a year has elapsed between the date of the Second Reading of the Bill in the Commons and the date on which it is finally passed in that House. These limitations to the powers of the Lords are based on the belief that the chief value of the Upper House, which is a non-elected assembly, lies not in thwarting the elected House, but in bringing the wide experience of its members into the legislative process. Proceedings in the House of Lords give time for further reflection, and often elicit new points of view.

Delegated Legislation

Delegated legislation, which is legislation not by Act of Parliament but by Orders in Council, Orders, Warrants, Regulations and Rules, has been part of the parliamentary system for at least six hundred years. One of the earliest recorded examples is to be found in a statute of 1337 which laid down that no wool should be exported from England 'till the King and his Council do otherwise provide'. Parliament, however, made but sparing use of its power to delegate legislation (except during a period of social, political and economic change in the second half of the fifteenth and most of the sixteenth centuries) until the end of the nineteenth century, when a changing conception of the part to be played by the State in the life of the community made inroads upon parliamentary time and thus caused the system to be adopted on a more extensive scale. With the ever-increasing scope of Government activity in domestic affairs during the past fifty years, pressure on parliamentary time has become even more acute; as a result, the system of delegated legislation has become generally accepted, and there are at present few Acts of Parliament which do not contain provisions for its use.

The advantages of the system of delegated legislation, which empowers ministers and other authorities to regulate administrative details after a Bill has become an Act, are said¹ to be: (1) that it shortens and clarifies Bills before Parliament, thus enabling Parliament to deal with a greater volume of business and to give fuller attention to matters of policy and principle which are its primary concern; (2) that it encourages flexibility, for administrative details can be worked out as and when the necessity arises 'with greater care and minuteness, and with better adaptation to local and other special circumstances than they possibly can be during the passage of a Bill through Parliament'; (3) that it is invaluable in an emergency, for it is 'the means by which the legislature can dispense with its own deliberative procedure and arm the executive with power to take immediate action'; and (4) that it provides a speedy, convenient and accurate means of giving effect to the policy of Parliament.

¹ From an official minute written in 1893 and quoted in *Concerning English Administrative Law*, by Sir C. T. Carr. Oxford University Press. 1942. pp. 33-34.

In order to minimise the risk—inherent in the system—that delegated legislative powers might supersede or weaken parliamentary government, such powers are normally delegated to the Queen in Council or to authorities directly responsible to Parliament, i.e. to Ministers of the Crown, to Government Departments for which ministers are responsible, or to organisations whose legislation is subject to confirmation or approval by ministers who thereby become responsible to Parliament for it. Moreover the Acts of Parliament, by which particular powers are delegated, frequently provide for some measure of parliamentary control over legislation made in the exercise of these powers. There are cases in which an instrument¹ must be approved by Parliament or the House of Commons before it can have permanent operation ('affirmative resolution procedure'); others in which Parliament or the House of Commons may secure the annulment of an instrument by a resolution passed within a certain number of days of the instrument being laid before it ('negative resolution procedure'); and others again in which drafts of proposed instruments must be laid before Parliament or the House of Commons before they are made and are then subject either to affirmative or negative resolution procedure. The resolution, in the case of an instrument to be annulled after it has been made, takes the form of an Address to Her Majesty that the instrument be annulled (after which the instrument may be annulled by Order in Council). The House of Commons is aided in its supervision of delegated legislation by the reports of its Select Committee on Statutory Instruments, which always indicate the unusual or unexpected use of a statutory power.

As a further safeguard, the principal Act generally defines the precise limits of delegated legislative power; and if these limits are surpassed, the courts can be moved to declare that the action taken is *ultra vires*. Certain Acts also require direct consultation with organisations which will be affected by delegated legislation before such legislation is made.

Parliamentary Control

Parliament's function of controlling the Government in power is exercised in the final analysis by the power of the House of Commons to pass a resolution of 'no confidence' in the Government, or to reject a proposal which the Government considers so vital to its policy that it has made it a 'matter of confidence', and thus to force the Government to resign.

The financial control necessary to ensure that money shall be spent only with the authority of Parliament and for the purposes authorised by Parliament is described in Chapter XII, Finance, pp. 405-8. Methods of general control are provided by:

- (1) the institution of Question Time, which is a daily hour of parliamentary time during which members may question any minister on matters for which that minister is responsible, thus focusing the attention of the public on the day-to-day processes of government;
- (2) the practice whereby the consideration of the Estimates in Committee of Supply has ceased to be a consideration of the financial requirements of the Government and has become an occasion, initiated by the Opposition, for the examination of some aspect of the Government's administrative policy which has been included in the Estimates;

¹ Almost all delegated legislation of the central Government is enacted by means of 'statutory instruments', made in accordance with the provisions of the Statutory Instruments Act, 1946, which repealed and replaced the Rules Publication Act, 1893. Instruments of delegated legislation made under the Act of 1893 were known as 'statutory rules and orders' ('S.R. & O.').

- (3) the practice of bringing on a debate later in the same day by moving the adjournment of the House, which is permitted only if the matter is deemed by the Speaker to be definite, urgent, of public importance, and to be the responsibility of the Government, and if 40 members rise in their places to support it, or 10 members rise and the House grants leave on a division;
- (4) the right of members to raise any matter on the motion for the adjournment of either House at the end of each day's sitting; and
- (5) the power referred to in the preceding section to confirm or annul statutory instruments.

In addition, Government policy and action are fully discussed in the important debates which take place during the proceedings at the opening of Parliament and in the motion for the adjournment of the House before a recess.

Parliament and the Public

The public's interest in the work of Parliament is shown by the queues which form outside the House of Commons for admission to the public gallery, by the growth in the circulation of the daily official report (*Hansard*) which has increased to nearly five times the pre-war figure, and by the large radio audience which listens to two regular BBC programmes: *Today in Parliament*, a fifteen-minute summary of the day's proceedings in both Houses, broadcast each evening when Parliament is sitting; and *The Week in Westminster*, a radio commentary on each week's work, given by members from various political parties in turn.

The major news agencies and national newspapers have special parliamentary correspondents to report on parliamentary activities. The Hansard Society for Parliamentary Government, an unofficial non-party educational society, was founded in 1944 to promote interest in parliamentary affairs.

The Northern Ireland Parliament

The Parliament of Northern Ireland consists of the Sovereign, a Senate and a House of Commons. The Sovereign is represented in Northern Ireland by a Governor, who summons, prorogues and dissolves Parliament in Her Majesty's name; the Senate is composed of two *ex officio* Senators (the Lord Mayor of Belfast and the Mayor of Londonderry) together with 24 Senators elected by the House of Commons according to the principle of proportional representation; and the House of Commons consists of 52 members, elected by a system of parliamentary franchise similar to that which operates in Great Britain. The House, unless sooner dissolved, continues in existence for a period of five years.

The Northern Ireland Parliament has power to make laws for the peace, order and good government of Northern Ireland in relation to all matters except those especially reserved to the Parliament of the United Kingdom, i.e. the Crown or succession to the Crown; foreign relations; defence; the postal services; the judiciary; customs and excise; income and profits taxes; coinage; standards of weights and measures; trade marks; submarine cables; wireless telegraphy; aerial navigation; and lighthouses, buoys and beacons. The Northern Ireland Parliament is also prohibited from making laws which would interfere with religious freedom, and from taking property without compensation.

In consequence of these reservations, provision was made in the Government of Ireland Act, 1920, for the continued representation of the Northern Ireland constituencies in the House of Commons of the United Kingdom; by virtue of this provision, 12 members are returned to Westminster.

THE PRIVY COUNCIL

Until the eighteenth century, the Sovereign in Council or the Privy Council was the chief source of executive power in the State. As the system of Cabinet government developed, however, the Privy Council declined in importance; many of its powers were transferred to the Cabinet, and much of its work was handed over to newly created Government Departments. The present-day Privy Council exists mainly to give effect to policy decisions made elsewhere.

Apart from Cabinet Ministers, who must be Privy Counsellors and are sworn of the Council on first assuming office, membership of the Privy Council (which is retained for life) is accorded by the Sovereign on the recommendation of the Prime Minister as an honour to persons who have reached eminence in some branch of public affairs in any country of the Commonwealth. At the beginning of 1958 there were just under 300 Privy Counsellors.

Procedure and Functions

The Privy Council is convened by the Clerk of the Council and presided over by the Sovereign or, in the absence of the Sovereign, by the Lord President.¹ At meetings where the Sovereign is present, three Privy Counsellors form a quorum, but, as a rule, not fewer than four are summoned to attend. The whole Privy Council is called together only on the death of the Sovereign or when the Sovereign announces his or her intention to marry.

The Privy Council is responsible for the making of Orders in Council, of which there are two kinds differing fundamentally in constitutional principle: those made in virtue of the Royal Prerogative as, for example, when approving the draft of royal instructions to Colonial Governors; and those which are authorised by Act of Parliament and are a form of delegated legislation. Members of the Privy Council attending meetings at which Orders in Council are made do not thereby become personally responsible for the policy upon which the Orders are based; this rests with the ministers in whose Departments the draft Orders were framed, whether they are present at the meeting or not. Certain Orders in Council must be published in the *London Gazette*, which is an official periodical published by the authority of the Government.

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) which are of the same validity as Acts of Parliament.

Committees of the Privy Council

There are a number of Privy Council committees (presided over by the Lord President), whose meetings differ from the meetings of the full Council in that the Sovereign cannot constitutionally be present. These committees, which have advisory functions, may be prerogative, such as the committee which deals with legislative matters submitted by the legislatures of the Channel Islands and the Isle of Man for ratification by Order in Council, and the committees for medical research, scientific and industrial research, agricultural research, and nature conservation; or they may be provided for by statute as are those for the universities of Oxford and Cambridge and for the Scottish universities, and that which deals with applications for the grant of charters to municipal corporations.

¹ Since 1660, the office of Lord President has been a political appointment held by a member of the party in power, who is usually a leading member of the Cabinet. In addition to his duties in the Privy Council, the Lord President is free to undertake duties of a general kind.

The administrative work of the Privy Council committees is carried out in the Privy Council Office under the control of the Lord President of the Council. Parts of the work relating to research are undertaken by the Office of the Lord President of the Council, since he is responsible to Parliament for the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research, the Medical Research Council, the Agricultural Research Council, and the Nature Conservancy, and has a general oversight of scientific matters.

Judicial Committee

The Judicial Committee of the Privy Council is the final court of appeal on certain legal issues arising in Australia and New Zealand and their dependencies, in Ceylon, Ghana, and the Federation of Malaya, and in the United Kingdom dependent territories. Its appellate jurisdiction derives from the principle of English common law which recognises 'the right of all the King's subjects to appeal for redress to the Sovereign in Council' if they believe that the courts of law have failed to do them justice.

Appeals come to it in limited categories of cases where a right of appeal has been specially created, e.g., by Statute, Order in Council or Letters Patent, or by special leave of the Sovereign in Council on the advice of the Judicial Committee. Appeals are heard by a board of three or five drawn from the committee, depending on the significance of the case, the quorum being three. Invitations to sit on the board are issued by the Lord Chancellor, who thus determines which members of the committee shall hear particular appeals. In practice, boards are generally selected from the Law Lords of the United Kingdom—the Lord Chancellor, ex-Lord Chancellors and Lords of Appeal in Ordinary—although Lords Justices of Appeal and other members of the Privy Council who have held high judicial office are also asked to sit when business is heavy. Chief Justices and certain judges from other Commonwealth countries have usually been sworn of the Privy Council and may be invited to sit on the committee's boards.

HER MAJESTY'S GOVERNMENT

Her Majesty's Government is the body of ministers charged for the time being with the administration of national affairs.

Composition

The composition of the Government is subject to variation from time to time, both in the number of ministers and in the titles of some offices. The usual ministerial offices may be classified under the following heads:

1. *The Prime Minister*, who is the recognised head of the Government but has no Department.
2. *Departmental Ministers*, some of whom are known as Secretaries of State. There are at present seven Secretaries of State—for the Home Department, Foreign Affairs, Scotland, Commonwealth Relations, Colonies, War, and Air. The more recently created posts usually have the formal title of 'Minister'; and there are Ministers of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food; Defence; Education; Health; Housing and Local Government (also for Welsh Affairs); Labour and National Service; Pensions and National Insurance; Power; Supply; Transport and Civil Aviation; and Works. A few of the older posts have special titles: the Chancellor of the Exchequer

(who is responsible for the Treasury and for a number of other financial and central Departments); the President of the Board of Trade; the First Lord of the Admiralty; and the Postmaster General.

3. *Non-Departmental Ministers*, or ministers who are the holders of various traditional offices, including the Lord President of the Council, the Lord Privy Seal, the Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster,¹ the Paymaster-General and, at present, a Minister without Portfolio. These ministers have few or no departmental duties and are thus available to perform any special functions entrusted to them.
4. *The Lord Chancellor and the Law Officers*. The Lord Chancellor has a Department, but is in a somewhat special position as a Minister of the Crown who is 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.
5. *Ministers of State*, who are deputy ministers in Departments where the work is particularly heavy and complex, or when it involves frequent travelling overseas. There are now two Ministers of State in the Foreign Office, one in the Colonial Office, and one at the Board of Trade. In addition, the Secretary of State for Scotland is assisted at ministerial level by a Minister of State, and there is a Minister of State for Welsh Affairs.
6. *Junior Ministers*, who generally have the title of Parliamentary Secretary or, where the senior minister is a Secretary of State, Parliamentary Under-Secretary of State. The primary function of most junior ministers is to relieve their senior ministers of some of their burden by taking part in parliamentary debates and answering parliamentary questions, and by assisting in their departmental duties. The Parliamentary Secretary to the Treasury and the Junior Lords of the Treasury are in a different category as Government Whips.

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

The majority of ministers are members of the House of Commons, since the approval of that House is necessary for the general policy (and frequently for the specific proposals) of the Government. There must, however, always be some ministers in the House of Lords, partly because the Ministers of the Crown Act, 1937, limits the number of ministers who may sit in the Commons while receiving salaries from the Crown, and also because every Government must be assured of spokesmen of standing to expound and justify its intentions and its actions to the House of Lords.

The Prime Minister

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 his status as leader of the majority party in Parliament and from his power to submit his own choice of ministers to the Sovereign and to obtain their resignation or dismissal individually. In modern times, the Prime Minister always holds the

¹ 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.

additional office of First Lord Commissioner of the Treasury, and may also hold another portfolio. At the present time, he is the minister responsible for atomic energy.

It is the duty of the Prime Minister to inform the Sovereign of the general business of the Government; to preside over the Cabinet; and to exercise a general supervision over Departments, settling departmental differences and approving important departmental decisions where reference to the Cabinet is not required. The Prime Minister speaks for the Government in the House of Commons on the most important topics and answers questions on its general administration in that House.

The Prime Minister's other responsibilities include making recommendations for the appointment of Church of England archbishops, bishops and other senior clergy and incumbents of Crown livings, as well as for appointments to high judicial and civil offices such as that of the Lord Chief Justice and certain other judges, Lord Lieutenants of counties,¹ Regius Professors in certain universities and trustees of certain national museums. He also makes recommendations for the award of most civil honours and distinctions.

The Cabinet

The Cabinet is a conventional organ of government composed of a number of ministers selected by the Prime Minister. Membership is not fixed, although the holders of certain important ministerial offices are always included; the number of members is now usually less than twenty.

The origins of the Cabinet can be traced back to informal conferences between the Sovereign and his or her leading ministers held in the seventeenth century independently of the Privy Council. 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 Cabinet is designed to formulate general policy, to bring about co-operation between the different forces of the State without interfering with their legal independence, and to exercise general control. Its functions, as defined in the Report of the Machinery of Government Committee (Haldane Committee), 1918, *Cd.* 9230, are: the final determination of the policy to be submitted to Parliament; the supreme control of the national executive in accordance with the policy agreed by Parliament; and the continuous co-ordination and delimitation of the authority of the several Departments of State. It has no legal authority, however, since its decisions are valid by convention and not by law.

In determining Government policy, whether in the form of proposed legislation for the consideration of Parliament or otherwise, the Cabinet is able to take into account the widest possible range of interests in the country as a whole, by means of an elaborate machinery of consultation, both formal and informal. For the investigation of matters considered to be of the greatest importance, and where time is not of the essence, the procedure frequently adopted is the appointment, by Royal Warrant, of a Royal Commission, whose members are selected on grounds of their wide experience and diverse knowledge of the subject matter covered by its terms of reference. A Royal Commission formulates recommendations in the light of written and oral evidence from many interested organisations and individuals and submits a report containing recommendations, which the Government may

¹ The office of Lord Lieutenant in the county was first created in the sixteenth century. Its holder was chief among the county justices and commander of the county militia.

accepted in whole or in part, or upon which it may decide to take no further action or to delay action until a later date.

Cabinet Meetings

The Cabinet meets in private and its proceedings are strictly confidential. Its members are bound by their oath as Privy Counsellors not to disclose any information. The Official Secrets Acts forbid the publication of Cabinet as well as of other State papers, and a resigning minister desiring to make a statement involving disclosure of Cabinet discussions must first obtain the permission of the Sovereign through the Prime Minister. The theoretical reason for this secrecy is that a Cabinet decision is advice to the Sovereign, whose consent is necessary before it is made public. From a practical point of view, secrecy is essential in the interests of unprejudiced debate, which can take place only if there is no risk of publicity for every statement made and every point conceded.

In normal times, the Cabinet meets for a few hours once or twice a week during parliamentary sittings, and rather less frequently when Parliament is not sitting. Additional meetings may be called by the Prime Minister at any time if a matter urgently requiring discussion should arise. During Cabinet meetings, decisions are reached on major issues of Government policy, and the Cabinet settles any matters which cannot be disposed of at lower levels.

In the performance of its functions, the Cabinet makes considerable use of a committee system which originated in the nineteenth century and has been developed to keep pace with government business during the past fifty years. The system involves the reference of any issue either to a standing Cabinet committee or to an *ad hoc* committee composed of the ministers primarily concerned, which considers the matter in detail and either disposes of it or reports upon it to the full Cabinet with recommendations for action. Ministers not in the Cabinet are called to attend Cabinet meetings when matters affecting their Departments are under discussion; they may also be members of Cabinet committees.

Detailed accounts of Cabinet meetings are not prepared; only the substance of documents submitted, together with a summary of the arguments and the conclusions, are recorded; and even these records have a strictly limited circulation. Responsibility for the keeping of records lies with the Secretariat of the Cabinet, known as the Cabinet Office.

Ministerial Responsibility

Ministerial responsibility means both the collective responsibility which ministers share for the policy and actions of the Government and the individual responsibility of ministers to Parliament for the work of their Departments.

The doctrine of collective responsibility, which was fully accepted by the middle of the nineteenth century, imposes upon ministers the obligation to act not as individuals but (in the interests of stability of government) as a united group. It does not require every Cabinet minister to be present at every Cabinet meeting; and the obligations of individual ministers may be passive rather than active when the decision to be taken does not relate to their spheres of administrative responsibility. At the same time, every minister should be fully informed of the subject of discussion beforehand, so that if he has any objections he may voice them at the meeting. He may not repudiate, either in Parliament or in his constituency, policies which have received Cabinet approval, nor may he adopt policies which have not been agreed with other Departments (including the Treasury) which may be concerned. He must be prepared to vote with the Government on all issues, and where necessary to speak in support or defence of its policy. Any minister who feels

himself unable to agree or to compromise with the view of the majority of his colleagues in Parliament or elsewhere must resign. If he does not resign, he is held to be responsible, and cannot afterwards reject criticism on the ground that he did not personally agree with the policy adopted.

The doctrine of collective responsibility also means that the Cabinet is bound to offer unanimous advice to the Sovereign, even when its members do not hold identical views on a given subject.

The individual responsibility of a minister for the work of his Department means that, as political head of that Department, he 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 he is personally responsible or not.

Since the majority of ministers are members of the House of Commons, they are available to answer questions and to defend themselves against criticism in person. Ministers who are in the House of Lords must be represented in the Commons by political subordinates qualified to speak on their behalf, i.e. by their Parliamentary Secretaries and Under-Secretaries. Responsibility, however, cannot be delegated and remains with the senior minister concerned.

Ministers are expected to take all decisions relating to their spheres of administration, unless these are of such political importance that in their opinion Cabinet sanction is required.

If any departmental decision brings a minister under fire of criticism in Parliament he may be upheld by the Cabinet, which will then treat the matter as one of confidence in itself; or he may be disowned, when he alone will be liable to lose office.

Ministerial responsibility is an effective way of bringing 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.

GOVERNMENT DEPARTMENTS

Government Departments are organs of Government used to give effect to Government policy when Parliament has passed the necessary legislation. They may and frequently do work with and through local authorities, statutory boards, and many Government-sponsored organisations which, while not forming part of Government Departments, are under varying degrees of Government control.

A change of Government does not generally affect the number or functions of Government Departments, although a radical change in policy may be accompanied by a corresponding change in the Departments concerned. The widening scope of Government activity has, however, led to the formation of a substantial number of new Departments in the past half-century. A few have existed for over 200 years.

The work of some Departments, e.g., the Post Office and the Customs and Excise Department, covers the United Kingdom as a whole. Other Departments cover Great Britain (England and Wales, and Scotland, but not Northern Ireland), e.g., the Ministry of Labour and National Service; others cover England and Wales only, e.g., the Ministry of Health, and there are similar but separate Departments for Scotland and Northern Ireland. Some Departments, e.g., the Ministry of Education, make special arrangements for Welsh affairs.

Departments differ in size and in the number, type and complexity of their functions, and some have regional and local offices. Most Departments have a minister of their own in control; a very few have no minister responsible to

Parliament, e.g., the Exchequer and Audit Department under the Comptroller and Auditor General, who is an officer of Parliament and not of the Government; and some are in charge of ministers who have other duties. For instance, Treasury ministers are responsible for the administration of a number of Departments, including H.M. Stationery Office, the Central Office of Information, the Treasury Solicitor's Department, the Departments of the Government Actuary and of the Government Chemist, the Royal Mint, the National Debt Office, the Public Works Loan Board, the National Savings Committee and certain museums and art galleries.

This section provides an outline of the principal functions of the main Government Departments. Since much of their work is interconnected, they are not grouped according to the subjects with which they deal, but are arranged in alphabetical order, except for the Cabinet Office and the Treasury (which, in view of their central position, are placed first) and the Scottish and Northern Ireland Departments, which are grouped at the end of the section. Further information on the work undertaken by the various Departments is given in later sections of this handbook under the relevant subject headings.

The Cabinet Office

The Cabinet Office, or Secretariat of the Cabinet, was introduced as an emergency institution during the first world war and has grown into an organ of great importance in the co-ordination of policy at the highest level. The Secretariat is responsible for the keeping of Cabinet records, for providing information and advice to ministers, and for issuing directives or promulgating decisions of the Cabinet or the Prime Minister to the Departments concerned. It has a military side and a civil side. There is also a *Central Statistical Office* which is charged with the collection, analysis and presentation of statistics relating to the national economy.

The Treasury

Nominally the heads of the Treasury are the Lords Commissioners: the First Lord of the Treasury (who is now invariably the Prime Minister), the Chancellor of the Exchequer and five Junior Lords. In practice, the Lords Commissioners never meet as a Board and their responsibilities are carried by the Chancellor of the Exchequer assisted by two junior ministers, the Financial Secretary and the Economic Secretary. There is also a Parliamentary Secretary to the Treasury who is the Chief Government Whip in the House of Commons.

The functions of the Treasury fall under four main headings: finance (subdivided into home finance and overseas finance), control of expenditure, general Civil Service establishment matters, and co-ordination of economic policy. Home finance includes taxation policy (though executive responsibility for the collection of revenue lies with the Board of Inland Revenue and the Department of Customs and Excise), the provision of funds for the day-to-day needs of the public services, currency and banking, and the management of the national debt. Overseas financial questions have formed a greatly increased part of the Treasury's work since the second world war because of the post-war emphasis on the problem of the balance of payments.

Control of expenditure is a matter partly for Parliament, partly for the Treasury, and partly for the Departments themselves. Treasury control arises very largely out of parliamentary control and the scrutiny of detailed annual estimates for the greater part of Government expenditure. The Treasury's responsibility in general Civil Service questions has developed gradually out of the control of expenditure.

The co-ordination of economic policy is a function which the Treasury has acquired since the end of the second world war. It arose from the acceptance by successive Governments since the war of responsibility for maintaining full employment, and the need to safeguard the balance of payments by ensuring that economic resources are directed to essential ends.

Attached to the Treasury is the Office of the Parliamentary Counsel, in which Government Bills are prepared for introduction into Parliament.

The Admiralty

The Admiralty Act of 1690 appointed Lords Commissioners to the Board of Admiralty to execute the office of Lord High Admiral. The responsibilities of the Board of Admiralty are, briefly, to build, direct, maintain and administer the Royal Navy within the framework of the Government's naval defence policy. The present Board comprises ten members (three ministerial, six naval and one civil servant). The First Lord (a member of the Government) is supreme and the other members of the Board are responsible to him for specific duties. The Board is served by three groups of Departments: (1) the Divisions of Naval Staff, responsible for advising on general and technical policy, strategy, tactics, operational planning, the disposition of the Fleet, methods of naval warfare, and material requirements; (2) the Departments, responsible for advising on personnel and material policy, for providing the men (and their training), the ships (including their weapons and equipment) and supplies, for the general organisation and administration of associated naval establishments at home and abroad, and for stating (to the Ministry of Supply) naval aircraft requirements; and (3) the Secretariat Branches, which co-ordinate business on behalf of the Board, provide advice on precedent and on general Government policy, ensure financial regularity and receive, pay and account for all money administered by the Department.

The Admiralty has responsibilities for the merchant shipbuilding and repair industry, including advice on the Government's economic policy in the industry. Much of the research work undertaken to meet naval requirements has additional civil applications. The Admiralty administers the Royal Observatory, the Nautical Almanac Office and the National Institute of Oceanography.

The Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food

The Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food was established by Order in Council in April 1955 and assumed the responsibilities previously discharged by the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries and the Ministry of Food.

The Ministry has a general responsibility for food supplies, both home produced and imported, for food manufacture, distribution and storage and for the conduct of the National Food Survey. Its economic appraisements range from the annual review of farm prices to assessments of food and agricultural imports in relation to the country's balance of payments.

The Department is responsible generally for the efficiency of the agricultural, horticultural and fishing industries in England and Wales, and for the operational control of epidemic diseases of animals and of plant diseases and pests throughout Great Britain. This involves supervision of County Agricultural Executive Committees, which act locally as the Minister's agents; the administration of schemes to improve the quality of livestock and agricultural produce, to control or eradicate animal and plant diseases, to control pests, and to facilitate production on marginal land; the provision of market intelligence and of technical advice on all aspects of food production; responsibility for agricultural education, for such matters as land drainage, the enforcement of agricultural wages awards, safety, health and welfare,

labour supply, and for fishery research. With other Government Departments, the Ministry is concerned with the improvements of such rural services as housing, farm buildings, water supplies and electricity, with the supply of machinery, fertilisers and seeds, and with land use. The Department is also concerned with the purchase and sale of land by the Minister and with general land management questions.

The Department administers, in England and Wales, the guarantees to farmers under the Agriculture Acts of 1947 and 1957; in this connection it operates deficiency payments schemes for fatstock and for the main cereal crops. It is also generally responsible for schemes for milk, eggs, potatoes and wool operated through producers' marketing boards.

The Department is concerned with the interests and development of every branch of the fishing industry in England and Wales, including the processing and distributive trades.

The Ministry has primary responsibility for administering part of the food and drugs legislation, in particular that part dealing with the composition of food and with labelling and advertising. It is responsible for food research, for matters concerning slaughterhouses and the inspection of meat, and for enforcing legislation relating to the quality and cleanliness of milk.

The Ministry maintains relations with other Commonwealth and foreign countries interested in the United Kingdom as a market for their food exports, and is responsible for schemes such as the Commonwealth Sugar Agreement, which is operated through the Sugar Board. It contributes to the work of a number of international bodies, including the Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations, the Organisation for European Economic Co-operation, the Economic Commission for Europe, and, for food defence planning purposes, the North Atlantic Treaty Organisation.

The Ministry is also responsible for the administration of the Royal Botanic Gardens, Kew.

Ordnance Survey Department. The control of the Ordnance Survey Department was transferred from the War Office to the Office of Works as the importance of its civil work outstripped that of the military purposes for which it had been founded in 1791. It is now administered by the Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food. The Department carries out land registry surveys, and produces a wide range of maps for the Admiralty, War Office, Air Ministry, and Geological Survey.

The Air Ministry

The Air Council was established in 1918 under the presidency of the Secretary of State for Air to provide for the growing importance of aircraft in warfare by taking over responsibility for the administrative control of the Royal Air Force. The functions of the Air Ministry include strategic planning; the manning of the Royal Air Force and its reserves and auxiliaries; the organisation of flying, technical and general training; the acquisition of lands required for air force purposes; and the supervision of the finance and contracts of the Royal Air Force.

The Meteorological Office, which became part of the Air Ministry in 1920, provides meteorological services for the general public, Government Departments, the armed forces, shipping and civil aviation. It organises meteorological observations in the United Kingdom and at certain stations overseas and undertakes the collection, publication and distribution of meteorological information from all parts of the world. It also undertakes meteorological and climatological research.

The Colonial Office

The Colonial Office deals with the affairs of the great majority of the non-self-governing countries of the Commonwealth. At the head of the Colonial Office is the Secretary of State for the Colonies, who is the Minister responsible to Parliament for the general administration of those territories. The main functions of the Colonial Office are to convey to Colonial Governments the views and wishes of Her Majesty's Government on broad matters of policy; to see that the interests of Colonial Governments and peoples are safeguarded and promoted; to provide, through its staff of professional advisers and with the help of advisory committees composed of men and women eminent in many fields, guidance to Colonial Governments on a wide range of matters; and to undertake expert services of many kinds, including the allocation of money for development purposes under the Colonial Development and Welfare Acts and the provision of administrative and professional staff for the Overseas Civil Service. Other functions of the Colonial Office include the care of Colonial students in the United Kingdom, the British Council acting as agent in providing for their general welfare.

The Colonial Office does not directly administer the non-self-governing territories with which it deals. Each of these has its own administration and an increasing measure of autonomy.

Her Majesty's Overseas Civil Service. Members of this Service are employed in the public services of Colonial Overseas Territories and are paid by the Government of the territory in which they serve. The Service merges the former administrative and professional branches of the Colonial Service. Its members are eligible for employment in any post which the Secretary of State for the Colonies is requested or authorised to fill, and may also be considered, as opportunity offers, for any post in Commonwealth or foreign territories for which the United Kingdom Government may be invited to recommend candidates. Recruitment into this Service is undertaken in the United Kingdom and other Commonwealth countries when suitably qualified local candidates are not available for appointment to the territorial public service.

The Crown Agents for Oversea Governments and Administration, while not a Government Department, are appointed by the Secretary of State for the Colonies to act as commercial and financial agents in the United Kingdom for the Governments of the territories for which he is responsible. They also act by special arrangement for other Governments and bodies.

The Commonwealth Relations Office

The Commonwealth Relations Office is the Department through which the United Kingdom Government mainly conducts its relations with the Governments of the other Members of the Commonwealth (Canada, Australia, New Zealand, the Union of South Africa, India, Pakistan, Ceylon, Ghana and the Federation of Malaya), the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland and the self-governing Colony of Southern Rhodesia. The Irish Republic, although no longer a Member of the Commonwealth, is not treated as a foreign country and the relations of the United Kingdom Government with the Irish Republic are conducted by the Secretary of State for Commonwealth Relations. The responsibility for the administration of the South African High Commission Territories (Basutoland, the Bechuanaland Protectorate and Swaziland) also rests on the Commonwealth Secretary.

Through the Commonwealth Relations Office, consultation and exchange of information takes place with the Governments of the other Members of the Commonwealth on all subjects of mutual interest—foreign affairs, defence co-operation, economic and other matters.

The Commonwealth Relations Office (formerly known, since its establishment in 1925 as a separate Department of State, as the Dominions Office) acquired its present title in July 1947. In the following month the India Office was abolished, and the conduct of relations with the newly established Governments of India and Pakistan also became the responsibility of the Commonwealth Relations Office. Since then, as other countries have become Members of the Commonwealth—Ceylon (February 1948), Ghana (March 1957) and the Federation of Malaya (August 1957)—so the responsibility for the conduct of relations with their Governments has been transferred to the Commonwealth Relations Office.

The Customs and Excise Department

Commissioners to collect the Customs and the Excise revenues were first appointed by the Long Parliament in 1643 (although after the Restoration the older method of collection through private contractors was revived for a time). The two branches of the Revenue remained distinct until 1909, when they were amalgamated under Commissioners of Customs and Excise. The primary work of the Customs and Excise Department is to collect and administer the duties of Customs and Excise imposed from time to time in the annual Finance Acts or by other legislation, and to advise the Chancellor of the Exchequer on any matters connected with them. The Department is also responsible for preventing and detecting evasion of the Revenue laws, including smuggling and illicit distillation.

In addition to its revenue work, the Department undertakes a wide range of non-revenue agency work for other Departments, e.g., the enforcement of prohibitions and restrictions on the importation and exportation of certain classes of goods, exchange currency control, and the compilation of United Kingdom overseas trade statistics from Customs import and export documents.

The Ministry of Defence

The Ministry of Defence was formally constituted in January 1947 following the passing of the Ministry of Defence Act, 1946. The Act charges the Minister with responsibility for 'the formulation and general application of a unified policy relating to the armed forces of the Crown as a whole and their requirements'. He carries out this responsibility in accordance with general defence policy laid down by the Cabinet.

In addition to its main function of co-ordinating the policies and requirements of the three armed Services, the Ministry is responsible for the administration of the Joint Intelligence Bureau, the Imperial Defence College, the Joint Services Staff College and Amphibious Warfare Headquarters.

The Ministry of Education

The Ministry of Education was established in 1944 to take over the powers and duties previously exercised by the Board of Education (1899–1944) in regard to the promotion of the education of the people of England and Wales and of the progressive development of institutions devoted to that purpose. The Ministry exercises this function in co-operation with the local education authorities—the councils of the counties and of the county boroughs—whose duty it is to secure the provision in their areas of adequate facilities for all forms of education. On professional matters, contact with the local education authorities is maintained through Her Majesty's Inspectorate of Schools, organised in regional divisions throughout England and Wales for its work of inspection, liaison and advice. A separate Welsh Department of the Ministry deals with education in Wales.

The Ministry is concerned with the development of primary, secondary and further education, including vocational education and education for leisure and

the social and physical training of young people. It deals with the supply, training and superannuation of teachers; the building of new schools and other institutions; the school health service; the special educational treatment of handicapped children; and the provision of school meals and milk. It is responsible for the award of State scholarships and other awards for university students; for the administration of the Victoria and Albert Museum and the Science Museum, London; and for the maintenance of educational relations with other countries of the Commonwealth, with foreign countries, and with the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation.

The Commonwealth Institute. The Institute was founded, as the Imperial Institute, in 1893. Its work is now directed by a Board of Governors, some of whom are appointed by the Minister of Education and others by the Governments of the member nations of the Commonwealth. The Institute houses permanent exhibitions of the peoples and products of the Commonwealth, shows films on Commonwealth subjects, and does much educational work in co-operation with the schools. It also arranges lectures and conferences and has study and recreational accommodation for Commonwealth students. The Institute is financially dependent on an endowment fund and on grants from the United Kingdom and other Commonwealth Governments.

The Foreign Office

The Foreign Office, which is the headquarters of Her Majesty's Foreign Service,¹ first became a separate Department of State in 1782. The Minister in charge of the Foreign Office, and responsible to Parliament for the conduct of foreign affairs and for the direction and operation of the Foreign Service, is styled Her Majesty's Principal Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs.

The Foreign Office acts as a channel of communication between the Government of the United Kingdom and the Governments of foreign States, either through the representatives of foreign States in the United Kingdom or through Her Majesty's representatives abroad, for the discussion and negotiation of all matters falling within the field of international relations, including the drawing up of international treaties and agreements. It also provides the means by which the United Kingdom Government is represented in the United Nations and on other international bodies and is kept informed of developments in foreign countries; by which British subjects and interests abroad are protected and trade promoted; and by which British policy is explained to the Governments and peoples of foreign countries. The questions dealt with by the Foreign Office are primarily of a political nature, but they also include many other matters such as questions of nationality, the issue and renewal of passports, and the immunities and privileges of foreign diplomatic representatives.

The Forestry Commission

The Forestry Commission, which was established by the Forestry Act, 1919, was empowered, under the Forestry Acts, 1919-47, to promote the interests of forestry, the development of afforestation, and the production and supply of timber in Great Britain; the Forestry Act, 1951, places responsibility on the Forestry Commissioners for the maintenance of reserves of growing trees, through a system of licensing of felling.

The Minister of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food is responsible for forest policy in England and Wales, and the Secretary of State for Scotland in Scotland.

¹ See pp. 64-65.

The General Register Office

The General Register Office is responsible under the Registrar General for the regulation of civil marriages and for the administration of civil registration in England and Wales, for the preparation of statistics and reports relating to population, fertility, births, marriages, adoptions, diseases and deaths, and for making arrangements for the periodic census of the population.

The Ministry of Health

The Ministry of Health was created in 1919 to take over the powers and duties previously attaching to the Local Government Board (established in 1871) and the National Health Insurance Commission (formed in 1912). In 1920, it also assumed the responsibilities in connection with mental illness formerly attached to the Home Office.

Twice since 1944 there has been a transfer of some of the Ministry's main responsibilities to newly created Departments—in 1945 those in respect of national health insurance and contributory pensions to the Ministry of National Insurance (now the Ministry of Pensions and National Insurance), and in 1951 those in respect of housing, water and sewerage services, and the supervision of local government to the Ministry of Local Government and Planning (now the Ministry of Housing and Local Government).

On the other hand, in 1953, when the Ministry of Pensions was merged with the Ministry of National Insurance, the Ministry of Health became responsible for the medical and surgical treatment of war pensioners, including war pensioners in the Channel Islands and the Isle of Man and those residing in the Republic of Ireland, and, in 1955, the Ministry assumed responsibilities regarding food hygiene and welfare foods which had previously been carried out by the Ministry of Food.

The main function of the Ministry of Health is the administration of the National Health Service in England and Wales under the National Health Service Acts. The Ministry is also responsible in England and Wales for supervising the work of local authorities under certain sections of the Public Health Acts and their services for the care of the aged, infirm, blind, deaf and dumb and other handicapped persons under the National Assistance Act, 1948.

The exercise of the Ministry's functions in Wales has been delegated to the Welsh Board of Health, the members of which are appointed by the Minister of Health.

The Home Office

The Home Office was created in 1782. Its head is the Secretary of State for the Home Department (the Home Secretary), who is the principal Secretary of State and is entrusted with all the responsibilities of national administration which have not been especially assigned by law or convention to the remaining Secretaries of State or Ministers. The Home Secretary is also the channel of communication between the Sovereign and his or her subjects, and between the United Kingdom Government and the Governments of Northern Ireland, the Channel Islands and the Isle of Man.

The chief matters with which the Home Office deals are: the maintenance of law and order; the efficiency of the police service; the treatment of offenders, including juvenile offenders; the efficacy of the probation service; the organisation of magistrates' courts; legislation on criminal justice; the efficiency of the fire service; the care of children by local authorities and voluntary organisations; the regulation of the employment of children and young persons; the control and naturalisation of aliens; the law relating to parliamentary and local government elections; public safety and public well-being; and preparations for civil defence.

Particular matters for which the Home Office is responsible, both in connection with its general functions and otherwise, include: receiving and submitting Addresses and Petitions to the Sovereign and preparing Presentations to Parliament; preparing patents of nobility for peers and formal proceedings for the bestowal of honours; advising the Crown on the exercise of the Prerogative of Mercy; sanctioning byelaws made by local authorities in so far as they relate to 'law and order' and 'good governance'; granting licences to experiment with animals; ordering the exhumation and removal of bodies; supervising the control of explosives, firearms and dangerous drugs; and administering the State Management Scheme for control of the liquor trade in the Carlisle district.

The Ministry of Housing and Local Government

The Ministry of Housing and Local Government was constituted in January 1951, under the title of Ministry of Local Government and Planning, to take over the housing and local government functions of the Ministry of Health and the planning functions of the Ministry of Town and Country Planning (1943-51). It was renamed the Ministry of Housing and Local Government in November 1951. It is the Department generally responsible for local government, and, in this capacity, it is responsible for sanctioning loans for most purposes for which local authorities require to borrow money, and for acting as the main link between local authorities and the central Government.

The Ministry exercises powers in regard to housing, water, sewerage and other services administered by local authorities in England and Wales. In regard to these services, the position, broadly, is that the Minister is responsible to Parliament (1) for securing (by the aid of grants or other means and so far as intervention by the central Government is necessary) that the duties laid upon local authorities by Parliament are effectively performed; (2) for encouraging the exercise of powers given to local authorities in regard to services for which they are responsible, either by grants paid out of national funds or otherwise; and (3) for inquiring into difficulties and complaints concerning any local authority services which may be brought to the Minister's notice.

As the central Housing Authority under the Housing Act, 1936, the Minister supervises the administration of the housing statutes and the national housing programme; and his officers keep in close touch with the local authorities in England and Wales. Local authority proposals for dealing with slum clearance are also submitted to the Minister.

The town and country planning work of the Ministry includes the framing and execution of the national policy on the use and development of land for the purpose of achieving the best use of land in the public interest. The responsibilities of the Minister include confirmation of the acquisition and disposal of land by local authorities; and the payment of grants, for planning purposes, in certain cases of acquisition, clearing and compensation. The Minister also has responsibilities in connection with the establishment and work of the Development Corporations of the New Towns, and with the National Parks Commission.

The Minister of Housing and Local Government is also the Minister for Welsh Affairs.

The Central Office of Information

The Central Office of Information was established in 1946 as the successor to the war-time Ministry of Information. It is a common service agency for producing, and advising on, information and publicity material and for supplying general publicity services required by Government Departments. It produces and distributes

books, pamphlets, magazines, films (including films for television), exhibitions, photographs and other visual material for the home and overseas ministerial Departments. It conducts all Government display press and poster advertising except that of the National Savings Committee, carries out social surveys, and distributes departmental press notices to the Press, the BBC and the television companies. For the overseas Departments, it supplies British information posts with a daily service of topical information, comment and official news for local circulation and with a comprehensive reference service, and arranges tours for official visitors from overseas to enable them to see various aspects of life in Britain. Administratively, the Central Office is responsible to Treasury Ministers, while the Ministers whose Departments it serves are responsible for the policy expressed in its work.

The Board of Inland Revenue

The Board of Inland Revenue administers the laws relating to income tax and surtax, profits tax, stamp duty, estate duty, and certain other direct taxes of lesser importance; and advises the Chancellor of the Exchequer on any matters connected with them. The Board is also responsible for the valuation of real property for various purposes such as compensation for compulsory purchase, local rates in England and Wales, and estate duty.

The Ministry of Labour and National Service

The Ministry of Labour was created in 1916 and took over certain duties of the Board of Trade. In 1939, when the Ministry became responsible for manpower, both for the armed forces and for industry, its name was changed to the Ministry of Labour and National Service. One of its principal functions is the administration of the Employment and Training Act, 1948, and provision of facilities and services for the purposes of assisting persons to select, fit themselves for, obtain and retain employment suitable to their age and capacity, of assisting employers to obtain suitable employees, and generally for the purpose of promoting employment in accordance with the requirements of the community. Its services include the operation of (1) a national system of Employment Exchanges, (2) a Technical and Scientific Register, (3) Nursing Appointments Offices and (4) Government schemes for vocational training.

The Ministry also has responsibility for manpower policy and co-operates with other Government Departments on matters of general employment policy, including the distribution of industry and the maintenance of a high and stable level of employment. Among its functions in this connection are the registration, medical examination and calling-up of men for National Service and the resettlement in civil employment of men released from National Service or the Regular Forces.

In the field of employment and training, the Ministry is concerned with the central administration of a comprehensive Youth Employment Service provided locally either by the local education authority or by the Ministry's local office, and the provision of a Disablement Resettlement Service with, where necessary, industrial rehabilitation and vocational training, to enable disabled persons to secure employment.

The Ministry provides an important service in dealing with questions concerning the safety, health and welfare of industrial workers in factories and certain other premises. The provisions of the Factories Acts and associated legislation are enforced by H.M. Inspectors of Factories. Another service is the collection and publication of labour statistics, including statistics of manpower, employment and unemployment, wage rates, earnings, hours of labour, retail prices, household

expenditure, industrial disputes, employers' and employees' organisations and industrial accidents and diseases.

The Ministry assists in the promotion of good industrial relations, having statutory powers which reinforce and supplement the voluntary arrangements within industry, and it actively encourages the development of good personnel management and of joint consultation in industry.

Responsibility for the relations of H.M. Government with the International Labour Organisation rests with the Ministry, which is also concerned with labour policy in the international field, with overseas questions concerning labour and employment and with the employment of foreign workers in Great Britain.

Besides these principal functions, the Ministry undertakes agency work for other Government Departments in connection with National Insurance, National Assistance, repayment of income tax to unemployed persons, and the issue of passports.

The Law Officers' Department

The Law Officers of the Crown for England and Wales (the Attorney-General and the Solicitor-General) are the legal advisers to the Crown and to all Government Departments and appear in Court on their behalf in cases of importance. In such cases the Law Officers are assisted by Junior Counsel to the Treasury. The appointments, which are made from among the more distinguished members of the English Bar, are generally, though not invariably, political, and the office holders change with the Government.

The Attorney-General has a number of important functions in regard to the administration of justice and he has wide powers in connection with the enforcement of the criminal law. The Director of Public Prosecutions acts under his superintendence and is subject to his directions. The Attorney-General is the senior Law Officer, but the Solicitor-General, as his deputy, acts for him in all cases where he is authorised or required to do so.

The Lord Chancellor's Department

The Chancellorship is a legislative, judicial and executive office held by an eminent ex-member of the Bench or of the Bar; it always carries Cabinet rank in peace time.

In addition to his functions as Speaker of the House of Lords and Custodian of the Great Seal, the Lord Chancellor is in charge of more than 20 different offices and branches which are mainly concerned with legal practice and procedure. He controls the machinery of the courts of law both through his patronage and through administrative powers conferred by the Judicature Act, 1925, and other Acts; he advises the Crown on many appointments to the judiciary in England and Wales; and he is the minister responsible for the Judge Advocate General's Department. This Department advises the War Office and the Air Ministry on all legal matters arising out of the administration of military law, and, where necessary, reviews the proceedings of army and air force courts martial.¹ The Lord Chancellor is also a member of the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council and exercises ecclesiastical patronage. Under the Tribunals and Inquiries Act, 1958, he appoints the chairmen of certain administrative tribunals in England and Wales, and (with the Secretary of State for Scotland) the members of the Council on Tribunals. The Land Registry, which is responsible for maintaining a State register of title to land,² and the Public

¹ The Judge Advocate of the Fleet is responsible for these matters in the Royal Navy.

² Title must be so registered and guaranteed by the State in certain compulsory areas but elsewhere registration is voluntary.

Trustee Office, which may act as the executor or administrator of the estate of a deceased person or as a trustee under a will or settlement, are both administered under the Lord Chancellor.

The National Assistance Board

The National Assistance Board, responsible to Parliament through the Minister of Pensions and National Insurance, administers the State service of financial assistance to persons in need and unable to maintain themselves, and the non-contributory pension scheme under the Old Age Pensions Act, 1936. The Board is also responsible for assessing the means of persons applying for legal aid.

The Paymaster-General's Department

The Paymaster-General's Department acts as chief paying agent for Government Departments other than the Revenue Departments. The majority of payments are made through banks (to whose accounts the necessary transfers are made at the Bank of England), but cash payments can be made and the payment of pensions, mainly comprising those to retired teachers, officers of the Civil Service and the National Health Service and members of the armed forces, and in certain cases to their widows, is an important feature of the work of the Department.

The Ministry of Pensions and National Insurance

In 1953 the Ministry of Pensions (established in 1917) and the Ministry of National Insurance (established in 1944) were amalgamated.

The Ministry of Pensions and National Insurance is responsible (1) for the social security services established since the second world war by the Family Allowances Acts, the National Insurance Acts and the National Insurance (Industrial Injuries) Acts, and for reciprocal social security arrangements with other countries, and (2) for the award and payment of war pensions and allowances for disablement and death due to service in the armed forces of the Crown or in the Home Guard (now disbanded), or due to war injuries sustained by naval auxiliaries, merchant seamen, civil defence personnel and civilians in the second world war, and for the welfare of pensioners and their dependants and war orphans. In addition to these responsibilities for war pensioners in the United Kingdom and in the Irish Republic, the Ministry is responsible for the administration of war pensions and for the medical treatment of war disablement of United Kingdom pensioners living in Northern Ireland and, through its various agencies, in other countries overseas. The Ministry maintains an office in Ottawa to serve pensioners in North America.

The Post Office

The Post Office was set up in the seventeenth century to take over the responsibility for carrying letters, which was previously attached to the Crown. The minister at its head is the Postmaster General, and its work is now mainly concerned with the operation of the inland postal, telegraph and telephone services and, in co-operation with other countries and interests, of the overseas postal and telecommunications services. It also undertakes certain banking functions, including the operation of the Post Office Savings Bank, the sale of premium savings bonds and the issue of money orders, and it acts as an agent for many other Government Departments in the collection of revenue (e.g., by the sale of broadcast receiving and other licences and by the sale of stamps for National Insurance contributions) and the payment of grants and allowances, such as National Insurance payments, retirement and certain other pensions and family allowances.

The Postmaster General is the minister responsible to Parliament for broad questions of national policy concerning sound and television broadcasting services. The Post Office provides many line facilities for the British Broadcasting Corporation and the Independent Television Authority.

The Engineering Department of the Post Office carries out a considerable volume of scientific research and technical development relating to telephone, telegraph and radio systems and the mechanisation of the postal services.

The Ministry of Power

The Ministry of Power was established in 1942 (as the Ministry of Fuel and Power) when it absorbed the former Mines and Petroleum Departments of the Board of Trade and the Board's functions in relation to gas and electricity. It was made permanent by the Ministry of Fuel and Power Act, 1945, the title being changed to Ministry of Power by Order in Council in January 1957.

Since 1942, the Ministry has had the general duty of ensuring the effective and co-ordinated development of fuel and power supplies in Great Britain, and of promoting economy and efficiency in their distribution and consumption. The business of producing and distributing gas and electricity and of producing coal is operated by the boards of the three nationalised industries, whose members are responsible to the Minister on policy issues. The distribution of coal and coke, however, is carried out largely by private concerns. The Ministry is also responsible for Government relations with the petroleum industry. In January 1957, the Ministry assumed the functions in relation to iron and steel previously exercised by the Board of Trade and, at the same time, was made specifically responsible for the use of atomic energy as a source of industrial power.

The Acts and Regulations governing the safety and health of workers in and about coal mines, metalliferous mines and quarries are administered by the Safety and Health Division of the Ministry, which includes the Inspectorate of Mines. The Ministry is responsible for the general co-ordination of fuel research, and the Chief Scientist's Division itself conducts or arranges for scientific research on specific projects and on matters affecting safety and health in mines and quarries.

The Department of Scientific and Industrial Research

The Department of Scientific and Industrial Research was set up as a Department of the Privy Council in 1916. It accounts for its own Vote in the Estimates and is responsible to Parliament through the Lord President of the Council.

The work of the Department covers research (except defence research) in all branches of natural science except medicine and atomic energy, and in all industries except agriculture, fishery and forestry. Its primary functions are to undertake research in the national interest for the benefit of the community and to meet the requirements of other Departments; to encourage research and the application of scientific knowledge in industry; and to encourage fundamental research at universities and elsewhere, and the maintenance of an adequate supply of trained research workers for laboratories of all kinds.

The Stationery Office

Her Majesty's Stationery Office was established in 1786. It is the Government's central organisation for the supply of desk stationery, office equipment, office machinery, printed matter, published books and periodicals for British Government Departments at home and abroad. It also undertakes printing, duplicating, addressing and distributing services for other Departments. The Stationery Office is the Government publisher and is responsible for the sale of Government

publications, including Acts of Parliament. The ministerial head of the Stationery Office is the Chancellor of the Exchequer, and questions pertaining to the Department asked in the House of Commons are normally answered by the Financial Secretary to the Treasury.

The Ministry of Supply

The present Ministry of Supply was formed in 1946 by the amalgamation of the war-time Ministries of Supply and of Aircraft Production.

The primary functions of the Ministry are to furnish supplies, which include complete atomic weapons, to the armed forces; to undertake research on, and the design and development of, equipment for these forces, principally for the Army and Royal Air Force, but including aircraft, vehicles, some guns and ammunition and other equipment for the Royal Navy. Other functions of the Ministry are to carry out the primary Government responsibility in the field of electronics and in the light metals industry, and to undertake research on, and development and production of, certain classes of equipment for civil use, e.g., civil aircraft and industrial gas turbines.

The Ministry controls the Royal Ordnance factories and those experimental, storage and other establishments which are owned by the Department; it is responsible for the administration of such matters as labour supply, labour management, welfare, housing and transport in connection with these organisations.

The Board of Trade

The Board of Trade was formally constituted as a Committee of the Privy Council by an Order in Council of 1786, which still provides the constitutional basis for the Board. Since 1867, the President has been the only effective member of this Committee and his authority is, in practice, similar to that of a Secretary of State or other Minister of Cabinet rank; he is now assisted by a Minister of State, who is specially concerned with overseas trade.

The Board has a general responsibility in respect of the United Kingdom's commerce, industry and overseas trade, including commercial relations with other countries, import and export trade, the protective tariff, industrial development and consumer protection. It is also responsible for (1) the promotion of exports, (2) statistics of trade and industry (both at home and abroad) including the Censuses of Production and Distribution, and (3) the administration of certain regulative legislation, for example, in relation to patents, registered designs, copyright, trade marks, weights and measures, merchandise marks, companies, bankruptcy, insurance, distribution of industry, films, and enemy property.

In addition, the Board exercises central responsibility for all industries which are not specifically allocated to be the concern of other Departments. In this respect it provides on the one hand, both a channel of communication with, and a point of contact for, the industries with which it is specifically concerned, and on the other hand a focal point at which knowledge about those industries and their problems is accumulated, analysed, and used as a basis for advising ministers and other Departments. The main industries which fall outside the scope of the Board's specific concern are food, agriculture and fisheries, building and quarrying, iron and steel, shipbuilding, fuel and power and transport.

The Ministry of Transport and Civil Aviation

In 1953 the Ministry of Transport and the Ministry of Civil Aviation were amalgamated. This amalgamation was foreshadowed in November 1951, from

which time the two offices of Minister of Transport and Minister of Civil Aviation were held by the same minister.

The Ministry of Transport, established in 1919 'for the purpose of improving the means of, and the facilities for, locomotion and transport', assumed also, in 1941, the responsibility for merchant shipping formerly exercised by the Mercantile Marine Department of the Board of Trade.

The Ministry of Civil Aviation was established in 1945 to organise, carry out and encourage measures for the development of civil aviation, for the promotion of air safety and efficiency, and for research on air navigation.

The powers and duties of the Ministry of Transport and Civil Aviation relate to inland transport, shipping and civil aviation. Under inland transport, it is concerned with railways; inland waterways; roads, bridges and ferries, and the vehicles they carry. The Ministry is the highway authority for trunk roads. The Ministry's shipping responsibilities include harbours, docks, piers and river conservancy; national and international shipping policy; ships, their masters, officers and men; safety of life at sea; navigation (including pilotage, lighthouses, and other aids to safety in navigation); wreck and salvage; and the Coastguard Service. The Ministry is also responsible for providing and operating troopships.

In civil aviation matters, the Minister may give general directions to the publicly owned airline corporations on matters affecting the national interest. He also approves associate arrangements between airline corporations and independent air transport companies for the operation of scheduled services. The general civil aviation responsibilities of the Ministry include: the regulation of civil flying; air safety; the provision, administration and equipment of State-controlled aerodromes and other ground services; the negotiation of international air transport agreements; the registration of aircraft; and the licensing of aircrew and aircraft maintenance personnel.

The War Office

The office of Secretary of State for War was established in 1854. In 1904 the Army Council was constituted on the model of the Board of Admiralty, with the Secretary of State as president and a membership of both military and civil personnel.

The War Office is responsible for the administrative control of the Army, including appointments, promotions, postings and payment. Its functions include the planning of operations and training; the collection and sifting of military information; the framing of policy on the composition, weapons and equipment of the Army; the determination of financial and labour policy connected with the Army; and the supervision of War Office civilian staffs both at home and abroad.

The Ministry of Works

The Ministry of Works, previously known as His Majesty's Office of Works, was established under its present title in 1943. Its main functions are: the provision of office accommodation for Government Departments (including public buildings overseas), and of many other types of accommodation required by civil and Service Departments; the design, purchase, supply and maintenance of furniture and equipment for Government Departments and certain other bodies, and their supplies of fuel, household articles and stores; the administration of the Ancient Monuments Acts and the maintenance of those ancient monuments and historic buildings which are in the Ministry's charge; the making of grants, on the advice of the Historic Buildings Councils, towards the maintenance of historic buildings of outstanding interest; the maintenance of royal palaces and certain official

residences; the building, engineering and supplies services for certain State ceremonial occasions; the management and maintenance of the royal parks and certain other open spaces.

The Ministry also has responsibilities for the efficiency and welfare of the building, civil engineering and building materials industries, including: maintenance of a list of all building and civil engineering firms and collection of statistical returns; oversight of the production of building materials and fittings; consultation with the industries at national and regional level; encouragement of apprenticeship and training in the building and electrical contracting industries; review of building research and development work to meet the industry's requirements and to ensure that results of research are made available to the industry.

SCOTLAND

The first Secretary for Scotland was appointed in 1885 in recognition of the fact that Scotland required a separate system of administration from that of England and Wales. Forty years later, his powers and duties were transferred to a Secretary of State, appointed by the Secretaries of State Act, 1926.

The Secretary of State is assisted at ministerial level by a Minister of State and three Parliamentary Under-Secretaries of State. There are also two Scottish Law Officers. The Secretary of State's functions are discharged by four main administrative Departments of equal status, each under a Secretary responsible to the Secretary of State for the discharge of the duties of the Department. The day-to-day administration of the Departments is conducted in Edinburgh, but each Department has representatives in London for liaison and parliamentary duties. This London office is generally known as the Scottish Office, a term also used to describe all Scottish administration responsible to the Secretary of State.

The four main Scottish Departments are the Scottish Home Department, the Department of Health for Scotland, the Scottish Education Department, and the Department of Agriculture for Scotland. The Scottish ministers are advised and assisted (particularly in relation to questions where more than one of the Departments is concerned or which fall outside the province of any of them) by the Permanent Under-Secretary of State, Scottish Office, who is free from departmental duties.

The Scottish Home Department

The Scottish Home Department was set up in 1939 to take over the work that had been undertaken previously by the Secretary of State's Office, and by the Fishery Board for Scotland and the Prisons Department for Scotland.

In the field of law and order, the Department is concerned with the police, probation and remand home services, criminal justice, legal aid and the services needed by the courts; and it is directly responsible for the administration of prisons and borstal institutions.

The Department is the central Department in Scotland for the fire service and civil defence; for the children's service; for highways administration, including road safety matters (except in so far as they relate to the construction and use of vehicles); and for legislation concerning shops, theatres, cinemas and licensed premises. Licensed premises in districts in which State management of the liquor trade is in operation (State Management Districts) are directly maintained by the Home Department.

The Department has general duties in connection with the structure and finance of local authorities, including valuation and rating and the administration of the

Exchequer equalisation grants; and it is responsible for the oversight and protection of the Scottish inshore, deep-sea and freshwater fisheries. It is also closely concerned, in co-operation with the Board of Trade and other United Kingdom Departments, with Scottish economic development, including the provision of electric power and the rehabilitation of the Highlands generally.

The Department of Health for Scotland

The Department of Health for Scotland is responsible for the general supervision of the National Health Service in Scotland; for the central administration of the Housing (Scotland) Acts; for the supervision of the house-building programme and for the distribution of grants to local authorities for housing purposes; for the control, under the Town and Country Planning (Scotland) Acts, of the use of land; and for the establishment of new towns under the New Towns Act.

The Department is also responsible for supervising the administration of various environmental services, including services connected with water supplies, sewerage and clean air; for welfare services, e.g., the care of the aged and handicapped persons; and for the medical and surgical treatment of war pensioners in Scotland (including hospital services, and the supply and repair of artificial limbs, surgical appliances and invalid chairs).

The Scottish Education Department

The Scottish Education Department is responsible for supervising the administration of the Education (Scotland) Acts, for guiding the development of public education in Scotland in all its forms, for supervising the training of teachers, for issuing teachers' certificates and administering the Teachers' Superannuation Scheme, for controlling the distribution of Exchequer grants in aid of educational expenditure, for conducting the annual examination for the Scottish Leaving Certificate, and for exercising general supervision over approved schools, and over the administration of the Royal Scottish Museum.

The Department of Agriculture for Scotland

The Department of Agriculture for Scotland is the successor of the Board of Agriculture, which was established in 1912. Its broad function is to assist, encourage and improve home food production. It has a general responsibility for all Government measures for the promotion and development of farming in Scotland, and in most cases the Department itself administers them. They include: guaranteed prices for the major farm products, fixed in association with the other Agricultural Departments in the United Kingdom; the provision of grants and subsidies and other services in connection with food production; the application of measures for controlling injurious animals and birds and infestations in stored food; the management of the extensive agricultural property owned by the Secretary of State; the use and improvement of land and the improvement of farm stock and crops; the economics of the industry; the instructional, advisory and research services provided by the three agricultural colleges and eight research institutes in Scotland; measures to promote animal health; the regulation of agricultural wages; and the application to the agricultural industry of safety, health and welfare measures.

Other Departments

In addition to the main Departments, there are a number of other Scottish Departments, all of which work in varying degrees under the direction of the Secretary of State. Such Departments include the Department of the Registrar-General for Scotland (the General Registry Office); the Scottish Record Office;

the Department of the Registers of Scotland; and the Scottish Information Office, which undertakes information services on behalf of the Secretary of State for Scotland, the Scottish Departments and, in some degree, for Great Britain Departments in Scotland, and acts also as the agent in Scotland of the Central Office of Information. There are also Scottish branches of the Great Britain and United Kingdom Departments under the direction of Controllers, who are responsible for ensuring that the execution in Scotland of the policy and procedure of their Departments is in accordance with Scottish conditions and needs.

Legal Departments

The Law Officers for Scotland are the Lord Advocate and the Solicitor-General. The Lord Advocate is in administrative control of two Departments: *The Lord Advocate's Department*, which is responsible for drafting Scottish legislation, providing legal advice on Scottish questions for other Departments, and assisting the Scottish Law Officers in certain of their legal duties; and *The Crown Office*, which exercises the powers of the Lord Advocate in relation to criminal proceedings.

NORTHERN IRELAND

There are a number of separate Departments for Northern Ireland, which are controlled by the Northern Ireland Parliament. Most of these have functions in Northern Ireland analogous to those performed for England and Wales by similar Departments—the Northern Ireland Ministries of Home Affairs, Education and Agriculture; the Northern Ireland Assistance Board; and the Exchequer and Audit Department for Northern Ireland. Other Northern Ireland Departments cover activities which in Great Britain are divided between several Departments. These Northern Ireland Departments include the Ministries of Finance, Commerce, Health and Local Government, and Labour and National Insurance.

The Ministry of Finance

In addition to acting as Treasury to the Government of Northern Ireland, the Ministry of Finance is responsible for administrative work in connection with the erection and maintenance of public works and buildings; for Government valuation and survey; for land registry, the registry of deeds, and certain duties in connection with land purchase; for the work of the Registrar-General; for the control of Government publications; for the control and administration of charitable donations and bequests; for the control of borrowings; for the collection of death duty, entertainments duty (cinemas) and other transferred excise duties; and for the administration of the Ulster savings movement.

Attached to the Department is the Office of the Parliamentary Draftsmen, in which Government Bills are prepared for introduction into Parliament.

The Ministry of Commerce

In addition to its commercial intelligence work, and its work in connection with industrial production and the development of new, and the expansion of existing, industries, the Department is responsible for the business of the Government in relation to electricity and gas undertakings; roads and bridges and inland public transport; railways; harbours and inland waterways; fisheries; the development of the tourist traffic; the regulation and inspection of mines and quarries; mineral development; scientific development; weights and measures; the registration of companies and trade unions; and the administration of the Assurance Companies

Acts and the Industrial Assurance (Northern Ireland) Act, 1924. The Ministry also performs functions delegated by the United Kingdom Ministry of Power relating to the distribution and prices of coal and other solid fuels.

The Ministry of Health and Local Government

The Ministry is responsible for the general supervision of the Health Services in Northern Ireland, which are broadly similar to the National Health Service in Great Britain. The Ministry also exercises functions under the Housing Acts (Northern Ireland), supervising the house-building programmes of, and distributing grants to, local housing authorities and the Northern Ireland Housing Trust. Various other functions of local authorities, including planning, public health, water and sewerage services, welfare services and local authority services generally are supervised by the Ministry, many of these services attracting specific grants-in-aid. In addition, the Ministry controls the issue of central financial aid to local authorities.

The Ministry of Labour and National Insurance

The Ministry is responsible for the administration of the Factories Acts and other legislation connected with industrial health and welfare; for the administration of the Wages Councils Act; for the promotion in industry of joint machinery for negotiation and for assistance in the prevention and settlement of industrial disputes; for the administration of local employment offices and training centres and the machinery for dealing with employment questions of all kinds under the Employment and Training Act and Disabled Persons (Employment) Act; for the administration of the National Insurance Act and the National Insurance (Industrial Injuries) Act, and of the Family Allowances Act; and for carrying out certain statutory functions in connection with the National Assistance Scheme in conjunction with the National Assistance Board for Northern Ireland.

THE CIVIL SERVICE

A civil servant in Britain is a servant of the Crown (not being the holder of a political or judicial office), who is employed in a civil capacity and whose remuneration is found wholly and directly out of moneys voted by Parliament. The number of civil servants under this definition amounts to more than a million, for it includes some 385,200¹ Government industrial employees in such establishments as Royal Ordnance factories and Admiralty dockyards. The term 'Civil Service' is, however, generally used only to cover 'non-industrial' members of the staffs of the various Government Departments in the United Kingdom, or working overseas either in the Foreign Service or for other Government Departments such as the Commonwealth Relations Office. At 1st April, 1958, the total number of non-industrial civil servants employed in all Departments, at home and overseas, was 630,674¹; nearly one-third of this total are women.

Although the civil servant is legally a servant of the Crown, in practice he serves the minister in charge of the Department in which he works, by advising in the formulation of policy and by carrying out policy decisions once they have been taken. From time to time the minister may change, but the civil servant remains to serve his successor. In Britain changes of government do not involve changes in departmental staff; this continuity makes for administrative stability.

¹ Part-time staffs are included in these, and subsequent, figures—two part-time officers being reckoned as equivalent to one whole-time officer.

Development of the Modern Civil Service

The Civil Service in its present form is a product of the past hundred years. Before then, Departments were free to choose their own staffs, qualifying standards were unknown, there was no central supervision, and political jobbery was rife. Measures of reform instigated during the nineteenth century included the substitution of open competition for the practice of obtaining Civil Service appointments by favour or purchase, and the establishment of an independent body, known as the Civil Service Commission, to organise recruitment to the service. The great expansion in State planning which has taken place during the last fifty years, and the consequent expansion in the numbers of civil servants and the scope of their duties, have led to further reorganisation. During the last few decades, recruitment competitions have been adapted to a developing educational system; co-ordination between the various Departments has been improved; and the search for increased efficiency in the conduct of public business has been the task of many Government-appointed commissions and committees of inquiry. As a result, civil servants, though they remain employees of their Departments, are today members of an integrated service with common conditions of employment and common traditions and standards of conduct which belong not to individual Departments but to the Civil Service as a whole.

Departmental Organisation

The responsibility for the policy and activities of each Department lies with the minister, who is answerable to Parliament for what the civil servants in the Department say and do.

The internal organisation of Departments is a matter for each Department to decide and it varies according to the volume and nature of the work involved. There are, however, features common to most Departments: for example, the minister of a major Department is likely to have at the head of his officials a Permanent Secretary (known as the Permanent Under-Secretary of State in those Departments where the minister is a Secretary of State) who is also Accounting Officer and must appear periodically before the Public Accounts Committee; one or more Deputy Secretaries; and a varying number of Under-Secretaries and Assistant Secretaries. In addition, major Departments usually have a Principal Finance Officer and a Principal Establishments and Organisation Officer. A number of Establishment Divisions have their own Organisation and Methods (or 'O & M') branch, the members of which act in an advisory capacity as 'efficiency experts'. Many Departments also have their own legal advisers or solicitors, and their own Information Division. The use (wholly or in part) of the standard classes and grades of civil servants, which are described on p. 64, is common to most Departments.

Control of the Service

The measure of uniformity in the Civil Service has largely resulted from the fact that the Treasury exercises general control. One of the two joint Permanent Secretaries to the Treasury is the official head of the Home Civil Service and the principal adviser of the Prime Minister on matters affecting the Civil Service as a whole, and in particular on appointments to senior posts in the Service. The Treasury is also responsible for the salaries and conditions of employment of civil servants; it controls total numbers of staff and the creation of higher posts, maintains a central Organisation and Methods Division which serves all Departments which do not maintain an Organisation and Methods branch of their own, deals with general questions relating to training after entry into the Civil Service, and

takes the lead on questions concerning the number of Departments and the distribution of functions.

Classes and Grades

The engagement and position of all civil servants are covered by regulation, agreement and traditional practice—every civil servant being assured of a definite status depending upon the post which he is called upon to fill. There are four main classes of civil servants, each class containing a series of grades. The classes are:

1. The *Administrative Class*, which is responsible for advising ministers on policy, for dealing with any difficulties which may arise in carrying out existing policy, and for forecasting the probable effects of new measures and regulations. This relatively small class, which in April 1958 numbered 2,544, is recruited largely from university graduates.
2. The *Executive Class* (numbering some 67,300 in April 1958), which is responsible for the day-to-day conduct of Government business, including the higher work of supply and accounts, within the framework of established policy. Members of this class may, after entry, train for specialist work such as that of auditor, actuary or statistician.
3. The *Clerical Class* (the largest of the main classes, comprising about 181,100 officers including clerical assistants), which undertakes all the usual clerical work involved in running departmental business, e.g., the preparation of accounts and the keeping of records, the handling of particular claims in accordance with known rules, and the summarising and annotation of documents for the assistance of senior officers.
4. The *Typing Class* (about 26,500 members), which consists of shorthand typists, copy typists and learner typists.

Among other classes are: the *Professional, Scientific and Technical Classes*, which consist of some 72,100 civil servants with the necessary qualifications (e.g., doctors, lawyers, engineers and research workers) for carrying out the wide range of specialised duties which are now discharged by the Government; the *Inspectorate*, which numbers about 2,620; the *Ancillary Technical Class*, which includes machine and duplicator operators, prison officers, forest workers and others, and numbers some 41,500; the *Messengerial Class* which, in addition to messengers, includes paper keepers, office cleaners and similar workers (in all some 35,600); and the *Minor and Manipulative Class* (with some 200,000 members) which consists entirely of post office workers, e.g., postmen, postal and telegraph officers, telephonists and telegraphists, and their immediate supervisors.

The Foreign Service

Her Majesty's Foreign Service is a separate self-contained service of the Crown, formed in 1943 as a result of the amalgamation of the Foreign Office and the Diplomatic Service with the Consular and Commercial-Diplomatic Services. It provides an interchangeable staff for service both at home and at United Kingdom diplomatic missions and consular posts abroad and, in 1958, it numbered some 2,520 established members.

The classes of the Foreign Service have their own nomenclature: Branch A corresponds roughly to the Administrative Class of the Home Civil Service; Branch B to the Executive and Clerical Classes; and Branch C to the Typing Class. Branch D, of which there is no direct equivalent in the Home Civil Service, carries out security and guard duties at Foreign Service posts abroad. Members of

Branches A, B and C may be employed on any type of Foreign Service work—diplomatic, consular, commercial and ‘information’. In addition, various specialists and advisers who are seconded from the fighting Services and from home Government Departments (e.g., those concerned with financial, commercial or labour matters) are attached to many overseas posts. At many posts abroad, some of the staff are locally engaged on a ‘temporary’ basis, i.e. they do not normally qualify for pensions.

Recruitment of Staff

The recruitment of all permanent civil servants is in the hands of the Civil Service Commission which, in the selection of entrants, is independent of both ministerial and parliamentary control; its members are appointed by the Crown on the advice of the Government. The normal method of entry is by open competition, conducted in accordance with regulations approved by the Treasury and consisting of written examinations or interviews, or both. The main points of entry into the four main classes of the Home Civil Service are planned to correspond to definite levels in the British educational system, and it is the Commission’s duty to study the requirements of the Civil Service in the light of the education provided by the schools and universities.

In addition to holding examinations and conducting interviews, the Commission is responsible for issuing a certificate of qualification in respect of each successful candidate, for placing new entrants in Departments for which their qualifications are appropriate, and for watching the careers of those it has selected in order to ensure that current methods of recruitment are successful and up to date.

Temporary civil servants, who do not qualify for pensions, but are eligible for gratuities, are normally recruited by the Department concerned, either directly or with the help of the Ministry of Labour and National Service. No qualifying examinations are required for entrance on a temporary basis to general service.

Training after Entry

Each of the larger Government Departments has a training officer and a number of instructors, who organise both general and technical courses where necessary. Types of courses vary from Department to Department, but nearly all have systematic instruction of recruits in all classes. There are also ‘refresher’ courses for more experienced staff covering technical subjects or broader subjects such as management and supervision.

Methods of training include discussion groups, case studies, role playing, instructional films and educational visits to enable civil servants to study the working of appropriate outside bodies. In addition, officers in the early years of their service may be transferred from branch to branch and, more rarely, from Department to Department, in order that they may gain as wide an experience as possible of Civil Service activities. Special leave schemes enable a few senior officers, each year, to travel abroad or to undertake research at United Kingdom universities.

Civil Service training is co-ordinated by the Training and Education Division of the Treasury, which runs central courses for members of the administrative, professional and scientific classes at different stages of their careers. In addition, the Division trains departmental instructors and other special groups, such as superintendents of typists, and secretaries.

Promotion

A period of probation (lasting from one to two years according to grade, with extensions in certain instances) is the rule for all new entrants to the permanent

Civil Service. Promotions from grade to grade are made by Departments; those from class to class partly through centrally conducted competitions (open only to serving members of specified civil service classes), and partly by Departments themselves. All promotions to the Administrative Class from other classes require Treasury approval. Promotions to most of the highest positions in the Civil Service, i.e. Permanent Secretary, Deputy Secretary, Principal Establishments Officer and Principal Finance Officer, must be approved by the Prime Minister; he is advised in these matters by the Joint Permanent Secretary to the Treasury, who is the official head of the Home Civil Service.

Conditions of Service

Machinery for negotiation on conditions of service affecting the Civil Service as a whole is provided by the National Whitley Council,¹ which is composed jointly of official and staff representatives. Negotiating machinery for separate sections of the Service is provided through the various staff associations, which civil servants are encouraged to join (e.g., the Civil Service Clerical Association, the Union of Post Office Workers, the Society of Civil Servants, the Institution of Professional Civil Servants, and the Association of First Division Civil Servants), and through departmental Whitley Councils¹ (of which there are about 75).

In general, the civil servant receives a salary which is intended to compare reasonably with that paid for similar work outside the Service, and he normally receives annual increments up to the maximum of the scale of the grade to which he belongs. In addition, although a civil servant holds office at the pleasure of the Crown and may therefore be dismissed at any time, in practice he enjoys a considerable measure of security of tenure. Thus every permanent civil servant may reasonably expect a full career in the public service, and a pension on retirement—though this, again, is not a legal right.

Civil servants are generally 'conditioned' to a given number of hours of attendance a week. Overtime is paid to members of most of the lower salary groups if they work longer than their 'conditioned' hours. The standard working week in the Service is 42 hours in London and 44 hours in the provinces. Annual leave varies according to the grade up to a maximum of six weeks, i.e. 30 working days, a year. Sick leave on full pay, less any National Insurance benefit received, may be granted to established civil servants for up to six months in any twelve months, and on reduced pay up to a maximum of one year's sick leave in any four years.

Political and Private Activities

Officially, the position and functions of a civil servant remain the same whichever political party is in power; and it is his duty to serve the Government of the day irrespective of his own political opinion. The extent to which a civil servant, as a private individual, is free to participate in political activities varies according to grade. For this purpose civil servants are divided into three groups: (1) the unrestricted, which includes all industrial staff, Post Office clerks, postmen, cleaners, messengers, and similar workers, who are free to engage in all kinds of national and local political activities, although, if intending to stand for Parliament, they should resign before nomination day, since a serving civil servant cannot sit in the House of Commons; (2) the intermediate, which includes typists, clerical

¹ Whitley Councils are representative bodies for negotiation and joint consultation between managements and staffs; the councils are named after Mr. J. H. Whitley, former Speaker of the House of Commons and chairman of a committee which investigated industrial unrest from 1916 to 1919.

assistants, clerical officers, and analogous grades, who are free to engage in all political activities, except parliamentary candidature, subject to certain conditions and with the permission of their Departments; and (3) the restricted, which includes all civil servants not in the other two groups. This last group is barred from taking part in national political activities, but may seek permission to engage in local political activities, subject to certain conditions.

Civil servants of every grade may, of course, exercise the right of all citizens to register their private political opinions on appropriate occasions, e.g., at a general election or at local authority elections.

Normally the Government is not concerned with the private political views of its servants. There are, however, duties where secrecy is so vitally important to State security that the State is not justified in employing any one to carry them out whose reliability is in doubt, and therefore no one who is known to be a member of, or actively associated with, the Communist Party or with Fascist organisations is employed in connection with such work. In general, however, every civil servant may engage in such private activities as he wishes, provided that such activities do not in any way conflict with his official duties, nor with the provisions of the Official Secrets Acts of 1911 and 1920 and the Prevention of Corruption Act of 1906. A civil servant must not, however, use his official position to further his private interests; and he is therefore subject to restrictions in matters of commerce and business from which the ordinary citizen is free, e.g., he may not hold private interests in public contracts; and he may not use official information in writing, broadcasting or lecturing without the express approval of his Department. Above all, a civil servant is expected to conform to the high standards of integrity which characterise the Service to which he belongs.

LOCAL GOVERNMENT

Local government has been defined as government by elected local bodies charged with administrative and executive duties in matters concerning the inhabitants of a particular district or place and vested with powers to make byelaws for their guidance.

Government on a local basis has been part of the administrative system of the United Kingdom for many centuries. It has existed in England continuously since Saxon times. In its present shape, however, it dates back only to the later nineteenth century, when the conception of local government by popularly elected councils received statutory recognition.

The first 40 years of the present century witnessed a sharp increase in, and expansion of, environmental and social services, and a corresponding increase in the responsibilities of local authorities upon whom the greater part of the management of these services devolved. Legislation passed in the post-war period has made some further changes; on the one hand the powers of local authorities relating to the provision of hospitals, gas and electricity supplies and (in England and Wales) valuation for rating purposes have been transferred to statutory boards or to Government Departments, while on the other, local authorities (mainly the councils of counties and county boroughs in England and Wales and of counties and large burghs in Scotland) have been charged with certain additional or new responsibilities in connection with the health services, care of children, town and country planning, care of the aged and a number of other welfare services. The latest Acts—the Local Government Act, 1958, and the Local Government and Miscellaneous Financial Provisions (Scotland) Act, 1958—have made changes in the local government financial system of Great Britain to give greater independence to local

authorities in the spending of money in their own areas. The Local Government Act has also provided for some devolution of responsibility for county services to the councils of some of the larger county districts, and has established machinery for the review and alteration of local government areas and authorities in England (outside Greater London) and Wales.

Relationship between Central and Local Government

As the supreme authority in the United Kingdom, Parliament controls local authorities through Acts of Parliament, which require or permit elected local councils to implement policies prescribed and defined in those Acts. The scope of local government is limited by the same means; no council may go beyond the bounds fixed for its activities by an Act of Parliament.

Legislation is supported by departmental supervision: Parliament makes certain ministers responsible for securing the efficient functioning of local government services. Departmental supervision is exercised by means of inspections, inquiries, examinations of statistics, authorisation of loans, the issue of advisory circulars and statutory instruments, the approval of byelaws, and the administration of Government grants. The Ministry of Housing and Local Government is the main link between local authorities and the central Government in England and Wales; in Scotland the Scottish Home Department is generally responsible for local government; and in Northern Ireland the Ministry of Health and Local Government.

Principal Types of Local Authority

For purposes of local government, England and Wales and Northern Ireland are divided into county boroughs and administrative counties. Administrative counties are further divided into three types of county district: municipal or non-county boroughs; urban districts; and rural districts, which are themselves sub-divided into parishes (except in Northern Ireland). Each of these divisions is administered by a different kind of local council, as follows:

*England and Wales*¹

county councils (61)	rural district councils (474) ²
county borough councils (83)	parish councils (some 7,500) or
non-county borough councils (318)	parish meetings (some 3,300).
urban district councils (563)	

Northern Ireland

county councils (6)	urban district councils (25)
county borough councils (2)	town commissioners (1)
borough councils (9)	rural district councils (31)

Scotland

The local authorities in Scotland are:

- county councils (33, of which two pairs are combined for certain purposes)
- town councils (198, consisting of: the authorities for counties of cities, 4; other large burghs, 20; and small burghs, 174)
- district councils (199; two counties are not divided into districts).

¹ Excluding the county of London.

² Including the Isles of Scilly.

There are, in addition, the local authorities for *London*, which are unlike those in the rest of the United Kingdom. They are:

- the London County Council
- the Corporation of the City of London
- metropolitan borough councils (28).

Constitution of Councils

Local councils comprise a number of elected councillors (and, in some cases, aldermen elected by the councillors), presided over by a chairman who has varied ceremonial and civic duties to perform in addition to his work on the council. In most boroughs of England and Wales and Northern Ireland the chairman is the Mayor; in the City of London and certain important boroughs, the Lord Mayor; in the Scottish counties, the Convenor; and in the burghs, the Provost or Lord Provost.

Local Government Commissions

Two Local Government Commissions have been established to review the general county and county borough pattern in England (outside the Greater London area) and Wales respectively, and, in special review areas (Tyneside, West Yorkshire, South East Lancashire, Merseyside and the West Midlands) the district pattern and the distribution of functions as well. The Commissions are required to make recommendations for such changes in the pattern as may appear to them desirable after investigating the circumstances of local government in each area under review, and after consulting with the relevant local authorities and other interested bodies and persons. The final proposals of the Commissions will be given effect by ministerial order, with or without modification.

The present system and the working of local government in the Greater London area are being examined by a Royal Commission set up by Royal Warrant in November 1957 to recommend whether any, and if so what, changes in the local government structure and the distribution of local government functions in the area, or any part of it, would secure more effective and convenient local government.

Functions and Services

It is the primary duty of every local authority to provide and administer such environmental and social services as it may be required to provide and administer by an Act of Parliament. It may provide additional services under the permissive powers of a general Act or under powers granted to it by Adoptive Acts or by local or Private Bill legislation.

The responsibilities of local authorities depend upon the type of council. In England (outside the County of London) and Wales and Northern Ireland, for example, county borough councils are all-purpose authorities, while both county councils and county district councils have particular functions allotted to them, which they exercise independently to a considerable extent, although there is a certain degree of delegation from county councils to county district councils especially in the fields of planning and, in England and Wales, in the education, health and welfare services.

The broad principle underlying the distribution of powers and duties between the London County Council (LCC) and the metropolitan borough councils is that all those powers and duties which require uniformity of action throughout the whole of London are administered by the LCC, while those that can be locally managed are vested in the borough councils. The City Corporation exercises, in

the City of London, the general powers administered and duties performed by the metropolitan borough councils, and also a number of functions which, in the rest of London, devolve on the LCC. It is not, however, an all-purpose authority, since certain services in the City, e.g., education, are administered by the LCC.

In Scotland, the town councils of the counties of cities are all-purpose authorities; elsewhere the county councils exercise very many local government functions. In large burghs, they administer education, valuation for rating, and, in some cases, the police service, all other functions being exercised by the town councils. In small burghs, county councils undertake a number of important functions, but housing and some other services are administered by the town councils. The smallest authorities (the parish councils or parish meetings in England and Wales and the district councils in Scotland) have a few functions which they may exercise of right.

The services provided by the councils are generally classified under three heads—environmental, protective and personal.

Environmental Services are services designed to secure and improve the citizens' surroundings. The majority are public health and sanitary services administered in England and Wales either by the county, county district, or parish councils (in London by the metropolitan borough councils) in Northern Ireland by the county and county borough councils, and in Scotland by the county and town councils, e.g., the inspection and abatement of nuisances, drainage, sewerage, street cleansing, refuse collection and disposal, the supervision of water supplies, measures for ensuring food hygiene, measures for preventing the pollution of air, rodent control, and the provision of baths and washhouses. There are also the services for bridge and highway construction and maintenance, for street lighting, public safety on the highways, and the provision of amenities such as parks and recreation grounds, which are generally administered by the same authorities and also, in part, by district councils in Scotland. Town and country planning is done in England and Wales by the county councils, except where it is delegated to county district councils, and in Scotland by county councils and the town councils of large burghs. County borough councils, as all-purpose authorities, normally provide and administer all their own environmental services.

Protective Services include the fire service, the civil defence service and the police. The fire service is administered throughout England and Wales by the county borough councils and the county councils, or by joint authorities (or joint committees) set up by those councils if they amalgamate; and in Scotland, by the county councils and the town councils of most of the large burghs or by joint boards. The county and county borough councils, together with a few county district councils and, in London, the metropolitan borough councils and the City Corporation, are responsible for organising the local divisions of the Civil Defence Corps. The police service is administered by Standing Joint Committees in the counties of England and Wales, by Watch Committees in the county boroughs, or by committees consisting of representatives of the constituent authorities in the case of combined police authorities. In London, the City Corporation has jurisdiction over the police force in its area, while the Home Secretary controls the Metropolitan Police Force. The police authorities in Scotland are the county councils, the town councils of large burghs, or joint committees for combined forces.

Personal Services are services mainly designed to promote the well-being of individuals. The type of authority concerned depends on the nature of the

services, which range from health services, education, and housing to the provision of entertainments. The services concerned primarily with health and welfare include the provision of ante-natal, post-natal and child welfare clinics and some residential and day nurseries; the supervision of midwives; the provision of health visitors and home nursing services; measures for the prevention of illness and the after-care of physically or mentally sick persons; the provision of domestic help where necessary; the ambulance service; the provision of facilities for vaccination and immunisation against certain infectious diseases; and the services for the permanently disabled or handicapped, for the aged and infirm and for children deprived of a normal home life. Education and culture are promoted by the establishment and maintenance of various types of schools; by the provision of adult education centres, and art and technical colleges; by the award of grants and scholarships to students of all kinds; and by the provision of libraries, art galleries and museums.

There are also some *trading services*, e.g., passenger transport, water supply, and harbour, dock and pier services.

Local Authority Elections

The normal term of office of a councillor elected to any form of local government is three years; aldermen hold office for six years. In some local authority areas the whole council retires every third year and another is elected immediately; in other areas elections are held annually, when one-third of the councillors retire. Procedure at local government elections is governed by rules laid down in the Representation of the People Act, 1949.

Any person (including a member of the House of Lords) is entitled to vote at a local government election provided that he or she is 21 years of age or over and a British subject, or a citizen of the Irish Republic, and is registered as a local government elector for the area for which the election is held. In Great Britain, a person qualifies for registration as a local government elector if on the qualifying date for the register (which is compiled annually) he or she is resident in the area or occupies as owner or tenant any rateable land or premises in the area of a yearly value of not less than £10. In Northern Ireland, in order to qualify for registration as a local government elector, a person must have been born in Northern Ireland, or, alternatively, have resided continuously in the United Kingdom for seven years immediately prior to the qualifying date and must have either a resident occupier's qualification, or a general occupier's qualification.

Voting takes place at polling stations arranged by the council concerned, under the supervision of a presiding officer specially appointed for the purpose. The procedure governing voting methods in Great Britain is similar to that followed at Parliamentary elections, although facilities for postal voting are more restricted.

Every candidate for election stands either as a representative of one of the national political parties, or as a member of an association representing some local interest, or as an Independent. Each must be nominated by two electors, as proposer and seconder; and in England and Wales (except in elections for metropolitan borough councils, rural district councils and parish councils) eight other electors for the area must assent to the nomination. In Scotland, county and district council candidates require proposers but no assenters, town council candidates a proposer and five assenters. A candidate for election as a councillor must be of British nationality and over 21 years of age and must either (1) be registered as a local government elector in the register of electors for the area for which he seeks election, or (2) have resided within that area during the whole of the twelve months

preceding the election (or within 3 miles in the case of parish councils), or (3) in England and Wales, own freehold or leasehold land in the area. Candidates are also subject to a number of statutory disqualifications designed to ensure that unsuitable persons do not offer themselves for election.

Procedure at local government elections in Northern Ireland is governed by electoral regulations made by the Ministry of Home Affairs for Northern Ireland. These regulations are similar to those which apply in Great Britain, though differing in certain particulars; for example, the town clerk or the clerk to the council is the returning officer for all elections to the authority; there is no postal voting and the only persons who may vote by proxy are Service voters.

In parliamentary elections, the contest is normally between several candidates for one seat. In local government elections there are usually a good many seats to be filled, and nearly all county boroughs, non-county boroughs and metropolitan boroughs in England and Wales and the larger burghs in Scotland are divided into wards. Except in metropolitan boroughs, the number of councillors for each ward must be three or a multiple of three. All other local authority areas, except the administrative counties, may be divided into wards or they may be left as single units, depending on their size. The administrative counties are split up in accordance with orders made by the Home Secretary or the Secretary of State for Scotland, into electoral divisions which return members to the county council. The London County Council is organised in three-member divisions, which are the same as the parliamentary constituencies in its area.

Internal Organisation of Local Authorities

Local authorities are free to a very considerable extent to make their own internal arrangements and to choose the means and methods by which they will discharge their responsibilities. Questions of policy and principle are usually decided by the whole council, which appoints committees to carry out the detailed administration of its various services. The more important of the committees of the larger authorities divide their work among sub-committees, which stand to the parent committee in a relation similar to that of the main committees to the whole council. The execution of the policy decided upon by the council and the committees rests with salaried officers and employees, whose number may vary from about half a dozen in a small rural district to several thousand in the large counties and in the larger county boroughs.

Apart from one or two minor provisions regarding the representation of specialists on committees and the length of time certain members may hold office, committees of councils are remarkably free from legal restrictions; even those known as 'statutory' committees are constituted according to individual requirements and not according to any set pattern laid down. For purposes of classification, however, they may be divided into two kinds: ordinary committees and joint committees. Ordinary committees may be further divided into statutory committees, the appointment of which is compulsory under an Act of Parliament; standing committees, which are appointed in accordance with the standing orders of the council on a permanent basis according to the extent of the council's business; and special committees, which a council may set up for a limited period to deal with a particular problem that once solved is unlikely to recur.

Joint committees or joint boards consist of representatives of more than one authority. They are usually established for services that can be more effectively administered over a wider area than that controlled by a single council, e.g., town and country planning, water supplies and the police service.

Committees of a local authority may be advisory or executive; their powers and duties are usually laid down in the appointing council's standing orders or, in the case of a county or large burgh in Scotland, in the council's administrative scheme. A council is free to delegate all its powers to committees except its powers in connection with raising loans, levying rates or issuing precepts, which are legally reserved to the council as a whole.

Officers and Employees

About 1½ million persons (including teachers, transport staff and building workers) are employed in local government service in Great Britain. Certain posts, e.g., the clerk, the treasurer, and the medical officer of health, are compulsory in almost all councils, but, apart from these, councils are free to fill such other posts as they deem necessary for carrying out their work. Choice of personnel is also left to a great extent to the individual council; in theory a few appointments of chief officers are subject to some central control, but in practice, the nominee of the council is nearly always accepted.

Officers are normally of three kinds: heads of departments or chief officers, whose duties are mainly of an administrative and managerial kind; subordinate officers employed in a professional, clerical or technical capacity; and manual workers who are employed to do the actual physical work for which the council is responsible. As a rule, senior staff appointments are made at the instance of the committee or committees particularly concerned; while most junior appointments are made by heads of departments, who are also responsible for engaging the manual labour required. Appointments and engagements are always made in conformity with a set establishment, and committees are informed of any appointments which they have not made themselves.

Rates of pay and conditions of service for local authority staff are within the jurisdiction of the employing council (except where the proposed salary of an officer requires the approval of a Government Department, as in the case of the clerk of a county council in England and Wales). They are based on recommendations made by the Whitley Councils,¹ of which there are several, including the National Joint Council for Local Authorities' Administrative, Professional, Technical and Clerical Services, the National Joint Industrial Council for Local Authorities' Non-Trading Services (Manual Workers), the National Joint Council for County Council Roadmen, and, in Scotland, the Joint Negotiating Committee for Chief Officials of Local Authorities (Scotland) and the Joint Industrial Councils for Local Authority Services. In England and Wales, conditions of service and salary scales for senior local government officers are determined by special negotiating machinery.

All local government officers are expected to maintain a high standard of conduct: as public servants they 'must not only be honest in fact, but must be beyond the reach of the suspicion of dishonesty'.

Local Government Finance

Total local authority expenditure on current and capital account amounts annually to over £1,500 million. Income derives from Government grants (paid in Northern Ireland by the Government of Northern Ireland), from local rates, from loans, from trading receipts, rents, fees and other miscellaneous sources.

Government grants, which provide over 30 per cent of income, will, from 1st April, 1959, be mainly in the form of general grants paid to the county and county

¹ See footnote p. 66.

borough councils in England and Wales by the Minister of Housing and Local Government and to the county and town councils in Scotland by the Secretary of State for Scotland in respect of education, town planning, fire services, child care, road safety, traffic control, physical training and recreation, and a few other services. The total sum of the general grants will be allocated each year and fixed in advance for a period of two or more years. In fixing the total amount, the Government is required to take into consideration the current rate of expenditure on the services concerned, the probable fluctuation in the demand for those services, the need for developing services, and the extent to which, having regard to the general economic condition of the country, it is reasonable to develop them.

Other Government grants are: percentage grants, of which the two principal remaining examples are those for the police service and highways; unit grants, e.g., housing subsidies; rate deficiency grants (Exchequer equalisation grants in Scotland), which are contributions to the general revenues of the poorer local authorities; and assigned revenues, which are the proceeds of certain national taxes handed over to local authorities, e.g., dog, game and gun licences and the licence fees for hawkers, pawnbrokers, money-lenders and refreshment houses.

Rates, which are a form of local taxation paid by the occupiers of land and buildings in a local authority area as contributions to the cost of local services, provide over a quarter of the total income of local authorities. They are levied by a poundage on the rateable value of property, which in England and Wales is equivalent to the rent which the property might reasonably be expected to command if let from year to year, with the tenant bearing the rates and the cost of insurance and repairs. There are certain statutory reliefs from rate liability, notably for agricultural land and buildings, which are entirely exempt, and for industrial and freight transport premises, which since 1929 have been rated at 25 per cent of the net annual value.¹

Valuation is undertaken by the valuation officers of the Board of Inland Revenue; appeals may be made to local valuation courts, each consisting of three members of an independent local valuation panel, and thereafter to the Lands Tribunal. In Scotland, valuation has hitherto been based primarily on the annual rent actually payable; valuation on a basis similar to that in England and Wales will come into force in 1961. Valuation is carried out by assessors appointed by the councils of counties and counties of cities. Appeals lie to the valuation appeal committee of each valuation area and thereafter to the Lands Valuation Appeal Court of the Court of Session. A Scottish Valuation Advisory Council has been established by the Secretary of State for Scotland.

The responsibility for levying and collecting the rates in England and Wales lies with the councils of county boroughs and county districts; in London, with the City Corporation and the metropolitan borough councils. County councils finance themselves by issuing a precept on the county districts (in London the metropolitan borough councils and the City Corporation) for the sums of money required; while parishes are financed by rates levied by the appropriate rural district council on property within the parish as an addition to the general rates. Rates in Scotland are levied by the town councils in burghs and by county councils elsewhere; to cover their expenditure, district councils issue a requisition each year to the county council; a town council has to meet an annual requisition from the county council in respect of the burgh's share of the expenditure on functions exercised by the county council throughout the county, including the burgh. In Northern Ireland, county councils are responsible for making, levying and collecting the rates, except

¹ From April 1959, the proportion will be increased to 50 per cent.

in such parts of the county as fall within the jurisdiction of the county borough, borough, or urban district councils.

Loans may be raised by all types of local authority for financing capital expenditure, subject to the consent of the Minister of Housing and Local Government or the Secretary of State for Scotland, who are guided by the recommendations of the Government Department responsible for the service for which the capital is required. Borrowing powers for specific purposes are sometimes included among the provisions of local Acts, while the London County Council seeks parliamentary sanction every year to raise the money it needs for capital expenditure.

Loans may be raised by issuing stock upon the Stock Exchange, by internal borrowing, by private mortgage, or from the Public Works Loan Board, which is financed by the Exchequer.

Internal control of finance is exercised on behalf of the council concerned by a finance committee, whose function is to keep the financial policy of the council under constant review. External control is carried out by means of an annual audit, which in the case of all councils in England and Wales (except for certain general accounts in about two-thirds of the borough councils) is operated by district auditors appointed by the Ministry of Housing and Local Government. Borough councils must use the services of the district auditor for accounts which relate to education, national assistance, children, local health services, coast protection, motor tax, rate collection, police, fire, civil defence and town and country planning, but they may and sometimes do employ a professional firm of auditors to do other work. In Scotland, all accounts are audited by a professional auditor appointed by the Secretary of State for Scotland and paid by the council.

THE LAW

The maintenance of public order in the United Kingdom is effected, generally speaking, by two agencies—the judiciary and the police. Both are concerned in different ways with the obedience of the citizen to the law.

Law is said to be based on the concepts of order and compulsion. In the legal sense, it has been defined as any rule which will be enforced by the courts; as it applies to a country, it is usually understood as the set of rules by which the citizens of that country will expect to regulate their conduct in relation to their fellow citizens and to the State.

There is no written code of law in the United Kingdom. The question whether a particular rule is recognised as law is determined, where possible, by consideration of the authorities: statutes, common law, and the opinions of legal writers of established reputation (although these are not law until accepted as such by the courts). If none of these authorities exists, the judge uses a process of analogy: that is to say, he bases his decision in a case on its similarity to a previous case in which judgment has already been given.

Common law originated in the customs of the realm, and has been built up by the decisions of the courts. A supplementary system of law, known as 'equity', came into being during the Middle Ages to temper justice with mercy where conscience was opposed to the rigours of the law and to provide and enforce more effective protection for existing legal rights, and later hardened into a separate body of legal rules. In 1873, the courts of equity were fused with the courts of common law, so that all courts now apply both systems, but where they conflict, equity prevails. Statute law includes Acts of Parliament and delegated or subordinate legislation made under powers conferred by Parliament.

The Treaty of Union between England and Scotland in 1707 included the provision that Scotland should retain its own system of law, and differences in law

and legal procedure between Scotland and the rest of the United Kingdom remain. The Scottish common law, unlike its English counterpart, has, in general, preferred broad principles to strict adherence to judicial precedent, and has often adopted and adapted ideas from other legal codes; and there are separate Scottish statutes in many fields of legislation. Nevertheless, the very close links that have been forged between England and Scotland since 1707, and the steady increase in the number of Acts of Parliament that apply uniformly throughout the United Kingdom, have narrowed the gap between the legal systems of the two countries until the points of similarity have become as numerous as the differences, and there is now a considerable volume of law common to both countries, generally known as 'British' law.

The leading branches of the law in the United Kingdom, as in most other countries, are civil law and criminal law. The purpose of civil law is to uphold private rights, and to redress private wrongs which do not involve moral guilt. Criminal law deals with wrongs considered injurious to the community, and consequently punishable by the State.

Criminal Justice

English law provides that if anyone is arrested or detained otherwise than upon lawful grounds,¹ the writ of *Habeas Corpus* may be invoked to set him free, and he may sue the person who detained him for false imprisonment. The writ of *Habeas Corpus* may be granted by a Divisional Court of the Queen's Bench Division or by any judge of the High Court against the person who detains the prisoner, and this person must then appear before the court on the day named to show cause for the detention; if he can show no cause, the prisoner must be released forthwith.

Lawful arrest may be either by warrant (which must contain a statement of the specific offence with which the accused is charged) or, in certain cases, without warrant, when the police officer making the arrest must have sufficient evidence to lay before a court of law, should he be called upon to make a *prima facie* case. An arrested person must be charged at once and (unless granted bail by a senior police officer) brought without delay before a magistrates' court sitting in public. It is a basic principle of the legal system that every accused person must be presumed innocent until his guilt has been proved by the prosecution, and it has been laid down that, in the conduct of a criminal case, the prosecution shall neither have, nor appear to have, any advantage over the defence. Therefore, no prisoner can be compelled to answer the questions of the police before trial; but if he is prepared to do so, he must be warned that anything that he says may be taken down and given in evidence at his trial.² Private interrogation before an examining magistrate prior to public trial forms no part of English criminal proceedings.

Prisoners awaiting trial either before a magistrates' court or before a higher court may, at the discretion of the court, be released on bail—that is to say, they may be temporarily discharged subject to their entering into a recognisance, with or without sureties, for a reasonable sum of money, to appear in court at the time appointed for the trial.

Any person accused of a crime may be assisted at his trial by a professional lawyer. If he cannot afford to pay for legal representation he may be granted legal

¹ These are: in pursuance of criminal justice; for civil debt (this is now permitted only where a person of proved capacity to pay refuses to do so); by order of a court of law or of either House of Parliament, upon the ground of contempt; detention of persons found to be insane or mentally defective; detention of children by their parents or guardians.

² The police can ask questions of a person not in their custody without warning him, but once a police officer has made up his mind to prefer a charge against the person, he must warn him in similar terms.

aid; this is at the discretion of the court, except in the case of a person charged with murder, who must be granted legal aid if his means are insufficient. During his trial, the accused person or defendant has the right to hear and subsequently to cross-examine all the witnesses for the prosecution, to call witnesses on his own account, and to address the court. He may also give evidence in his own defence, although he cannot be compelled so to do. Once acquitted no accused person can ever again be charged with that particular offence in any court of law.

There are certain differences in the Scottish system, but the protection of persons against unlawful detention and the facilities for accused persons to defend themselves are similar.

The Jury System

Generally speaking, all the more serious crimes, i.e. crimes known as indictable offences because a formal written accusation or 'indictment' is required for their prosecution, must be tried in a superior court before a jury. In English law, however, certain specified indictable offences may be dealt with instead at a magistrates' court if the defendant consents. Conversely a criminal case which would ordinarily be dealt with in a magistrates' court must usually be heard before a jury if the offence is punishable by more than three months' imprisonment and the defendant elects to be so tried.

A jury consists of twelve persons duly summoned in pursuance of a precept from the court. Most property owners and ratepayers (men and women alike) are liable to be summoned for jury service if they are British subjects and are between the ages of 21 and 60, unless they are disqualified as, for example, having been convicted of an infamous crime. Members of certain professions are, however, exempt from service, and no person can be summoned to serve on any jury more than once in any one year unless all the jurors on the list have already been summoned to serve during that same year.

In trials by jury it is, broadly speaking, the duty of the judge to determine questions of law, including questions as to the admissibility of the evidence, and for the jury to decide questions of fact. In criminal cases, therefore, the jury has to decide whether the accused has been proved guilty by the evidence placed before it; if it finds the defendant guilty, sentence is passed by the judge. The judge sums up the evidence for the benefit of the jury, but never accompanies the jury when it retires to consider its verdict. The verdict of a jury must be unanimous; if its members are unable to reach agreement, the case must be retried before a new jury. Members of the jury are completely independent of both the judiciary and the executive. Moreover, although both the prosecution and the defence have the right, before the trial opens, to object to any member of the jury on the ground of his lack of impartiality, once members have been sworn in they are free from interference of any kind, even if, as sometimes happens, they bring in a verdict in apparent contradiction to the summing up of the judge. It is an offence to assault, threaten or attempt to corrupt a juror either before or during a trial.

Procedure under Scottish law differs from the foregoing in a number of important respects; notably, the verdict may be by a bare majority of the jury (which in Scotland consists of fifteen persons in criminal cases and twelve in civil cases) and, in addition to 'guilty' or 'not guilty', may also be given as 'not proven'; this last verdict (which does not exist in English law) involves acquittal in the same way as 'not guilty'.

In England and Wales, either party may insist on trial by jury in civil courts in cases involving claims for defamation, malicious prosecution, false imprisonment, seduction, breach of promise to marry, or fraud; other civil cases are tried by jury

only if the court, in its discretion, so orders on the application of one or both parties to the dispute. Where there is no jury, the trial is by judge alone. In the trial of a civil action, the jury is responsible for deciding questions of fact (as in the trial of criminal cases) and also the amount of damages to be awarded to the injured party.

The procedure in civil cases in Scottish courts again differs in some respects.

At certain inquests at coroners' courts in England and Wales a jury is required to be present to return a verdict on how, when and where a deceased person died. The jury in this instance consists of not fewer than seven and not more than eleven jurors. A jury is also required at an inquest held by a coroner to decide whether objects of gold or silver found in the ground are 'treasure trove'.

Law of Evidence

Evidence in the legal sense is all the legal means, exclusive of mere argument, which tend to prove or disprove any matter of fact, the truth of which is submitted to judicial investigation. The law relating to it is, in general, the same in criminal and in civil trials; but, because of the peculiar nature of a criminal trial—the gravity of the issue, the extent to which the public interest is involved and the penalty to which the prisoner may be subjected—some of the rules, as they relate to the proof of the case against the prisoner, are applied with greater rigour and severity in the course of criminal than in the course of civil proceedings. Thus, hearsay evidence (oral or written statements made by persons not called as witnesses) is not as a rule admitted; and although the uncorroborated evidence of one witness is, as a matter of English law, sufficient, a conviction solely on the evidence of an accomplice (or accomplices) is, in practice, never allowed, unless the judge has warned the jury of the dangers of convicting without corroboration. In Scotland, apart from a few statutory exceptions, no person may be convicted unless there is evidence of at least two witnesses, or corroboration of one witness by facts and circumstances which clearly implicate the accused person in the crime.

Evidence of admissions of guilt by an accused person before trial are accepted in a criminal trial only subject to certain strict conditions designed to ensure that the prisoner has fully understood that his confession may be used in evidence, and that it is a voluntary confession, not obtained from the prisoner either by fear of prejudice or hope of advantage. The previous history of the prisoner may only be used against him if he has either expressly set up his own virtuous character as an argument for his innocence, or attacked a witness or the prosecutor, or given evidence against a co-defendant, in which case, should he choose to give evidence himself, he may be asked questions about his own previous convictions, provided that they are relevant and not too remote in time.

THE COURTS

The courts that apply the law in the United Kingdom are broadly speaking divided into civil and criminal courts, although no hard and fast line can be drawn, since the distinction is a comparatively modern one. Quite a number of civil cases are, in fact, heard in criminal courts; while occasionally a criminal case may be heard in what is primarily a civil court.

Civil Courts in England and Wales

The more important of the civil courts in England and Wales are:

County Courts

County courts are so arranged that there is no part of the country more than a reasonable distance from one of them. These courts may be regarded as 'popular tribunals'; nearly three-quarters of a million cases are entered in them every year,

although comparatively few ever reach the stage of trial, many being settled out of court. County courts are presided over by a paid judge, who usually sits alone, although he may sit with a jury. There are sixty-nine county court judges now in office.

Most of the county courts (of which there are over 400) do not sit continuously, so that one judge can preside over several courts. If pressure of business is so great, however, as to cause delays in the administration of justice in any district, the Lord Chancellor may, on representations made to him by the judge of the district, appoint a person (who must previously have held office as a judge or have been a barrister of at least seven years' standing) to act for the judge at any sitting of the court.

The general jurisdiction of the county court covers all common law actions, provided that the amount claimed does not exceed £400, although some claims where the personal reputation of the plaintiff is involved, e.g., for libel, can only be tried there in exceptional circumstances. Actions which may involve awards in excess of this sum may be transferred to the High Court by order of the presiding judge on application by the plaintiff. Cases which fall under the specific jurisdiction of the county courts, e.g., those connected with agricultural holdings, rent restrictions, hire purchase agreements and other matters governed by statute or ministerial order, are tried irrespective of the amount involved.

In addition to the ordinary county courts, there are still a few local courts with somewhat similar jurisdiction. Most of these are survivals from the medieval borough courts, and have little or no work to do at the present time, but the Liverpool Court of Passage, the Salford Hundred Court and the Mayor's and City of London Court are still comparatively well used.

The High Court of Justice

The High Court of Justice forms part of the Supreme Court of Judicature. The Supreme Court of Judicature largely took its present form in 1873. It is composed of the High Court and the Court of Appeal.

The High Court sits in three divisions: the Queen's Bench Division, the Chancery Division, and the Probate, Divorce and Admiralty Division. These divisions derive from the old courts of the same names which existed before 1873, and cases are distributed between them as tradition and convenience dictate.

The Queen's Bench Division is staffed by the Lord Chief Justice and 24 puisne judges, i.e. judges without special office of their own. These judges are mainly concerned with ordinary civil actions, e.g., debt cases, actions for damages, revenue cases, insurance cases and commercial cases; but they also hear criminal cases at assizes.

The Chancery Division is officially headed by the Lord Chancellor; but most of the work is done by seven puisne judges who remain in London all the time. The jurisdiction of the Chancery Division derives from the equity system, and its work covers actions for the administration of the estates of deceased persons, partnership actions, actions connected with trusts and mortgages, some tax cases, the care of infants' estates, and company and bankruptcy matters.

The Probate, Divorce and Admiralty Division deals, as its name implies, with the proof of wills; with Admiralty and shipping cases; and with divorce cases, many of which are heard (at present) either before judges or before specially appointed commissioners—often county court judges.

Appellate Courts

There are two appellate courts in civil law actions—the Court of Appeal, which is part of the Supreme Court of Judicature, and the House of Lords.

There are several *ex officio* members of the Court of Appeal, but its effective head is a judge called the Master of the Rolls, who is assisted by eight Lords Justices of Appeal. Appeals lie to the Court of Appeal from the county courts, the Mayor's and City of London Court and the civil side of the High Court. The Court of Appeal generally sits in two or three divisions, with three judges to a division.

From the Court of Appeal, a further appeal is possible to the House of Lords, with the leave of the House of Lords or of the Court of Appeal. Such appeals are usually heard by five of the nine Lords of Appeal in Ordinary, who are paid professional judges with peerages for life. In addition, the Lord Chancellor and any peers who have held 'high judicial office' are entitled to sit. The House of Lords is the supreme court of appeal in civil cases in the whole of the United Kingdom.

Civil Courts in Scotland

Sheriff Courts

Sheriff courts in their civil capacity correspond roughly to county courts in England and Wales, but they have a wider jurisdiction unlimited by the value of the case. Scotland is divided into 12 sheriffdoms, each provided with a sheriff and a number of sheriffs-substitute. The work of the sheriff court is normally done by a sheriff-substitute, against whose judgment an appeal may be made to the sheriff or directly to the Court of Session.

Minor civil matters (actions not exceeding £5 in value) may be tried by justices of the peace.

The Court of Session

The Court of Session is the supreme civil court in Scotland. It was established in 1532 and consists at present of 15 judges. The court is divided into two parts—the Inner House, which is mainly an appeal court, and the Outer House, a court of first instance, where, *inter alia*, all actions for divorce are taken. 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. From the Inner House, an appeal may lie to the House of Lords.

The Scottish Land Court

This is a special court in Scotland for dealing with certain agricultural matters. The court is presided over by a legal chairman, who has the rank and dignity of a judge of the Court of Session.

Criminal Courts in England and Wales

The criminal courts in England and Wales include:

Petty Sessional or Magistrates' Courts

Magistrates' courts are courts of summary jurisdiction where persons accused of all kinds of minor offences and a large number of the less serious indictable offences may be tried without a jury. These courts are also used for committal proceedings, i.e. the public conduct, by magistrates, of preliminary inquiries into indictable offences to determine whether or not an accused person should be committed for trial in a higher court. Over 97 per cent of all persons convicted are convicted at magistrates' courts.

The majority of magistrates' courts consist of not fewer than two and not more than seven unpaid 'lay' magistrates or justices of the peace, who are appointed, in

each county and for each borough which has its own commission of the peace, by the Lord Chancellor, who is advised as to a county by the Lord Lieutenant¹ with the assistance of an advisory committee, and as to boroughs by separate advisory committees. There are also a few persons who are authorised by statute to act as justices, by virtue of holding some other public office, e.g., mayors of county and non-county boroughs and chairmen of county councils.

In central London, most of the courts consist of a paid metropolitan magistrate sitting alone; some of the larger towns also have stipendiary (paid) magistrates.

Juvenile Courts in England and Wales are specially constituted magistrates' courts which deal with young people under 17 years of age who are charged with any offence except homicide, or are brought before the courts as being in need of care or protection or beyond control, or as persistent truants. Juvenile courts also deal with most applications for the adoption of children.

Outside the London magistrates' courts area, the justices for each petty sessional division elect from their number a panel of justices specially qualified to deal with juvenile cases. The panel for the London area is appointed by the Home Secretary.

A juvenile court consists of not more than three justices drawn from the panel and must, except in special circumstances, include a man and a woman. A juvenile court must sit either in a different room or building from that in which other courts are sitting, or on a different day. Only persons within certain specified categories are admitted and only limited publicity is allowed.

Domestic Proceedings are also tried by not more than three justices, of whom one should be a man and one a woman. The hearing of domestic proceedings is separated from other business and, as in juvenile courts, the public is excluded.

Courts of Quarter Sessions

There are two different kinds of quarter sessions—county sessions and borough sessions; both are normally held four times a year, although, when necessary, additional sittings may be held.

Each of the 63 courts of county quarter sessions is presided over by a legally qualified chairman or deputy chairman, who may or may not draw a salary, sitting with a number of the magistrates of the county. In London, Lancashire and Middlesex, where the courts have continuous sittings, the chairman and deputy chairman normally preside alone. In the 93 boroughs, which hold separate quarter sessions, most of the courts, which do not sit continuously, are presided over by a Recorder (usually a part-time judicial officer), who is a salaried barrister, as sole judge. Trial by jury applies at both borough and county sessions.

The jurisdiction of quarter sessions covers all but the most serious indictable offences, but the courts are debarred from trying any crime that carries the death sentence or (subject to certain exceptions) imprisonment for life.

Assizes

Courts of assize are branches of the High Court of Justice. They are held in the county towns and in certain big cities three times a year, a Queen's Bench judge or a Commissioner of Assize (who may be a barrister commissioned to act as a judge) presiding. The assize judges work on circuits covering England and Wales, and travel from one county town to another in the course of their duties. They can try any indictable offence committed in the county.

¹ See footnote p. 42.

At the winter and summer assizes, civil business as well as criminal may be taken, but except in a few large towns the autumn assize is confined to criminal cases.

Crown Courts

Crown courts are new courts established at Liverpool and Manchester by the Criminal Justice Administration Act, 1956, to act as courts of assize in and for the West Derby Division of Lancashire and the Salford Division of Lancashire. They also act as courts of quarter sessions for the cities of Liverpool and Manchester. The Crown courts are presided over by the Recorders of Liverpool and Manchester, who are whole-time judicial officers.

The Central Criminal Court

The Central Criminal Court at the Old Bailey acts as the court of assize for the criminal business of London, Middlesex and parts of the home counties. The judges include: a judge chosen, in rotation, from the Queen's Bench Division for each monthly session of the court; the Recorder of London; the Common Serjeant; and two additional judges of the Mayor's and City of London Court.

Criminal Appeals

Appeals may be made direct from the magistrates' court to the High Court on a point of law; but the more usual kind of appeal is the appeal of a convicted person against his conviction or his sentence. Appeals of this kind from a magistrates' court are heard in the counties by the Appeal Committee of Quarter Sessions, consisting of between three and twelve magistrates, and in the boroughs by the Recorder; in neither case is a jury required.

Appeals against convictions or sentences by quarter sessions, assizes or Crown courts go to the *Court of Criminal Appeal*. Appeals on questions of law may be brought as of right, but on other grounds only by leave.

The Court of Criminal Appeal consists of the Lord Chief Justice and a number of Queen's Bench judges; three in session is the usual number.

A further appeal from the Court of Criminal Appeal to the House of Lords on a point of law can be brought if the Attorney-General grants a certificate affirming that the appeal is of 'exceptional public importance and that it is desirable in the public interest that a further appeal should be brought'. Appeals of this kind are very rare.

Criminal Courts in Scotland

Criminal prosecutions in Scotland are mainly dealt with in the sheriff court sitting under summary procedure, i.e. the sheriff without a jury. Minor offences are tried under summary procedure in police courts in burghs and in justice of the peace courts in counties. Any summary court may sit as a juvenile court when hearing charges involving only persons under 17 years of age and, in some areas, there are specially constituted juvenile courts. The sheriff court also sits under solemn procedure, i.e. the sheriff with a jury, to hear the more serious cases prosecuted on indictment.

The most serious cases are taken under solemn procedure in the *High Court of Justiciary*, which is the supreme criminal court of first instance. It consists of the Lord Justice General (who is also the Lord President of the Court of Session), the Lord Justice Clerk and thirteen Lords Commissioner of Justiciary who are also judges of the Court of Session. The seat of the court is in Edinburgh, but the judges go on circuit to preside at trials in other towns. The High Court of Justiciary

is also the appeal court from the summary courts and, sitting as a court of criminal appeal, hears appeals in indictment cases. Appeals are heard by three or more judges; there is no further appeal to the House of Lords.

Courts in Northern Ireland

Both civil and criminal courts in Northern Ireland are similar to those in England and Wales with some minor modifications to suit a smaller community. The main difference is that all petty sessional cases are dealt with by resident magistrates, who correspond to the stipendiary magistrates of England and Wales. The inferior courts, that is to say the courts where the less serious cases are tried, are administered by the Parliament of Northern Ireland; the administration of the superior courts has been reserved to the Parliament of the United Kingdom.

Coroners' Courts

Where a person appears to have died a violent or unnatural death, or a sudden death of which the cause is unknown, or in certain other circumstances, the death must be reported to a coroner (who may be a barrister, a solicitor, or a medical practitioner of not less than five years' standing, appointed by a county or a county borough council), within whose jurisdiction the body is lying. When a death is reported to a coroner, he inquires how, when, and where the deceased died. A coroner may hold an inquest in court for this purpose, and he must hold an inquest if he has reasonable cause to believe that the deceased has died a violent or unnatural death or has died in prison or in circumstances for which an Act of Parliament provides that an inquest must be held. A jury must be summoned if there is reason to suspect that the deceased came by his death by murder, manslaughter, or infanticide, or from an accident arising out of the use of a vehicle on the public highway, or in certain other special circumstances. If the jury returns a verdict of murder, manslaughter or infanticide by a particular person, the coroner commits that person for trial at assizes. If the death is merely a sudden death of which the cause is unknown, the coroner need not hold an inquest but may order a post-mortem examination to ascertain the cause of death.

The discovery of gold or silver objects hidden in the soil or in buildings must be reported to a coroner, if the original owner cannot be traced. The coroner then holds an inquest with a jury to inquire whether the objects are 'treasure trove' and who was the finder thereof. If it is decided that the objects are treasure trove, then, though the law is that treasure trove vests in the Crown, the declared finder will either receive them back or be paid their full market value.

In Scotland, the office of coroner does not exist. The Procurator Fiscal inquires privately into all sudden and suspicious deaths in his district and may report the results of his inquiries to the Crown Agent in order that Crown Counsel may consider what proceedings, if any, are required.

Ecclesiastical Courts

The established Church of England has its own ecclesiastical courts, which constitute a graduated hierarchy. They include the Court of the Archdeacon, the Consistory Court of the bishop of each diocese and the provincial courts of the archbishops of Canterbury and of York.

The ecclesiastical courts, which are still courts in the full sense of the word, have jurisdiction only in matters of purely ecclesiastical concern, such as questions of doctrine and ritual, ordination, consecration, and the celebration of divine service.¹

¹ See also Chapter VI, The Churches.

Administrative Tribunals

A number of administrative tribunals exist in various parts of the United Kingdom for the exercise of special judicial functions; broadly speaking they fall into three groups:

- (1) those which deal with a class of dispute in which a Government Department or public authority is interested, e.g., Local Valuation Courts (rating), General and Special Commissioners of Inland Revenue (income tax), and Pensions Appeal Tribunals;
- (2) those which deal with a class of dispute where specialised knowledge or experience on the part of the tribunal is required, e.g., the Lands Tribunal (assessment of values of interest in land), and Rent Tribunals (assessment of fair rents for furnished premises);
- (3) those which enforce professional discipline, e.g., the General Medical Council (doctors), and the Disciplinary Committee of the Law Society (solicitors).

Appeals from certain of these tribunals lie to the appropriate minister (if there is one) or, on a point of law, to the superior courts of England and Wales, Scotland or Northern Ireland, as the case may be.

A number of recommendations, based on the need for ensuring that administrative tribunals are conducted in accordance with the same principles of fairness, openness and impartiality as characterise the ordinary courts of law, were made by the Committee on Administrative Tribunals and Enquiries, appointed by the Government in 1957. The majority of these recommendations were incorporated into the Tribunals and Inquiries Act, 1958, which provides for the establishment of an advisory Council on Tribunals to exercise general supervision¹ and to report on particular matters. The members of the Council are appointed jointly by the Lord Chancellor and the Secretary of State for Scotland; matters peculiar to Scotland are dealt with by the Scottish Committee of the Council.

Military Courts

The jurisdiction of military courts or courts-martial is exclusively over persons subject to military law, and appeals lie to the Courts-Martial Appeal Court, set up by the Courts-Martial (Appeals) Act, 1951. The powers of courts-martial are limited to those conferred on them by statute, and if these powers are exceeded, the person injured has his remedy in the High Court.

THE JUDICIARY

The judiciary of the United Kingdom is independent. That is to say, it is free to administer the law under the protection of the law without fear or favour. All judges, from those of the House of Lords and the superior courts to the 'lay' magistrates or justices of the peace, must not only be, but must appear to be, completely impartial, for it is of fundamental importance that 'justice should not only be done, but should manifestly and undoubtedly be seen to be done'.

The courts of the United Kingdom are the Queen's courts in that 'all jurisdiction of the courts is either indirectly or immediately derived from the Crown', but since the end of the seventeenth century it has been established that the executive cannot disturb or delay the course of common justice, attempt to force the judges

¹ Excluding supervision of the professional disciplinary tribunals, with which the ordinary public are not concerned.

to act otherwise than impartially, or use the prerogative powers of the Crown to create courts to administer any system of law other than common law.

The independence of the judiciary *vis-à-vis* the legislature is likewise strictly observed. Originally laid down by the Act of Settlement, 1701, the law governing the matter was re-enacted in the Supreme Court of Judicature (Consolidation) Act, 1925, which provides that all judges of the High Court and the Court of Appeal, with the exception of the Lord Chancellor (who is a member of the Cabinet), shall hold their offices during good behaviour, subject to a power of removal by the Sovereign on an address presented by both Houses of Parliament. During the centuries that have passed since 1701, only one such address has been moved (against a judge convicted of misappropriation of funds, in 1830); and it can be stated with confidence that Parliament would never use this means to attempt to interfere with judicial independence. Similarly, although no court in the United Kingdom would ever question the validity of an Act of Parliament which had been duly passed by both Houses of Parliament and legally promulgated and published by the proper authority, it might, through its interpretation of the statute, come to a decision contrary to the policy of the Government which introduced the Act. In such a case, it would be open to the Government to persuade Parliament to clarify or amend the statute, or to pass a new Act. It would not be open to it to penalise the judge or to try to influence the court in any other way.

Administration of the Judicial System

There is no Minister of Justice in the United Kingdom. The central responsibility for the administration of the judicial system in England and Wales lies partly with the Lord Chancellor and partly with the Home Secretary. The Prime Minister is also concerned in that he is responsible for recommending to the Crown the appointment of the Lords Justices of Appeal and that of the Lords of Appeal in Ordinary.

Apart from the appointment of the Lords Justices of Appeal, Crown appointments to the High Court bench are made on the recommendation of the Lord Chancellor, who appoints justices of the peace and is also responsible for recommending to the Crown the appointment of county court judges (except in Lancashire where they are nominated by the Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster), Recorders of boroughs and metropolitan and stipendiary magistrates. The administrative business of the Supreme Court of Judicature and the appointment of court officials is partly in the hands of the Lord Chancellor and partly in the hands of the appropriate judges. The Lord Chancellor is a member of the Rule Committee which makes the rules of the Supreme Court; he also appoints the County Court Rule Committee and has power to alter or to disallow the rules made by it. In addition, responsibility for initiating proposals for legal reform, save in the field of criminal law, lies with the Lord Chancellor, who is advised in this matter by the Law Reform Committee and the Private International Law Committee, both established in 1952.

The Home Secretary is responsible for approving appointments of clerks to justices throughout England and Wales, and for the general administration of magistrates' courts, except in relation to their judicial functions in which they can be controlled only by the Queen's Bench Division of the High Court. The local responsibility for the administration of magistrates' courts lies with the magistrates' courts committees, of which there is one for each county and county borough.

In Scotland, the Prime Minister makes recommendations for the appointment of the Lord President and Lord Justice General and also of the Lord Justice Clerk. Power of submission for appointment of all other judges lies with the Secretary

of State for Scotland on the nomination of the Lord Advocate (see also p. 61). The High Court of Justiciary and the Court of Session are administered by the Clerk of the Justiciary and his staff and the Principal Clerk of Session and his staff respectively. Powers of appointment and removal of justices of the peace, formerly held by the Lord Chancellor, were transferred in 1955 to the Secretary of State for Scotland, who is also responsible for the staffing and general organisation of the sheriff courts.

THE LEGAL PROFESSION

The legal profession of England and Wales is strictly divided into two classes of lawyers—barristers and solicitors. The distinction, which is due mainly to historical causes, is found also in Northern Ireland, Scotland and certain other parts of the Commonwealth.

No hard and fast line can be drawn between the work of the solicitor and the work of the barrister, since there are many barristers who do little advocacy, and there are solicitors who do little else, and who have made considerable reputations for themselves in the courts in which they are permitted to appear. In general, however, it may be said that solicitors are professional men who undertake legal business for lay clients; while barristers advise on legal problems submitted through solicitors, and conduct legal proceedings in the higher courts.

A barrister is required to have reached an accepted educational standard, to have passed the legal examinations conducted by the Council of Legal Education and to have become a member of one of the four Inns of Court—Gray's Inn, Lincoln's Inn, the Middle Temple and the Inner Temple. A barrister with a substantial junior practice may apply to the Lord Chancellor for a patent appointing him Queen's Counsel—a proceeding that is known as 'taking silk'. The highest appointments in the legal profession, including those of Attorney-General, Solicitor-General, and other Law Officers of the Crown,¹ are usually, though not necessarily, made from among barristers who have become Queen's Counsel. The professional conduct of a barrister is subject to the scrutiny of the General Council of the Bar; but disciplinary powers are vested exclusively in the Benchers of the Inns of Court.

A prospective solicitor must be considered suitable by the appropriate Committee of the Law Society, the professional organisation of solicitors, and he must enter into 'Articles of Clerkship' with a practising solicitor of not less than five years' standing before he can begin his professional career. The term of articles lasts for three or five years, depending upon the educational qualifications of the student. An articulated clerk must pass the necessary examinations held by the Law Society and, unless he has been a barrister or is a law graduate of a university, he is generally required to attend a course of studies at a recognised law school. Once a solicitor is qualified, he may also become a member of the Law Society.

In Scotland, the conditions for admission as, and the standing of, advocates and solicitors are much the same as those applying in the case of barristers and solicitors in England and Wales.

LEGAL AID

Schemes for free legal assistance to persons of slender means and resources have existed for centuries in some courts, to a limited extent in England and Wales and to a somewhat greater extent in Scotland. The schemes were revised in 1949 when the Legal Aid and Advice Act and the Legal Aid and Solicitors (Scotland) Act

¹ A brief account of the functions of the Law Officers of the Crown in England and Wales is given on p. 54.

received Royal Assent. These Acts were introduced to improve and extend the existing arrangements in civil proceedings so that no one would be financially unable to prosecute a just and reasonable claim or to defend a legal right, and to make the facilities already available in criminal proceedings more easily accessible to those who needed them. The Acts also provided that solicitors and barristers acting for persons receiving legal aid should no longer be required to act gratuitously in civil cases, but should be remunerated for their services from public funds.

The Acts, and in particular the provisions relating to free legal advice, as distinct from assistance in the conduct of litigation, are not yet fully in operation. A legal advice scheme, published by the Law Society in July 1958, is being considered by the Government.

Legal Aid in Civil Cases

Legal aid in civil cases is now available to persons whose income, computed in accordance with rules applied by the National Assistance Board, does not exceed £420 a year, and whose capital, as so computed, does not, save in exceptional circumstances, exceed £500. Where an assisted person can afford to make a contribution to the costs of his case, he is required, as a condition of receiving legal aid, to pay an amount which is settled with due regard to his financial resources.

In England and Wales, legal aid in civil cases is already available in connection with proceedings in the High Court, in the Court of Appeal, in county courts and in certain local courts of similar standing. Eventually the scheme will cover representation in courts of all types, from magistrates' courts up to the House of Lords. The scheme is operated through the Law Society under the general guidance of the Lord Chancellor. The cost is met from a Legal Aid Fund, drawn from three sources: contributions from assisted persons; costs recovered from opposite parties in litigation; and a grant from the Exchequer.

For the purposes of the scheme, England and Wales are divided into twelve areas. In each area a committee of solicitors and barristers, known as an area committee, is responsible for the administration of the scheme. These committees are responsible for setting up legal aid centres to which anyone seeking legal aid may apply. Committees hear the facts, and if they consider that there is a *prima facie* case they give it their support. The person who wishes to bring the action is then allowed to select from a panel a solicitor and, if necessary, a barrister, to conduct his case. Certain types of action, including breach of promise to marry, and libel and slander, are excluded from the scheme.

In Scotland, the legal aid scheme is administered by the Law Society of Scotland through a supervisory Central Committee, a Supreme Court Committee and twenty-one local committees. Legal aid is at present available for civil proceedings in the Court of Session and the sheriff courts. An applicant for legal aid in Scotland is required to show a 'probable cause' and produce in support of his application a statement corroborated according to the requirements of Scottish law.

Legal Aid in Criminal Courts

Free legal aid is already available in the criminal courts in England and Wales under the Poor Prisoners' Defence Act, 1930, and, in case of Appeal, under the Criminal Appeal Act, 1907, and the Summary Jurisdiction (Appeals) Act, 1933. The Legal Aid and Advice Act, 1949, makes certain procedural changes in the system and, when fully implemented, will transfer financial responsibility for paying for free legal aid from local to central funds. It also lays down the principle of allowing fair remuneration to solicitors and barristers according to the work actually and reasonably done.

Under the Costs in Criminal Cases Act, 1952, the courts also have power, in the case of an indictable offence, to order the reasonable costs of the defence to be paid out of local funds when the accused has been discharged by the magistrates' court or acquitted. A magistrates' court has power under the Act, if it dismisses an information on summary trial, to order such costs as it considers just and reasonable to be paid to the accused by the prosecutor.

Pending the full implementation of the Legal Aid and Solicitors (Scotland) Act, legal aid in criminal cases is afforded to poor persons in Scotland under the Poor's Roll system, which is administered on a voluntary basis by the legal profession with the help of a grant from Government funds.

In Northern Ireland, free legal aid in criminal cases is afforded to poor persons under the Criminal Justice (Northern Ireland) Act, 1945. The cost of providing free legal aid is met out of public funds.

TREATMENT OF OFFENDERS

The chief aims of the penal system of the United Kingdom are deterrence and reformation; its effectiveness depends on its total impact—fear of detection, public trial and conviction and the possibility of punishment—and not solely upon the treatment of the offender, which today is based increasingly on the recognition that the community has a responsibility not simply to punish or reject the law-breaker but to bring him back to his proper place in society.

Penalties

Except in relation to murder and certain rare offences for which there is a fixed penalty, the court has discretion to select the penalty, within maxima prescribed by law, which it considers most suitable in the light of the circumstances of the offence and the offender. In general, the courts have power to impose either imprisonment or a fine for serious offences, and, in certain cases, both; while most minor offences are punishable by a fine only, with the alternative of imprisonment if the fine is not paid. Moreover, it is at the discretion of the court, instead of sentencing an offender, to discharge him absolutely, to place him on probation, or, in England and Wales only, to discharge him conditionally (i.e. subject to the condition that he commits no offence during a specified period not exceeding twelve months). There are special provisions governing the treatment of young offenders; and the Criminal Justice Act, 1948, and the Criminal Justice (Scotland) Act, 1949, provide that courts shall not sentence a person under 21 years of age to imprisonment unless they consider that no other method of dealing with him is appropriate.

Two special types of treatment—corrective training and preventive detention—have been devised to deal with the persistent offender. A sentence of corrective training of not less than two nor more than four years (seven years in Northern Ireland) may be imposed on offenders of 21 years of age or over if they are convicted of an offence punishable with imprisonment for a term of two years or more and have been convicted of such an offence on at least two previous occasions since attaining the age of 17. Sentences of preventive detention (primarily for the protection of the public) may be imposed on persons of not less than 30 years of age, who are found guilty of offences punishable with imprisonment for a term of two years or more and have been convicted of such offences on at least three previous occasions since attaining the age of 17, and have been sentenced to borstal training, imprisonment or corrective training on at least two of these occasions. A sentence

of preventive detention runs for not less than five years (three in Northern Ireland) or more than 14 years, as the court decides.

Under the Homicide Act, 1957, the death penalty for murder is confined to those forms of murder (known as 'capital murder') which strike most directly at the maintenance of law and order and the public peace, i.e. any murder done in the course of furtherance of theft, any murder by shooting or by causing an explosion, any murder committed to escape lawful arrest or to effect or assist escape or rescue from legal custody, any murder of a police officer (or person assisting him) acting in the execution of his duty, or any murder by a prisoner of a prison officer (or person assisting him) acting in the execution of his duty. The penalty for murder not in capital categories is imprisonment for life, except that the death penalty continues to apply where a person who is convicted of murder has previously been convicted of another murder committed in Great Britain on a different occasion. Persons under the age of 18 years at the time that the crime was committed are not sentenced to death or to life imprisonment, but 'to be detained during Her Majesty's pleasure'. If the defence is able to prove that a person accused of murder was suffering from such abnormality of mind as substantially impaired his mental responsibility for the killing, he is liable to be convicted only of manslaughter.

It is the long-established practice for the Home Secretary or the Secretary of State for Scotland to review every capital case before the law is allowed to take its course and to consider whether there are grounds for advising the Crown to exercise the Prerogative of Mercy. Where a reprieve is recommended, the sentence of death is commuted to one of imprisonment for life. A person subject to a sentence of life imprisonment is liable to be detained for the rest of his life, but the Home Secretary may, if he thinks fit, release him on licence at any time. In recent years, the average period served by persons whose death sentences have been commuted has been about nine years, but the period varies according to the circumstances of the particular case and the question of whether the prisoner's discharge would involve risk to the public.

The Homicide Act does not apply to Northern Ireland, but the exercise of the Prerogative of Mercy is considered in all capital cases, the Governor acting for the Crown in this matter on the advice of the Cabinet.

Administrative Authorities

In England and Wales, general responsibility for all institutions for the treatment of offenders is vested in the Home Secretary. His statutory powers and duties in this connection include the making of rules for the governance of such institutions, the recommendations of persons for appointment by the Crown as Prison Commissioners, and the appointment of Boards of Visitors.

In the discharge of his duties relating to the treatment of offenders, the Home Secretary is advised by an Advisory Council on the Treatment of Offenders, which also acts as the National Working Group for the Economic and Social Council of the United Nations, and as the National Committee of the International Penal and Penitentiary Commission.

Responsibility to the Home Secretary for the administration of prisons, borstal institutions and detention centres in England and Wales lies with the Prison Commission, assisted by inspectors and by a professional and technical staff. The Prison Commission consists of not more than five commissioners, who are appointed by the Crown, including the chairman, who is appointed to that office by the Home Secretary. There are also a number of assistant commissioners who are inspectors under the Prison Acts.

The general oversight of penal institutions is the responsibility of either Visiting Committees appointed by the justices for those prisons to which convicted persons are committed direct from their courts, or Boards of Visitors appointed by the Home Secretary for the other prisons and institutions. The main functions of the committees and boards are: to act as the superior disciplinary authority of the prison or institution; to constitute an independent judicial body to which any prisoner or inmate may make a complaint or request; and to report direct to the Home Secretary, both by formal annual report and as occasion may require, on every aspect of the administration of the prison. In borstal institutions and preventive detention prisons, the boards also advise the Prison Commissioners on the release of the inmates on licence.

The prison systems of Scotland and Northern Ireland are the responsibility of the Secretary of State for Scotland and of the Minister for Home Affairs respectively, and are administered by the Home Departments in Edinburgh and in Belfast.

Prisons

Prisons in England and Wales are of the following types: local prisons of the ordinary type, which receive all classes of prisoners direct from the courts; local prisons of a special type, which may be open or walled, for short-sentence prisoners, chiefly first offenders; regional training prisons, some of which are open, for first offenders and trainable prisoners of other categories, including those sentenced to corrective training; and central prisons for habitual law-breakers, preventive detention prisoners and long-term prisoners of the 'Star' class¹—one for the latter class is an open prison. A new type of prison, which will provide facilities for the psychotherapeutic observation and treatment of up to 300 prisoners, is under construction and is expected to be ready for occupation by 1962.

In Northern Ireland, with its smaller population, the necessity for several kinds of prison for the separation of various classes of prisoners does not arise to the same extent as in England and Wales. The Scottish system of classification of prisoners is broadly the same as that of England and Wales; but each prison in Scotland accommodates more than one classification group.

Full-time prison officers of all ranks, except chaplains, are permanent civil servants. In 1958, prison staff of all grades in England and Wales numbered about 8,000. Some 8 per cent of this number were women. In Scotland, in June 1958, the prison staff numbered 766, including 71 women, and in Northern Ireland the prison staff of 185 included 21 women.

Classification of Prisoners

Every person committed to prison is first received in the local prison serving the court from which he is committed. Subsequently, he may either serve his whole sentence at the local prison or he may be sent to another institution, depending on his age, the length and nature of his sentence, and his personal history and character.

The object of classification is first to ensure the separation of the sexes, of young persons from adults, of untried prisoners from convicted prisoners and of civil prisoners from criminal prisoners; secondly to prevent contamination, among convicted prisoners, of the better by the worse; and thirdly to provide training appropriate to their needs for those among convicted prisoners who seem likely to benefit therefrom.

¹ 'Star' class prisoners are those who have not previously been convicted of serious crime and are not of habitually criminal or depraved habits.

Training

The main elements of prison training (including corrective training) have been defined as (1) the provision of work which will, so far as is practicable, help to fit prisoners to earn their living after release, with technical training in skilled trades for suitable persons, (2) the provision of suitable educational facilities, and (3) the provision of every opportunity for the development of a sense of personal responsibility, including (for suitable persons) training in open conditions.

Full training can be given only in prisons set aside for the purpose, which provide vocational training courses, based on a Ministry of Labour and National Service syllabus, at which prisoners may receive a theoretical and practical training in a number of skilled trades. The principles on which training is based, however, hold good for all prisons and are applied as far as individual conditions permit.

Employment

Prison industries are organised under the control of a Director of Industries, who has a head office staff of technical officers and supervisors, including a supervisor of farms and gardens, and industrial managers at the prisons.

Except in local prisons, where the hours are shorter, prisoners in England and Wales spend at present about 40 hours a week in the workshops or in other employment such as building, farm work, domestic work and gardening, in company with their fellow prisoners, and conversation is allowed. In most of the Scottish and Northern Ireland prisons, prisoners are also employed for nearly 40 hours a week.

All prisoners are entitled to earn a limited amount from the first day of their sentence; in England, Wales, and Scotland, these amounts may be increased for satisfactory output after a specified lapse of time. In Northern Ireland, there is a progressive system of earnings, which are not related to output or to work done.

Education

Educational schemes are provided in prisons in England, Wales, and Scotland by the local education authorities with the advice of the Government Departments responsible for education in their respective countries, and in Northern Ireland by the Ministry of Home Affairs. The local authorities are reimbursed for the full cost of their services, and the work in England and Wales is under the organisational control of the Assistant Commissioner for Education in the Prison Commission. Evening Institutes have been established; and a wide range of correspondence courses is made available for those who have a serious desire to improve their education and qualifications.

Educational schemes are supplemented by periodical lectures, film displays, concerts, and dramatic performances. Prisoners may also use the prison library, which in most cases is now stocked by the county, city or borough library committee.

Religion and Welfare

A chaplain of the Church of England (in Scotland of the Church of Scotland and in Northern Ireland, of the Church of Ireland, and Presbyterian Church) and a Roman Catholic priest are appointed to every prison. Ministers of the Methodist Church and of other denominations are either appointed or specially called in as required. The chaplain is generally responsible for welfare in the prison to which he is appointed. Regular services are held, and chaplains and other ministers may visit prisoners in their cells.

Prisoners may be visited by their relatives and friends at specified intervals and, in England and Wales, by recognised prison visitors asked to serve in this field by

the Prison Commissioners. The voluntary work of these visitors is co-ordinated and guided by the National Association of Prison Visitors.

Privileges and Discipline

On reception under sentence, all prisoners, except those sentenced to imprisonment for life, are credited with remission of one-third of their sentence (one-fourth in Northern Ireland in respect of sentences of less than two years), provided that this does not reduce their sentence below 31 days. The Home Secretary may at any time, if he thinks fit, release on licence anyone sentenced to life imprisonment. A prisoner sentenced to corrective training becomes eligible for release on licence after serving two-thirds of his sentence. A prisoner sentenced to preventive detention becomes eligible for release on licence after serving two-thirds or five-sixths of his sentence (in Northern Ireland, two years, or one-half of his sentence, whichever is greater) according to an assessment of his character, conduct and prospects, which is made after he has served a substantial part of his sentence. In addition, at successive stages of a prisoner's sentence, he becomes entitled to additional privileges; for example, he is allowed to have meals and recreation with his fellow prisoners and to have some of his personal belongings in his cell.

Home leave (allowing five clear days at home) may be granted to prisoners serving sentences of two or more years in regional training prisons. The purpose of the scheme (introduced in 1951) is to contribute to the restoration of the prisoner's self-confidence by placing trust in him under conditions of freedom, and to give him an opportunity, before his final release, to make contacts with potential employers, to deal with domestic matters, and to renew home ties. Leave is granted not earlier than four and not later than two months before the date of release.

For breaches of discipline in prison, the Governor or the Visiting Committee or the Board of Visitors have power to order forfeiture of remission (or postponement of the date of release) and forfeiture of privileges.

After-Care of Prisoners

Prisoners from local prisons are assisted on discharge by Discharged Prisoners' Aid Societies, which are local and voluntary bodies supported partly by private and partly by public funds. The work of the local societies is co-ordinated by the National Association of Discharged Prisoners' Aid Societies for England and Wales and for Scotland, both of which depend on a grant from public funds for their administrative expenses. For persons discharged from other prisons and from borstals (who are, in general, subject to statutory supervision) after-care in England and Wales is in the hands of the Central After-Care Association, a voluntary body financed from public funds and governed by a council appointed by the Home Secretary, which includes in its membership representatives of the Ministry of Labour and National Service, of the National Assistance Board and of the probation service. The Secretary of State for Scotland appoints an After-Care Council to carry out similar duties in Scotland.

In England and Wales, the Association works through local associates, usually probation officers, and, in Scotland, the Council works through voluntary guardians. The officers of the local organisations make all arrangements for the reception of the prisoner after his discharge, and will advise, assist and befriend him for as long as is necessary or required by statute.

In Northern Ireland, the after-care of all prisoners is carried out by the Discharged Prisoners' Aid Societies with the help of probation officers.

Treatment of Young Offenders

Under the English and Scottish legal systems, a child under the age of eight cannot be charged with an offence. A child aged eight but under fourteen years old charged with an offence other than homicide must be dealt with in a juvenile court unless charged jointly with an adult.

In England and Wales, a young person between fourteen and seventeen years of age charged with an indictable offence may be dealt with summarily (as is usually the case) or committed for trial by jury. In certain cases young persons may claim to be tried by jury, though this right is rarely exercised. In Scotland and Northern Ireland, all young persons up to the age of 17 years of age charged with offences must be dealt with in juvenile courts, unless they have been charged in conjunction with adult offenders.

The following methods of treatment are available in law for dealing with children and young persons who have been found guilty of committing an offence: absolute discharge; conditional discharge (in England and Wales only); fines (imposed upon the offender or, in certain circumstances, upon his parents); probation; committal to the care of a fit person (normally the appropriate local authority) until the age of 18; or a period of detention in one of the different types of institution which are available when institutional treatment is considered necessary.

Remand Homes

In England, Wales and Scotland, remand homes are provided by local authorities for the safe custody of boys and girls under the age of 17 before their appearance in court, or between court appearances (while inquiries are made as to the best method of treatment for them), while they are awaiting vacancies in approved schools, or for a short period (up to a month) of punitive detention. Facilities for observation are provided in remand homes, and valuable reports can thus be made to guide those responsible for the future of young offenders.

In Northern Ireland, the responsibility for providing or arranging for the provision of remand homes rests with the Minister of Home Affairs.

Approved Schools

Approved schools are residential schools for the education and training of young offenders and children committed to them by the courts as in need of care or protection. These schools may be provided by local authorities, by voluntary organisations concerned with the welfare of children on a national scale, or by local committees formed by people interested in such work. In England and Wales, the schools must be approved by the Home Secretary; in Scotland, by the Secretary of State for Scotland; and in Northern Ireland, by the Minister of Home Affairs. The number of approved schools in England and Wales in 1958 was 118. There are 23 approved schools in Scotland, and five (known as training schools) in Northern Ireland.

The schools are for boys only or for girls only. They are classified according to the ages of the children on admission, and include separate schools for Roman Catholic children. The assignment of a child to a school in the appropriate age group is determined by such considerations as the location of the school in relation to the child's home, the type of training provided, and the probable reaction of a child to the individual personalities of the staff.

In general, the education given in approved schools follows the lines of that given in ordinary schools, with vocational training for older boys and girls: the emphasis is on character building, and close attention is given to after-care.

The period during which a child or young person may be detained in an approved school is determined by law. In Great Britain it is three years, except for children under the age of 12 years and 4 months at the time of committal, who may be kept until the age of 15 years and 4 months, and those over the age of 16 on committal, who can be detained only up to the age of 19, or 19½ if they have been found guilty of absconding or of serious misconduct in an approved school. Managers of all approved schools are under an obligation to review the progress of each child in their school towards the end of the first year of detention and thereafter at least quarterly, with a view to granting a release on licence as soon as the situation warrants it.

Statutory responsibility for after-care rests on the school managers. A boy or girl on release remains under the care of the managers during the periods of licence and supervision. The period of licence lasts until the expiry of the time for which the boy or girl might have been legally detained in the school. The period of supervision lasts for three years more, or until the boy or girl reaches the age of 21 whichever is the shorter period. Managers are assisted in their after-care work by welfare officers and social service organisations.

Attendance Centres

Thirty-seven attendance centres have been established in England and Wales to deal with boys between the ages of 12 and 17 found guilty of offences for which an adult can be sentenced to imprisonment. This form of treatment, started in 1950, is designed to teach young offenders a respect for the law and to give them some instruction in the proper use of leisure. Boys ordered to attend must do so during their spare time on Saturday mornings or afternoons; they may be required to attend for up to three hours on any one occasion and for not more than twelve hours in all. The activities include a period of instruction in handicrafts, or a lecture (e.g., on first aid) and a period of physical training or disciplinary tasks under supervision. Efforts are made at the centres to induce the boys to join a youth club or other suitable organisation.

Detention Centres

Detention centres are designed to provide a 'short sharp shock' for those who have not yet developed a definitely anti-social attitude, but who need to be taught that the law cannot be defied with impunity. The offender is normally sent to the centre for three months, though in certain circumstances the courts have power to commit for a shorter or longer term up to a maximum of six months. The regime is designed to deprive the boy of his liberty and of all the elements of what he thinks of as a 'good time', and to oblige him to live a brisk, disciplined life, maintaining the highest possible standards at the highest possible tempo. Each boy in a detention centre must be alert, punctual and tidy, and emphasis is placed on the inculcation of obedience, cleanliness and good manners. The routine provides a normal working week of 44 hours, including one hour daily devoted to physical training. Boys of compulsory school age receive full-time education, and classes of further education are provided for others in the evenings. In 1958 there were four detention centres in England and Wales—two junior centres for boys over 14 and under 17, accommodating about 70 and 60 boys respectively, and two senior centres for boys over 17 and under 21, accommodating about 75 boys and 65 boys, respectively.

Borstal Institutions

There are various types of borstal institution, which aim to provide suitable conditions and training courses for different types of young offenders between the

ages of 16 and 21 years. For boys in England and Wales there are two borstal allocation centres, and 15 training borstals, one correction centre and one recall centre; and there are three training borstals and one recall centre for girls. In Scotland, there are four borstals for boys and one for girls; and in Northern Ireland, one for boys and one for girls. The period of the sentence is in effect four years (three years in Scotland and Northern Ireland); it is divided between training in a borstal institution and controlled freedom under supervision. In Scotland the supervision period is for one year from the date of release from the institution or until the expiration of three years from the date of sentence, whichever is the shorter. The system of training seeks the all-round development of character and capacities, and is based on progressive trust demanding increasing personal decision, responsibility and self-control. There is much freedom of movement, and many borstals are conducted in open conditions. An initial period of classification ensures that each boy or girl is sent to the institution best suited to his or her requirements.

Probation

The probation system is designed to secure the rehabilitation of an offender while he remains at work or at school in the community under the supervision of a probation officer, whose duty it is to advise, assist and befriend him. A cardinal feature of the system is that it relies on the co-operation of the offender. Before making a probation order, the court must explain its effects to the person concerned and inform him that if he fails to comply with its requirements he will be liable to be dealt with for the original offence. A probation order cannot be made without the consent of the person concerned unless (in England, Wales, and Northern Ireland only) he is under 14 years of age. The order usually requires the probationer to keep in regular touch with the probation officer, to be of good behaviour and to lead an industrious life. It may also require him to live in a specified place, or to submit to treatment for his mental condition. A probation order is made for not less than one year and not more than three years.

Every magistrates' court and superior criminal court must have available the services of probation officers of both sexes. In 1958, the total numbers were: 1,300 whole-time and 54 part-time probation officers in England and Wales, 14 whole-time and one part-time in Northern Ireland, and 120 whole-time and 34 part-time in Scotland. In London, the appointment of probation officers is the responsibility of the Home Secretary, and in Northern Ireland of the Ministry of Home Affairs; elsewhere it is the responsibility of probation committees appointed by magistrates in England and Wales, and by local authorities in Scotland (except for certain *ex officio* members), but all appointments are subject to confirmation by the Home Secretary and the Secretary of State for Scotland, respectively. Training facilities in England and Wales are provided by the Home Office on the advice of the Probation Advisory and Training Board and are made available, by arrangement, to Northern Ireland officers. In Scotland, training is provided during the first year of appointment and before the officer is allowed to make probation work his permanent career.

THE POLICE SERVICE

The police service of Great Britain is organised and controlled on a local basis under the guidance of those Ministers of the Crown who are responsible for the maintenance of law and order in their respective countries. In England and Wales, the responsible Minister is the Home Secretary; in Scotland, the Secretary of State

for Scotland. In Northern Ireland, the police force is controlled by an Inspector-General, who is responsible to the Minister of Home Affairs.

POLICE IN GREAT BRITAIN

Police Forces

There are 126 separate, independent police forces in England and Wales, defined according to area of responsibility as county forces; borough forces; combined forces, which are forces whose area of responsibility extends over neighbouring counties or boroughs; the Metropolitan Police Force, which is responsible for an area of approximately fifteen miles radius from Charing Cross, but excluding the City of London; and the City of London force. In Scotland, there are 33 forces, including county forces, burgh forces and combined forces.

In England and Wales and Scotland, police forces vary considerably in size according to the area and population which they serve. Thus, in 1958, the Metropolitan Police Force had a strength of approximately 16,800, while that of the smallest force in Scotland was 15.

The strength of the regular police force in Great Britain in 1958 was approximately 78,000, including women.

In addition to the regular police forces, there are the part-time Special Constabulary, the police of certain public services, e.g., the British Transport Commission Police, the Civil Aviation Constabulary, the Port of London Authority Police and other dock and harbour forces (who, although not subject to the supervision of the Home Secretary or the Secretary of State for Scotland, have duties and powers analogous to those of ordinary constables but limited to the premises and immediate neighbourhoods of their employers) and the police of the Service Departments, i.e. the Admiralty Constabulary, the War Department Constabulary, which guards War Office lands and military property, the Royal Marine Police, who are employed chiefly in dockyards, and the Air Ministry Constabulary.

Police Authorities

In the counties of England and Wales the police authority is the Standing Joint Committee, half of whose members are members of the county council while the other half are justices of the peace. In the boroughs the police authority is known as the Watch Committee and is elected by the council from its members. The police authority of a combined force is made up of representatives of the constituent areas as prescribed in the scheme under which they combine.

The Metropolitan Police Force is under the control of the Home Secretary. In the City of London the Common Council is the police authority, although it usually appoints a standing committee to deal with all police matters on its behalf.

In Scotland, the police authority for the counties is the county or joint county council; in the large burghs it is the town council; where there are combined forces there is a joint police committee.

It is the statutory duty of the police authorities to establish and maintain efficient police forces for their areas. They are responsible for the appointment of the chief officer of police in their areas, subject to the approval of the Home Secretary in the provinces of England and Wales, to the approval of the Crown in the City of London, and to the approval of the Secretary of State for Scotland in Scotland. In the Metropolitan Police District the chief officer of police and his immediate subordinates are appointed by the Crown on the recommendation of the Home Secretary.

The police authorities are also responsible (with the approval of the Home Secretary in England and Wales and the Secretary of State for Scotland in Scotland) for the size and disposition of their forces; for paying the members of the forces their prescribed emoluments; for providing and maintaining police premises; and for exercising disciplinary functions in relation to the most senior officers.

Central Authority

Co-ordination and a certain measure of central control are exercised through detailed police regulations which are issued by the Home Secretary and the Secretary of State for Scotland, who are required by the Police Act, 1919, 'to act in consultation one with another' in this connection. The police regulations cover such matters as discipline, mutual aid, pay, allowances, pensions, clothing, expenses and conditions of service of the members of all police forces to which the Act applies.

The Secretaries of State are advised on questions relating to the conditions of service of the police by the Police Council for Great Britain, a negotiating body established in 1953, which is representative on the one side of all ranks of the police service and on the other of the police authorities. In their supervisory responsibilities the Secretaries of State are assisted by Her Majesty's Inspectors of Constabulary, of whom there were five (in addition to a woman assistant inspector for the women police) in England and Wales, and one in Scotland in 1958. Each inspector is responsible for a certain number of forces, and satisfies himself of their continuing efficiency by annual inspections, *ad hoc* visits and consultations when particular problems arise. The inspectors report to the Secretaries of State on the condition of the various forces, with the exception of the Metropolitan Police Force, which is under the Home Secretary's control and is not inspected.

Central control also derives from the fact that all police authorities receive a Government grant equal to half their net expenditure reckoned in accordance with the provisions of Orders made under the Miscellaneous Financial Provisions Act, 1950 (as regards England and Wales), and the Police (Scotland) Act, 1956 (as regards Scotland). These Orders empower the Home Secretary and the Secretary of State for Scotland to withhold the grant in whole or in part, permanently or for such time as they may determine, if they are not satisfied that a police area is efficiently policed, that a force is properly maintained and administered, or that the rates of pay or allowances are as prescribed or approved by them.

Police Officers

There are several different kinds of police officer in Great Britain: regular police officers who usually serve for 25 years or more and thereafter retire on pension; members of the first police reserve, which is composed almost entirely of police pensioners or men with previous police experience who are prepared to give whole-time paid service to a particular force in an emergency, whether national or local; members of the Special Constabulary, which consists of volunteers who perform short periods of duty without pay in their spare time from their normal occupations.¹

In general, entry to the regular police force is open to men between the ages of 19 and 30, although an exception may be made in the case of ex-regular Navy, Army and Air Force men of over 30 years of age. Women entrants in England and Wales must be between the ages of 20 and 35, and in Scotland between 20 and 30 years old. The standard police ranks in Great Britain, except in the Metropolitan

¹ In Scotland, the employment of special constables, other than in emergencies, is subject to strict limitations.

Police District, are: chief constable, superintendent, inspector, sergeant and constable. The following intermediate ranks may also be adopted in areas where police duties are particularly heavy: assistant chief constable, chief superintendent, chief inspector and, in England and Wales only, station inspector, station sergeant and acting sergeant. In the Metropolitan Police District the chief officer is the Commissioner of Police of the Metropolis. He is assisted by a deputy commissioner and four assistant commissioners. Next in rank are commanders, then deputy commanders; thereafter (i.e. from chief superintendent downwards) the ranks are the same as in the rest of the country. In the City of London the ranks are the same as in the provinces except that the chief officer is called the Commissioner of Police and the second in command is an assistant commissioner.

No member of the police service may belong to a trade union, since it is a basic principle of the service that its members must not only be free from political bias, but must also be seen to be free of it. The Police Act, 1919, however, laid it down that the police should have a statutory representative organisation of their own. There are now two such organisations to which all inspectors, sergeants and constables belong—the Police Federation in England and Wales and the Scottish Police Federation. Any branch or committee of the federations may make representations to the chief officer or police authority concerned, or to the appropriate Secretary of State. Delegates from the Joint Central Committees of the two federations sit on the Police Councils.

Police Cadets

Police cadets are recruited by most forces from boys between 15 and 18 years of age, so that prospective constables shall have had some training and have gained sufficient insight into police duties to make reasonably certain that they wish to stay in the police service before they undergo constable's training. A few forces also recruit girl cadets.

Civil Staff

In order to release uniformed police for police duties, a number of police authorities employ civilians to perform certain duties ancillary to police functions, e.g., as shorthand-typists, switchboard operators, mechanics, canteen staff and cleaners. In 1958, the civil staff employed by the police authorities in England and Wales (outside the Metropolitan District) was 10·2 per cent of the actual strength of the uniformed personnel.

Police Duties

Every police officer in Great Britain is an independent holder of a public office. His powers as a constable, whether conferred by statute or by common law, are exercised by him by virtue of his office and cannot be exercised on the responsibility of any person but himself. Thus, unless acting in pursuance of a magistrate's warrant, a police officer is liable for any wrongful or mistaken action on his part, for he is not the servant of the police authority, and in discharging his duties must rely on his own discretion and his own knowledge of the law.

The manifold functions of a police officer as a constable range from the protection of persons and property, road or street patrolling and traffic control to criminal investigation (all police forces have their own criminal investigation departments) and arresting persons committing offences or, in certain cases, under suspicion of acting in an unlawful way. In England and Wales (although not in Scotland where the police investigate cases and report to the prosecutor), the police are responsible for initiating, and in most cases conducting, prosecutions, except those which must

be dealt with by the Director of Public Prosecutions, i.e. if the offence is punishable by death; or when an offence is referred to him by a Government Department, subject to his discretion; or in any case which appears to the Director 'to be of importance or difficulty or which for any reason requires his intervention'.

In the Metropolitan Police District, there are also the River Police, who carry out a constant patrol of the river Thames; the Mounted Branch, which, in addition to normal patrol and traffic duties, is employed as necessary on ceremonial work and duties involving the supervision of large crowds; and a number of other specialised branches of the police.

In addition to their duties as constables, police officers may be required by the police authority to carry out other duties connected with the police, e.g., the licensing and inspection of hackney carriages, but such duties have latterly been considerably reduced.

Centrally Run Services

During recent years a number of common services have been established to supplement those provided by the police authorities for their own use. In England and Wales, such services include a training service, which provides nine residential district training centres and a central police college; an installation and maintenance service of wireless equipment for the police; and a forensic service, which provides laboratories for the use of regional groups of forces. In Scotland, there is a central police college, which provides training courses for recruits and courses of higher training; but the installation and maintenance of wireless equipment is a direct charge upon the police authorities concerned and there is no centrally run forensic science service. The Glasgow police force, however, operates an extensive laboratory, the service of which is available to the whole of the Scottish police, and the universities of Aberdeen, Edinburgh, Glasgow and St. Andrews render assistance when required.

A number of national services are provided by the Metropolitan Police Force, whose functions in this respect include: (1) the maintenance of the central Criminal Record Office, which is a national registry of criminals and crime, containing a Central Fingerprint Bureau, the services of which are available to all police forces of the United Kingdom and certain foreign forces; (2) the publication of the *Police Gazette*,¹ which contains particulars of people wanted for crime and details of stolen property, and is supplied without charge to the police forces of the United Kingdom and to certain other Commonwealth and foreign forces; (3) the organisation and control of the Special Branch of the Criminal Investigation Department at New Scotland Yard, whose duties include the protection of Royalty, some Ministers of the Crown, and distinguished foreign visitors; and (4) the carrying out of extradition orders made by the courts. For certain of these services, the Metropolitan Police Force receives an additional Exchequer grant.

POLICE IN NORTHERN IRELAND

The general control of the Royal Ulster Constabulary, which is a national force, is vested in an Inspector-General, who is responsible to the Minister of Home Affairs. The cost of the force is met from the Northern Ireland Exchequer, the County Borough of Belfast contributing a token sum of £25,000 annually towards the cost of policing the City of Belfast.

¹ A Scottish *Police Gazette* is published by the City of Glasgow Police Force.

The strength of the Royal Ulster Constabulary in 1958 was approximately 2,800, including women. Conditions of service and pay follow closely on the lines of the police service in Great Britain, the general duties pertaining to the tasks being similar in all respects.

In addition to the Royal Ulster Constabulary, there exists in Northern Ireland an auxiliary police force called the Ulster Special Constabulary, which is also under the general control and direction of the Inspector-General. In the main, this force is a part-time force and its duties cover training and assistance to the regular force on special occasions. If necessary, however, its part-time personnel may be mobilised for full-time duty and its duties extended to cover ordinary police duties. The strength of the Special Constabulary in 1958 was approximately 13,500 part-time officers and men, and over 100 full-time personnel.

THE FIRE SERVICE

The fire services in Great Britain are organised on a local basis, subject to a measure of central control exercised by the Home Secretary (in England and Wales) and the Secretary of State for Scotland (in Scotland). The fire services in Northern Ireland are controlled by two authorities, the Belfast Corporation and the Northern Ireland Fire Authority, which are responsible to the Minister of Home Affairs. Every place throughout the United Kingdom is covered by a public fire brigade.

FIRE SERVICES IN GREAT BRITAIN

In 1958, there were 135 local authority fire brigades in England and Wales and 11 in Scotland.

Fire Authorities

The responsibility for fire-fighting functions, which was vested in the two Secretaries of State on a national basis as an emergency measure during the second world war, was restored in 1948 to local government control under the Fire Services Act, 1947. The effect of the Act was to transform the National Fire Service (established in 1941) into separate fire brigades administered, in England and Wales, by the county or county borough councils, which were created the fire authorities for their areas and were given powers and duties which they exercise either separately or as combined authorities where neighbouring councils care to make such arrangements to increase the efficiency of the service. The Act provides that (outside the London area) each fire authority which is a county council must establish a fire brigade committee, consisting of both county council members and representatives of the county district councils in the county, to deal on the county council's behalf with matters concerning fire prevention and control. The London County Council is in direct control of the London Fire Brigade, which serves all London, including the City of London. In Scotland, the local authorities are grouped in eleven areas each with a single brigade; with the exception of Glasgow, where the town council of the city is the responsible authority, each area is administered by a joint committee representative of the councils of the counties and large burghs in the area.

Central Control

The Home Secretary and the Secretary of State for Scotland are empowered to make regulations prescribing such matters as conditions of service, standards of efficiency and the organisation of training in the local fire brigades. In matters

affecting the fire brigades as a whole (excluding regulations about conditions of service and similar matters), each Secretary of State is advised by a Central Fire Brigades Advisory Council, consisting of representatives of the local authority associations, representatives of the chief officers (firemasters in Scotland) and other members of the brigades, and other persons having special qualifications for the purpose. The Advisory Councils are not concerned with the conditions of service of members of the brigades. On these subjects the Secretaries of State are advised by the National Joint Council for Local Authorities' Fire Brigades in Great Britain and the National Joint Council for Chief Officers of Local Authorities' Fire Brigades in Great Britain.

Central control is also exercised through the inspectors of fire services, whose duties include advising the Secretaries of State on technical matters. In 1958, there were 12 inspectors and assistant inspectors in England and Wales and one inspector and an assistant inspector in Scotland. There was also a woman staff officer.

Establishment Schemes

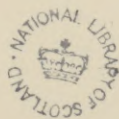
Each fire authority is required to draw up a scheme showing the establishment of officers and other ranks (both whole-time and part-time) the number and location of fire stations and the number and type of vehicles and appliances considered necessary for the provision of an all-over cover of its area. Details of establishment schemes, which must be approved by the Secretaries of State, vary considerably according to the fire risks in the area concerned; but in an English county of about 500,000 acres with a mixed urban and rural population of some 750,000, for example, there might be 30 whole-time and part-time fire stations equipped with 150 vehicles and appliances and served by a whole-time force of approximately 250 and a part-time force of approximately 400 officers and men.

It is the duty of each fire authority to purchase such vehicles and equipment as are required under the establishment scheme. Equipment is standardised, and appliances are bought by fire authorities to requirement specifications which ensure that essential standards are maintained, and yet allow sufficient freedom of design to meet local requirements and further developments.

Operational Methods

Each fire authority is required to appoint a chief officer (firemaster in Scotland) to be the chief administrative and executive officer for the fire services in its area. The appointment must be ratified in England and Wales by the Home Secretary and in Scotland by the Secretary of State for Scotland. The chief officer or firemaster is responsible to the fire authority for seeing that both the fire brigade and the fire department (which is the administrative centre and staff headquarters for the fire brigade) are organised and managed in accordance with policy laid down.

There is a central headquarters for operational control, which is exercised on a local basis by divisional officers in charge of geographical divisions into which most areas are divided for the purpose. Each divisional officer has at his disposal a small staff of whole-time, and a varying number of part-time, officers and men; and he is responsible for mobilising this force in the strength necessary for dealing with any outbreaks of fire in his division. Constant communication is maintained between divisional and brigade headquarters; and if at any time an outbreak of fire should grow beyond the capabilities of a divisional force, help is sent from one or more neighbouring divisions in its area, or even from the area of another fire authority. Under arrangements for mutual help made by all fire authorities, the nearest available force is sent to the scene of a fire, regardless of area boundaries.



Firemen

Firemen in Great Britain include: whole-time firemen; part-time firemen—either 'retained' firemen, who undertake, in return for a small retaining fee, to attend fires if they are called upon to do so, or 'volunteer' firemen, who receive no remuneration; auxiliary firemen, who are enrolled as part of the local authority civil defence organisation as members of individual brigades under the command of chief officers or firemasters, and whose activities are restricted (except in a war emergency) to such duties as are desirable for training; and members of fire-fighting organisations with specialised functions, which are outside the scope of the 1947 Act, e.g., those maintained by the War Office, the Air Ministry, the Ministry of Transport and Civil Aviation and by some of the more important industrial and commercial concerns.

Ranks in the fire services (for men) are chief officer, assistant chief officer (firemaster and assistant firemaster in Scotland), divisional officer, assistant divisional officer, station officer, sub-officer, leading fireman and fireman. Ranks in the women's branch, which is mainly concerned with controls, administrative duties and duties of a clerical nature, are (for Great Britain as a whole) group officer, assistant group officer, senior leading firewoman, leading firewoman, and firewoman. Promotion in the lower ranks of the fire-fighting forces is by examination and by merit, and in the higher ranks by merit only.

Training for full-time firemen in England and Wales includes practical and theoretical instruction given to recruits at a training school, which is run either by the fire authority itself or by a neighbouring authority, and refresher courses for firemen, arranged by fire departments. The training of recruits and junior ranks in Scotland is carried out at a central training school which is the responsibility of the Scottish Home Department. Courses for officers and potential officers of fire authority brigades are held at the Fire Service College, at Wotton House, near Dorking, Surrey, which is maintained by the Home Office and the Scottish Home Department as the central training institution for the fire services.

Finance

Every fire authority is required to submit to the Home Secretary or to the Secretary of State for Scotland an annual statement showing its expenditure and income in connection with the provision of fire services during the preceding year. The Government pays a grant of 25 per cent of the net expenditure approved by the Home Office or the Scottish Home Department, less an annual contribution towards the expenses of the Fire Service College (and in Scotland a contribution towards the Scottish Fire Service Training School); the rest of the money is raised from local authority funds.

Research

The principal means by which research on fire prevention and fire-fighting is carried on is the Joint Fire Research Organisation, the cost of which is shared equally between the Government and the Fire Offices' Committee (a committee of the insurance companies dealing in fire risks). The organisation conducts continuing research into all aspects of fire prevention and fire-fighting and controls a Fire Research Station at which practical tests are carried out.

FIRE SERVICES IN NORTHERN IRELAND

In Northern Ireland, the Belfast Corporation controls the Belfast Fire Brigade and is responsible for the area inside the city boundary, and the Northern Ireland Fire Authority covers the rest of the country outside Belfast.

The Belfast Fire Brigade maintains five whole-time stations and has an establishment of 190 officers and men manning 12 appliances, while the Northern Ireland Fire Authority has one whole-time station in Londonderry and 44 other stations throughout the remainder of the area, and an establishment of 88 whole-time officers and men and 666 part-time firemen, manning 60 appliances.

Ranks of Firemen

The ranks of firemen in Northern Ireland are: for the Northern Ireland Fire Authority—fire force commander, divisional officer, assistant divisional officer, senior company officer, company officer, section leader (retained brigades only), leading fireman and fireman; and for the Belfast Fire Brigade—chief officer, deputy chief officer, divisional officer grade 2, divisional officer grade 3, assistant divisional officer, station officer, sub-officer, leading fireman and fireman.

Finance

The Fire Services Acts (Northern Ireland), 1947-56, under which the fire authorities were established, provided that the amount of fire service grant payable to the Northern Ireland Fire Authority should be 50 per cent of the loan charges in respect of capital expenditure which did not exceed £60,000, and 25 per cent of the amount (if any) by which the loan charges exceeded £60,000, together with 50 per cent of the first £150,000 of other net expenditure and 25 per cent of the excess over that amount. Expenditure in excess of the fire service grant is apportioned among the local authorities liable to contribute to the funds of the Authority. Under the Fire Services Acts, the Belfast Fire Brigade cannot qualify for the payment of fire service grant.

III. DEFENCE

THE DEFENCE SYSTEM

An adequate general survey of the principles which govern United Kingdom defence policy is possible only in the wider context of the United Kingdom's international relationships, its place in the Commonwealth and in world affairs, and its responsibilities towards British dependent and protected territories—subjects which, as explained in the Introduction, fall outside the scope of this handbook. This chapter, therefore, can attempt little more than an outline of the present pattern of the development of Britain's armed forces.

DEFENCE POLICY

The national defence policy has been increasingly based on the realisation that no country can protect itself in isolation and the defence of Britain is possible only as part of a system of collective defence arrangements. Policy is therefore determined largely by Britain's obligations to contribute to the collective defence organisations of which it is a member—the North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO) and Western European Union, the Baghdad Pact, and the SEATO defence system in South-East Asia—as well as to discharge its own special responsibilities in many parts of the world; and defence planning is carried out in close co-operation with Britain's partners in these organisations with the aim of creating integrated allied forces.

Close liaison is maintained with other Commonwealth countries, between whose forces there is considerable standardisation of equipment, weapons and training techniques and interchange of personnel.

At the same time the United Kingdom continues to work for the attainment of international agreement on the control of all forms of armaments.

Machinery of Higher Defence Planning

The Queen is titular head of all the armed forces. Supreme responsibility for national defence rests, under the ultimate control of Parliament (which makes annual financial provision for defence needs), with the Prime Minister and the Cabinet. Subject to this supreme responsibility, defence problems which engage the collective responsibility of the Cabinet are normally handled on the Cabinet's behalf by the Defence Committee, meeting under the chairmanship of the Prime Minister. The Minister of Defence, who is a member of the Cabinet and of the Defence Committee, answers to Parliament for all matters of policy common to the three fighting Services—the Royal Navy, the Army and the Royal Air Force. The Minister is responsible for:

- (1) the apportionment in broad outline of available resources between the three Services in accordance with the strategic policy laid down by the Defence Committee; this includes the framing of general policy to govern research and development and the correlation of production programmes;
- (2) the settlement of questions of general administration on which a common policy for the three Services is desirable; and

- (3) the administration of inter-Service organisations such as the Imperial Defence College, Amphibious Warfare Headquarters, the Joint Intelligence Bureau, and the Joint Services Staff College.

Each of the three Service ministers—the First Lord of the Admiralty, the Secretary of State for War (who deals with the Army), and the Secretary of State for Air—is responsible to Parliament for the administration of his own Service; and the Minister of Supply is similarly responsible for the Service supplies procured by his Department. All these ministers are members of the Defence Committee, while consultation on defence policy between them and the Minister of Defence and discussion of inter-Service problems take place at meetings of the Defence Board, of which the Minister of Defence is chairman. The Chiefs of Staff Committee, which comprises the Chief of the Defence Staff (who is principal military adviser to the Minister of Defence) as chairman and the professional heads of the three Services, is collectively responsible to the Government for professional advice on strategy and military operations and on the military implications of defence policy generally. The Chiefs of Staff are members of the Defence Board, are in attendance at meetings of the Defence Committee and may be invited to attend meetings of the full Cabinet as necessary; they have at all times a right of access to the Minister of Defence and, when necessary, to the Prime Minister. Policy within each Service is controlled by an administrative directorate: the Board of Admiralty, the Army Council and the Air Council, each headed by the responsible minister.

Britain's defence policy is reviewed each year in a White Paper presented to Parliament by the Minister of Defence immediately before the detailed Estimates of the Service Departments. The White Paper describes the defence programme proposed by the Government and indicates how each of the Services will carry its part of the programme into effect.

The White Paper for 1957—*Defence: Outline of Future Policy, Cmnd. 124*—set out a five-year plan for the reshaping of the defence forces in the light of changes in the international situation, the rapid progress in military technology, and the need to relieve the burden which defence requirements had been imposing on the country's financial and economic strength. This programme, described as involving 'the biggest change in military policy ever made in normal times' is now being put into effect, and progress during the first year was reviewed in the 1958 White Paper, *Report on Defence: Britain's Contribution to Peace and Security, Cmnd. 363*.

The Long-term Plan

Britain's armed forces, the 1957 White Paper stated, must be able to perform two main tasks:

- (1) 'to play their part with the forces of allied countries in deterring and resisting aggression; and
- (2) 'to defend British colonies and protected territories against local attack, and undertake limited operations in overseas emergencies.

'The aim must be to provide well-equipped forces sufficient to carry out these duties, while making no greater demands than are absolutely necessary upon manpower, money, and other national resources.'

The new plan provides for smaller, highly trained, all-regular forces with increased mobility, equipped with the most modern weapons and organised on up-to-date lines. To permit reductions in the numbers of men serving in the various places overseas where Britain has defence responsibilities, a central reserve will be maintained together with the means of transport, including airlift, to take it rapidly

to the scene of any trouble. Since 'the over-riding principle must be to prevent war rather than prepare for it', priority is given to the production of the deterrent—nuclear weapons and the means to deliver them—though it is emphasised that conventional forces armed with conventional weapons will still be essential.

The intention is that there should be no further call-up of men for National Service after the end of 1960 and that by the end of 1962 the armed forces should be composed wholly of Regulars and reduced to little more than half the present size. If, however, voluntary recruiting fails to produce the numbers required it may be necessary to have some limited form of compulsory service after 1962. During the two years ending April 1959, the male strength is being reduced from about 704,000 to about 556,000.¹ The rate of run-down in later years will depend on the international situation and the requirements of the regional defence organisations of which Britain is a member.

DEFENCE AND THE ECONOMY

After the end of the second world war the strength of the armed forces had been drastically reduced. It was not until growing world tension made it inevitable that this trend was first halted and then reversed. Following the outbreak of war in Korea in 1950, the United Kingdom embarked on a programme for building up its defence forces, at a cost estimated originally at £4,700 million over a three-year period.

Between 1950 and 1953 annual defence expenditure was nearly doubled, rising to some £1,400 million in 1952-53, and over the same period the total strength of the active forces increased from just under 700,000 to a peak of about 875,000 at the beginning of 1953. With the end of hostilities in Korea, the programme was revised to meet the changed conditions and to keep it within the limits of the country's economic resources in the face of rising costs. In place of a short rearmament spurt there was substituted the policy of the 'long haul'; the programme was slowed down and spread over a longer period.

Nevertheless, the burden on the economy continued heavy. Over the five years 1952-56, defence absorbed on average nearly 10 per cent of Britain's gross national product. In 1956, some 7 per cent of the working population was either in the Services or supporting them, and one-eighth of the output of the metal-using industries—vital to the economy as a main source of exports—was devoted to defence. The very heavy cost of maintaining large British forces abroad (which in 1956 involved expenditure of some £179 million in foreign currency) placed a severe strain on the balance of payments. The total net defence budget of nearly £1,500 million in 1956-57 (after allowing for receipts from United States aid under the Mutual Security Programme and German contributions to the cost of British forces stationed in Germany as part of the NATO forces) equalled more than one-third of total central Government current ordinary expenditure.

The effects on the economy of the new defence policy announced in 1957 were already beginning to make themselves felt in 1958. The proportion of the working population in the Services or supporting them is falling, the claims on the metal-using industries are being appreciably reduced, and the call on scientific and engineering skills is easing. Even in 1957, current expenditure on defence represented about 8 per cent of the gross national product, compared with 9 per cent in the previous year.

¹ Excluding Colonial troops and other forces enlisted overseas, amounting in 1958 to about 48,000.

Current Defence Budget

The gross estimates for 1958-59 totalled £1,465 million (as against £1,483 million for 1957-58 and about £1,600 million for 1956-57). The figure of £1,465 million for 1958-59 did not take into account receipts in respect of local costs for British forces in Germany. These costs, estimated at £47 million, were included as appropriations-in-aid.¹ Since there will be no receipts from the United States in respect of defence aid, the Estimate presented to Parliament for 1958-59 was £1,418 million.

Because of the increasing complexity of modern weapons and equipment and the higher cost per man of regular forces, future defence expenditure will not show a reduction proportionate to that in manpower.

The allocation of finance between the various Services is shown in Table 5.

TABLE 5
DEFENCE ESTIMATES, 1958-59

	£ million						Gross	After deducting
							Total	local costs in Germany
Admiralty	339.40	339.40
War Office	441.40	401.90
Air Ministry	474.55	467.05
Ministry of Supply	193.35	193.35
Ministry of Defence	16.75	16.75
							<u>1,465.45</u>	<u>1,418.45</u>

The Ministry of Defence Estimate consists mainly of contributions to international defence organisations, largely to the NATO common infrastructure programmes.²

Defence expenditure by civil Departments in 1958-59 (including loan expenditure by the Post Office) was estimated at £18.85 million.

MANPOWER

Each of the three fighting Services is at present made up of a combination of voluntary recruited regulars and men called up for National Service, and each includes a corps of women volunteers who form part of the regular forces. An analysis of the strength of the forces in April 1958, with estimates for 1959, is given in Table 6.

¹ Under an agreement announced in May 1958, the Federal German Republic is to pay £12 million annually for three years towards these costs.

² 'NATO common infrastructure' has been defined as capital investment in basic facilities, such as airfields, signals systems and headquarters, designed for common use. By March 1958, shared expenditure under the infrastructure programmes amounted to about £440 million and further programmes had been agreed for implementation by 1961 which, it was estimated, would bring the total to £928 million. The United Kingdom is contributing 12 per cent of the cost of the programmes.

TABLE 6
ACTIVE STRENGTH OF THE ARMED FORCES, 1958-59

Thousands

	1st April, 1958				1st April, 1959 (estimate)			
	Navy	Army	RAF	Total	Navy	Army	RAF	Total
Regular (male) ..	97.8	177.9	140.7	416.5	94.7	} 289.9	168.8	556.2
National Service Women (including nurses) ..	5.3	144.7	45.6	195.6	2.8			
TOTALS ..	106.6	328.4	191.0	626.0	101.0	295.3	174.0	570.3

Note: (1) Figures are rounded to the nearest 100 and therefore do not add up exactly.

(2) Figures for the Navy include the Royal Marines.

(3) The estimated strength figures of the Army and RAF at 1st April, 1959, cannot as yet be divided between Regulars and National Service men.

In addition, reserve and auxiliary forces with training liability (volunteers and part-time National Service men) totalled 617,000 at 1st April, 1958.

Arrangements for recruitment and training of regulars are summarised for each Service separately later in this chapter. An increase in regular recruiting, especially for the Army, will be necessary to achieve an all-regular footing by 1962. Pay and allowances have recently been substantially increased and other steps are being taken to improve the conditions of Service life, including a five-year Service building programme, costing £90 million.

A Regular Forces Resettlement Service has been set up by the Minister of Labour and National Service to assist Regular officers and other ranks who are being retired or discharged prematurely owing to the manpower cuts to find civilian employment on leaving the forces.

National Service

Compulsory military service in peace time was first introduced in Britain in 1939, shortly before the outbreak of the second world war. Under the National Service Acts, 1948-50, fit male British subjects between the ages of 18 and 26 ordinarily resident in Great Britain are (with certain limited exceptions) liable to serve for two years in one of the armed forces.¹ After this period of whole-time service they must serve for a period of 3½ years with one of the reserve forces, giving in all 5½ years of whole-time and part-time service. During the latter period they may be called upon to undergo up to 60 days' training in all, if required, but not more than 21 days in any year. In addition, National Service men called up before 31st December, 1953, remain statutorily liable, on completion of their 5½ years' National Service liability, to recall as reservists up to 30th June, 1959, but are not required to carry out training during this latter period of reserve liability.

¹ The upper age limit may be extended, under the National Service Act, 1955, in the case of men absent from Great Britain in the last year of their liability. The National Service Acts operate for a limited period and they do not apply to men born after 1940.

Men employed in certain occupations are granted deferment of National Service, in the national interest, for as long as they are engaged in those occupations. This provision applies to men in certain coalmining occupations, merchant seamen, sea-going fishermen who are members of the Royal Naval Reserve (Patrol Service), regular whole-time agricultural workers whose call-up would mean a loss in food production, crofters, some graduate teachers, some highly skilled scientists and engineers engaged on work of high priority or on fundamental research, some science and engineering graduates possessing higher degrees, a very small number of shale oil underground workers, and a limited number of police cadets.

Deferment for a limited period is granted to students and apprentices to enable them to undertake or complete approved courses of full-time studies or training.

Postponement of call-up may also be granted on the grounds of exceptional domestic, business or other hardship. Applications for postponement which are not granted by authorised officers of the Ministry are referred to independent local committees from whose decisions appeal may be granted to an umpire appointed by the Crown.

Men registering as conscientious objectors are subject to the decisions of local tribunals of impartial persons appointed by the Minister of Labour and National Service, with the right of appeal to an appellate tribunal.

Men called up under the National Service Acts have statutory rights to reinstatement in their former civil employment.

The Ministry of Labour and National Service calls up the men from civil life for registration and medical examination and posts them to the Services. The Army is by far the biggest user of National Service men. In 1958, nearly half the Army's active male strength was provided by National Service men as against about a quarter of the Royal Air Force and just over five per cent of the Royal Navy.

In October 1955, the Government announced its decision to reduce the size of the active forces (then nearly 800,000) by slowing down the rate of call-up for National Service and allowing the general age of call-up to rise from 18 to 19 years. It was also stated that, in general, it would not be necessary to require National Service men (who have a maximum liability for 60 days' training during their 3½ years' part-time service) to do more than 20 days' training in all. In the spring of 1957, the decision was taken to plan on the basis that the reduced manpower required under the new defence plan would be obtained by voluntary recruitment and, subject to the fulfilment of this expectation, that there would be no further call-up for National Service after the end of 1960. The last National Service men will therefore be due to complete their whole-time service by the end of 1962.

During the run-down period not all men liable for National Service will be required, and the intake will be diminished by further slowing down the rate of call-up. It is intended to rely as far as possible on men in the age groups already called up who had been granted deferment to enable them to complete training or studies; they will be called up after completing their courses and will be supplemented by younger men, mainly those not eligible for deferment. Men born after 30th September, 1939, are unlikely to be called up.

Deployment Overseas

The deployment of United Kingdom forces is world-wide, in fulfilment of responsibilities under the regional defence organisations of which the United Kingdom is a member, and for the defence of United Kingdom dependencies. A considerable part of these forces is committed to NATO on the continent of

Europe. Forces are also maintained in the Middle East, the Far East, East and North Africa, and the Caribbean.

Commissioned Ranks

The following are the main commissioned ranks in the three fighting Services; each rank is shown parallel to its equivalent in the other Services.

<i>Royal Navy</i>	<i>Army</i>	<i>Royal Air Force</i>
Admiral of the Fleet	Field-Marshal	Marshal of the RAF
Admiral	General	Air Chief Marshal
Vice-Admiral	Lieutenant-General	Air Marshal
Rear-Admiral	Major-General	Air Vice-Marshal
Commodore (1st and 2nd Class)	Brigadier	Air Commodore
Captain	Colonel	Group Captain
Commander	Lieutenant-Colonel	Wing Commander
Lieutenant-Commander	Major	Squadron Leader
Lieutenant	Captain	Flight Lieutenant
Sub-Lieutenant	Lieutenant	Flying Officer
	Second Lieutenant	Pilot Officer

Staff Colleges

Selected officers of all three Services who have had previous staff training or have been to the Royal Naval Staff College, Greenwich (London), the Army Staff College at Camberley (Surrey), or the Royal Air Force Staff Colleges at Bracknell (Berkshire) and Andover (Hampshire) go to the Joint Services Staff College at Chesham (Buckinghamshire), where they live and work together and where particular attention is paid to the inter-Service aspects of staff work. This College caters for about 150 students a year from the Navy, Army and Air Force, the Civil Service, and other Commonwealth countries. Finally, there is the Imperial Defence College in London, to which are sent a few specially selected and more senior officers from the Services, the Civil Service, and from other Commonwealth countries.

SUPPLY OF WEAPONS AND EQUIPMENT

The Ministry of Supply is responsible for the procurement of all weapons and equipment used by the Army and Air Force. It is also responsible for the procurement for the Royal Navy of aircraft, some guns and ammunition, guided weapons and a certain amount of miscellaneous equipment. The Admiralty is responsible for the procurement of ships and associated equipment.

Production and Research

Production for the Services is carried out to a great extent by private industry on a contract basis, but also by the Royal Ordnance Factories, the Royal Dockyards and other establishments operated by the Ministry of Supply and the Admiralty. The Ministry of Supply's research establishments carry out research and development on behalf of the War Office and Air Ministry, and also for certain aspects of Admiralty requirements, in particular naval aviation. Among the most important of these establishments are: the Royal Aircraft Establishment, Farnborough; the Royal Radar Establishment, Malvern; the National Gas Turbine Establishment, Farnborough; and the Guided Weapons Establishment at Aberporth, Cardigan-shire. The Admiralty has its own research establishments which carry out research

on ships and maritime equipment and also on certain kinds of electronic equipment on behalf of all three Services. Current production and development programmes are summarised later in this chapter in the sections dealing with the three Services individually.

Development and production of nuclear warheads to meet Service requirements are carried out by the Atomic Energy Authority (see the Science section of Chapter VII) under contract from the Ministry of Supply, which is responsible for the completed weapons. The Authority is also co-operating with the Admiralty in research on the development of nuclear propulsion.

Service officers attend courses at the Atomic Energy Research Establishment, Harwell, and have also been attached to industrial firms manufacturing guided weapons during the development stage.

Guided missiles are tested at the Ministry of Supply's research establishments and guided and ballistic missiles at the Woomera range set up in Australia under the Joint United Kingdom/Australia Guided Weapon Project. Service firing trials of air-to-air and surface-to-air missiles are carried out at Aberporth and at the Army gunnery range in Anglesey; a range for testing surface-to-surface missiles is being set up on South Uist in the Hebrides. There is close collaboration with the United States in the exchange of information and visits by technical personnel.

Some military equipment, including guided weapons, aircraft and radar equipment, is being supplied to Britain by the United States under the Mutual Security Programme. Part of this equipment is manufactured in the United Kingdom and financed by the United States under the 'off-shore procurement' programme. Under this programme the United Kingdom is also making equipment for other NATO countries in Europe. The total value of such contracts placed in the United Kingdom to the end of 1957 was \$640 million.

In addition to any orders for warships that may be placed from abroad with British yards, ships of the Royal Navy which have become surplus to United Kingdom requirements are made available to the Governments of other Commonwealth countries and to those of other friendly Powers.

Nuclear Weapons

During the second world war, British research workers played an essential part in the allied project that led to the production of the first atomic bombs in the United States. After the war, an Act of the United States Congress¹ prohibited the exchange of information on atomic weapons, and the United Kingdom decided to develop its own independently. The first test explosion of a British atomic weapon was carried out in 1952 in the Monte Bello Islands off the north-west coast of Australia; further tests took place a year later near the Woomera rocket range in Central Australia, and early in 1954 it was announced that delivery of atomic weapons to the armed forces had begun. Further series of tests were held in 1956 and 1957, in the Monte Bello Islands and at the weapons proving ground at Maralinga in the South Australian Desert. Britain now has a substantial and growing stockpile of kiloton² weapons.

In February 1955, the Government announced its intention to proceed with the development and production of thermonuclear weapons. The first test explosions

¹ The Atomic Energy Act, 1946 (known as the MacMahon Act), subsequently replaced by the Atomic Energy Act, 1954. Substantial relaxations were made by amending legislation passed in 1958, which permits, *inter alia*, the exchange, with friendly nations, of both nuclear and non-nuclear parts for weapons and military reactors and of information on atomic weapon development.

² A kiloton weapon is equivalent to one thousand tons or more of high explosive.

were successfully carried out in May and June 1957 near Christmas Island in the central Pacific, and further tests were carried out in the same area later in 1957 and in 1958. In March 1958, it was announced that British megaton¹ weapons were being produced and supplied to the Royal Air Force.

The chief means of delivering these weapons are at present the RAF's medium bombers of the V-class. It was stated in March 1958, that progress was being made with propelled bombs which could be released a considerable distance from the target. In February 1958, the United Kingdom and United States Governments signed an agreement for the provision of launching sites in the United Kingdom for United States *Thor* intermediate-range ballistic missiles. The weapons will be operated by RAF Bomber Command from sites in eastern England, while the nuclear warheads will be held by the United States. A British ballistic missile of a more advanced type, designed for launching from underground, is being developed in close co-operation with the United States.

THE FIGHTING SERVICES

THE ROYAL NAVY

The Royal Navy is governed by the Board of Admiralty. The First Lord of the Admiralty is the minister responsible to Parliament for the Navy. The other nine members of the Board are the First Sea Lord and Chief of Naval Staff, who is the professional head of the Service and is a member of the Chiefs of Staff Committee; the Second Sea Lord and Chief of Naval Personnel; the Third Sea Lord and Controller of the Navy, whose responsibilities include ship construction and repair, research and the provision and repair of Naval aircraft; the Fourth Sea Lord and Vice-Controller, responsible for supplies and transport, maintenance and dockyard organisation; the Deputy Chief of Naval Staff and Fifth Sea Lord, responsible for stating requirements for ships, aircraft and weapons and for laying down Admiralty policy on aircraft research and development; the Vice-Chief of Naval Staff, who assists the First Sea Lord; the Parliamentary and Financial Secretary and the Civil Lord, who assist the First Lord in his parliamentary business; and the Permanent Secretary, who is a civil servant and responsible for the general conduct of Admiralty business, including finance.

The Shape of the Fleet

When rearmament started in 1950, the Admiralty gave particular attention to the need to build up anti-submarine and minesweeping forces, and to expand the Fleet Air Arm. The building of aircraft carriers and 'Daring' class destroyers already in hand was therefore pressed forward as quickly as possible, and a large programme of modernisation and conversion of ships and a much increased building programme were started.

By the beginning of 1957, a strong force of new and modernised carriers was being built up; eight 'Daring' class destroyers (larger and more heavily armed than the older destroyers) had joined the fleet; the frigate building programme had made good progress and the minesweeper building programme was almost completed; and several new submarines were in commission, including Britain's first experimental high-speed submarine *Explorer*.

The new defence plans envisage a Navy that is smaller than in the past but highly mobile. The carrier will continue to be the core of the new Navy. Grouped round the carriers will be supporting ships carrying the latest weapons for dealing

¹ A megaton weapon is equivalent to one million tons or more of high explosive.

with air, surface and underwater attacks and capable of acting by themselves on detached service. Apart from carriers, the number of large ships will be restricted to the minimum. Existing cruisers will, in due course, be replaced by those of the 'Tiger' class, now under construction. Many ships in reserve, including battleships, are being disposed of.

The modern carriers have, or are being equipped with, the angled flight deck, the steam catapult, the automatic aircraft positioning device, and the mirror and 'Audio' landing aids (all British inventions), the new arrester gear and an advanced type of radar equipment. A new carrier, *Hermes*, is being built. Early in 1958 there were in the active Fleet three front-line carriers—*Ark Royal*, *Eagle* and *Bulwark*; a fourth, *Victorious*—one of the best equipped carriers in the world—was undergoing trials after modernisation (*Victorious* joined the Fleet towards the end of 1958); a fifth carrier, *Centaur*, was being modernised and a sixth, *Albion*, was refitting. *Bulwark* is to be converted into a Royal Marine commando carrier.

The first 'Tiger' class cruisers, with fully automatic guns and the latest control equipment, are expected to start trials early in 1959. Four new-design destroyers larger than present types are on order and will be fitted with a ship-to-air guided missile, the *Seaslug*, trial firings of which have been carried out in the experimental ship *Girdle Ness*.

Three fast long-range submarines of the 'Porpoise' class are expected to come into service during 1958-59.

One of the main purposes of the Reserve Fleet is to have ready, at short notice, ships to replace those in the Active Fleet which are damaged or withdrawn for refit or modernisation. Under the new defence policy the Reserve Fleet is to be smaller than in the past but is being maintained at a higher state of readiness.

Afloat support to the Fleet for replenishment at sea, or in harbours or anchorages, is provided by the Royal Fleet Auxiliary Service, comprising tankers, store-issuing ships, tugs and salvage vessels. These ships fly the Blue Ensign and are manned by Merchant Navy officers and seamen.

Research and Development

Much experimental work has been carried out, with the Atomic Energy Authority, on *Dreadnought*, the Navy's first nuclear-propelled submarine, for which a nuclear-propulsion unit is being obtained from the United States. Fundamental investigations are also in hand for the development of counter-measures against submarines with increased underwater speed. Research is proceeding with the aim of providing automatic means for handling tactical information in warships.

Research and development work to meet the Navy's modern requirements for weapons are being concentrated in two establishments. At Portsdown (near Portsmouth), the design and development of ship-borne gunnery and guided missile systems will be carried out. At Portland (Dorset), all aspects of work on underwater detection will be co-ordinated with work on underwater weapons.

The close relationship between the United Kingdom and the United States of America is being continued, as well as collaboration with other members of the Commonwealth. Several valuable items of new equipment have been brought into service through the United States Mutual Weapons Development Programme and certain naval projects are being discussed with countries of the Western European Union.

Naval Commands and Dockyards

The Navy's main Home commands are Portsmouth, Plymouth, The Nore, Scotland (Rosyth) and the Commander-in-Chief, Home Fleet. As one of the

steps to be taken to ensure that available resources are used to the best advantage, it was announced in February 1958 that the Nore Command (based on Chatham) would be abolished and its functions transferred to other commands by April 1961. A major reorganisation of the Navy's dispositions overseas was also announced in the same month. In the North Atlantic and Mediterranean area, where command arrangements are integrated with the North Atlantic Treaty Organisation, United Kingdom Naval forces are to be equipped predominantly for an anti-submarine role, and will consist of two aircraft carriers (with a third in reserve), two cruisers and a number of destroyers, frigates and submarines. In the Far East, the fleet (based on Singapore) will be an all-purpose force of one aircraft carrier, one commando carrier and one cruiser, together with destroyers, frigates and smaller vessels. Small Naval forces continue to operate under the Commander-in-Chief, South Atlantic and South America Station, who, when not afloat, flies his flag near Cape Town (by agreement with the South African Government); the Senior Naval Officer, West Indies Station, who flies his pennant afloat; and the Senior Naval Officer, Persian Gulf, who, on the abolition of the East Indies Command in 1958, became Naval Deputy to the Commander, British Forces, Arabian Peninsula.

Naval shore support at home and overseas is also being reorganised in line with the changes in the operational fleet. The reductions announced include the closing of H.M. Dockyards at Hong Kong, Sheerness and Portland and of five Air Stations in the United Kingdom. At home, the dockyards at Portsmouth, Devonport, Chatham and Rosyth will continue to provide the Navy with major supplies and repair facilities. Singapore, Malta and Gibraltar are the main dockyards overseas, but the level of Naval activity in Malta is likely to decline and the future of the dockyard there will be decided, in due course, after consultation with the Maltese Government.

Fleet Air Arm

The Hawker *Sea Hawk* and the de Havilland *Sea Venom* provide the day and all-weather fighter strengths of the Fleet Air Arm, but they are to be succeeded respectively by the Supermarine *Scimitar*, which can carry an atomic bomb and which is fitted, owing to its high speed, with a 'flap-blowing' system to facilitate landing on carriers, and the de Havilland *Sea Vixen*, with armament which includes an air-to-air guided weapon, the *Firestreak*.

The anti-submarine turbo-prop Fairey *Gannet* has been in service since 1954 and is due to be replaced in that role by helicopters. A new strike aircraft, the Blackburn *NA 39*, is being developed to replace the *Wyvern*; it has a greater range and speed and is able to carry an atomic bomb.

British-built helicopters, the *Whirlwind* and the *Dragonfly*, are now in service with the Fleet Air Arm. A more powerful helicopter, the *Wessex*, is under development as a replacement for the *Whirlwind*.

Royal Marines

The *Corps of Royal Marines* is a body of men trained for service on sea or land. Its official existence dates from 1664. The present-day functions of the Corps are:

- (1) to provide personnel for the Commando Brigade;
- (2) to supply detachments for H.M. ships, which (a) man a proportion of the ships' armament, (b) provide emergency landing parties, and (c) carry out guard duties and the like; and
- (3) to provide crews for minor landing craft and certain other parties required for amphibious assault.

Women's Royal Naval Service

The *Women's Royal Naval Service* (WRNS) is an integral part of the Naval Service. Its members serve both at home and overseas. It has its own disciplinary code. Nursing services for the Navy are provided by *Queen Alexandra's Royal Naval Nursing Service* and *Voluntary Aid Detachments*.

Recruitment and Training for the Regular Navy

The main entry for Naval officers is the cadet-entry. Cadetships on the General List are available to young men between the ages of approximately 17 and 19 years, and those selected, except electrical specialists, spend two years and four months at the Britannia Royal Naval College, Dartmouth, after which they join the Fleet as Acting Sub-Lieutenants. Cadets chosen for electrical specialisation spend one year at Dartmouth and then read for an appropriate degree at a university at Admiralty expense.

Short service commissions on the Supplementary List for aircrew duties with the Fleet Air Arm or in electrical specialisation are available to young men with appropriate qualifications. Doctors, dental surgeons and instructor officers all enter on short service commissions after completing their professional training, and permanent commissions are awarded to them according to the vacancies available. Ratings may qualify for a commission on the General List, on the Supplementary List for aircrew duties, and on the Special Duties List which has replaced the Branch List.

Commissions in the Royal Marines are gained through the same examination as are cadetships in the Royal Navy, and successful candidates are given a special training, part naval and part military, which lasts three years.

The age limits for entry as a rating in the Navy are as follows: seaman, engineering mechanic, electrical mechanic and Naval air mechanic branches, 15 to 28 years; communications, Naval airman and supply and secretariat branches, 16½ to 28; artificer apprentices, 15 to 17; sick berth branch, 17½ to 28; artificers (trained), 19½ to 28 years. The initial engagement is for a period of 9 years over the age of 18 except for artificer apprentices, for whom it is 12 years over the age of 18. Age limits for entry into the ranks of the Royal Marines are: marines, 17 to 28 years; junior entry (general service duties), 16 to 17; boy buglers, 15 to 16½; junior musicians, 14 to 17½; musicians (trained), 17 to 28 years. Women may enter the Women's Royal Naval Service (WRNS) between the ages of 17½ and 28 years for an initial period of 4 years; most WRNS officers are selected from serving ratings.

On entry, all Naval and WRNS ratings and Royal Marines other ranks are given a basic training at the appropriate school or shore establishment and are given 'refresher' courses at regular intervals during their time in the Service.

Reserve and Auxiliary Forces

A unified naval volunteer reserve is being established by combining, under the title of the *Royal Naval Reserve* (RNR), the former Royal Naval Reserve, consisting of officers of the Merchant Navy and members of the Fishing Fleet who volunteer to serve in the Royal Navy in war, and the former Royal Naval Volunteer Reserve, whose members voluntarily undertake part-time training for various aspects of Naval service. Other reserves include the *Royal Fleet Reserve* (RFR), composed of men who have completed their service as Regulars; the *Royal Naval Special Reserve* (RNSR), which includes most of the National Service men who are discharging their liability for part-time service; the *Royal Marine Forces Volunteer Reserve* (RMFVR); and the *Women's Royal Naval Volunteer Reserve* (WRNVR). Behind these fully trained reserves, available to meet immediate needs on mobilisation, is

the vast background of officers and men with past war-time and peace-time service in the Royal Navy who are liable, if still fit for service, to recall in the event of war.

Royal Naval Minewatching Service

The Minewatching Service, a civilian organisation composed of men and women volunteers, is responsible in time of war for manning posts around the coast and overlooking the main navigable waterways. Its object would be to spot mines dropped from aircraft, and to plot and report their positions.

Sea Cadet Corps

The *Sea Cadet Corps*, which is administered by the Navy League in conjunction with the Admiralty, is the oldest pre-Service movement for boys in Britain; its origin dates from the time of the Crimean War in the mid-nineteenth century. Its aim is to give technical training to, and instil Naval tradition in, boys under the age of 18 who intend to serve in the Royal and Merchant Navies and also to those sea-minded boys who do not intend to follow a sea career but will, given this knowledge, form a valuable reserve for the Navy. It also aims to provide for the social and educational welfare of the cadets and to develop character and good citizenship.

THE ARMY

The control of the Army is vested in the Army Council, of which the Secretary of State for War is president. The other civilian members of the Council are the Parliamentary Under-Secretary of State for War and Financial Secretary of the War Office (who is a Minister), and the Permanent Under-Secretary of State for War, a civil servant who acts as secretary to the Council. The military members of the Army Council comprise the Chief of the Imperial General Staff; the Vice-Chief of the Imperial General Staff, who is responsible for strategic policy and plans, operations and intelligence; the Deputy Chief of the Imperial General Staff, responsible for war organisation, equipment, weapons and training; the Adjutant-General to the Forces, responsible for manpower, personnel, discipline, medical services, welfare, education, and the women's services; and the Quartermaster-General to the Forces, responsible for supplies, transport and, jointly with the Permanent Under-Secretary, works services.

Organisation of the Active Army

The active Army is organised in 29¹ arms and services, which include the Household Cavalry, the Royal Horse Artillery, the Royal Armoured Corps (the historic Cavalry Regiments and the Royal Tank Regiment), the Royal Regiment of Artillery, the Corps of Royal Engineers, the Royal Corps of Signals (which provides land and wireless communications), the five regiments of Foot Guards (the Brigade of Guards), the regiments of the Infantry of the Line (grouped into brigades and the Parachute Regiment), the Army Air Corps (which operates light aircraft on reconnaissance and undertakes aerial observation and liaison work), the Royal Army Service Corps (responsible for the provision of food and fuel supplies and transport vehicles), the Royal Army Medical Corps, the Royal Army Ordnance Corps (responsible for most equipment and stores), and the Royal Electrical and Mechanical Engineers.

The Women's Royal Army Corps (formerly ATS) and the Queen Alexandra's Royal Army Nursing Corps (formerly QAIMNS) are both corps of the Regular

¹ These arms and services include the women's corps.

Army, their officers and other ranks being subject to military law and the Queen's Regulations in the same way as members of the other corps.

Within the United Kingdom, the Army is organised into Scottish, Northern, Southern, Eastern, and Western Commands, London District, and Northern Ireland District. There are four main commands overseas: Middle East Land Forces, East Africa Command, Far East Land Forces, and the British Army of the Rhine (which forms part of Britain's contribution to the NATO forces).

In July 1957, plans were announced for reducing the Royal Armoured Corps, the Royal Artillery, the Royal Engineers and the infantry by a total of 51 regiments or battalions; 30 of these reductions will have been made by April 1959. Corresponding reductions are being made in supporting and administrative units.

Following extensive trials carried out in the British Army of the Rhine, Army field formations are being reorganised on the basis of flexible, self-contained infantry and armoured brigade groups, able to fight, to move and to maintain themselves under minimum direction from headquarters.

As the strengths of overseas garrisons are reduced, increased importance is being attached to a central strategic reserve, based mainly in the United Kingdom, which is being reconstituted on a brigade group basis.

Equipment

By the end of the five-year programme initiated in 1957, the weapons of the 1939-45 war will have almost completely disappeared and the Army will be completely rearmed. With the development of nuclear weapons, attention is being given to the need to increase mobility without loss of fighting capacity and, in the interests of economy, the aim is to simplify the Army's equipment as much as possible and 'to produce a family of weapons with no overlapping members'.

The programme of rearmament launched in 1950 concentrated at first on the production of tanks and other armoured vehicles, infantry weapons, and modernised engineering and signal equipment. The Army was equipped with a complete new range of wheeled vehicles and with large numbers of the *Centurion* medium tank, which proved outstandingly successful during the Korean war. More recently, production was begun of a heavy gun tank, the *Conqueror*, and by 1957 it had undergone Service trials.

Among other current plans, a proportion of the Army is being equipped with the British version of the FN self-loading rifle, a weapon of Belgian origin adopted by the United Kingdom in the interests of standardisation with other NATO forces; the L.2 sub-machine gun, which is being produced in quantity, has virtually taken the place of the Sten, and a replacement for the Vickers medium machine gun is being developed; an improved anti-tank gun is being issued, and an anti-tank guided weapon is being developed; while a powerful armoured car, the *Saladin*, a personnel carrier, the *Saracen*, a versatile scout car, the *Ferret*, and a new mark of the *Centurion* tank are in various stages of production. A new range of radio equipment, giving a performance greatly superior to previous systems, is being brought into service.

Progress is being made in the introduction of surface-to-surface guided weapons, the first of which are being supplied by the United States. The first guided weapon course was started at the Royal Military College of Science in Berkshire as early as 1950. In 1955, groups of Army instructors began to receive training in the United States in the use of the *Corporal* guided missile; training in Britain is now given at the School of Artillery at Larkhill. Two artillery regiments are being equipped with the *Corporal*, and both units will join the British Army of the Rhine on completion of their training. To provide anti-aircraft protection for troops in the field,

surface-to-air guided missiles are being developed, and the English Electric *Thunderbird*, which can deal with targets at a wide range of altitudes, is being made available for training during 1958-59.

Recruitment and Training for the Regular Army

The normal method of entry for a regular commission in the Army is through the Royal Military Academy, Sandhurst (Camberley, Surrey), where selected cadets undergo a course lasting two years before receiving their commissions. This course gives a general military and academic background for all arms and services, and young officers on leaving Sandhurst then attend special Arm Courses to prepare them for their own arm, some attending technical courses at the Royal Military College of Science (Shrivenham, Berkshire) and at Cambridge University. Cadets may enter Sandhurst direct from school or after they have enlisted in the Army or been called up for National Service.

The War Office also maintains a boarding school known as Welbeck College, at Worksop, Nottinghamshire, where 150 boys are educated for two years between the ages of 16 and 18 years. These boys pass into the Royal Corps of Signals, Royal Army Ordnance Corps or the Royal Electrical and Mechanical Engineers. A few may be commissioned into the Royal Engineers.

University graduates may be accepted for direct regular commissions.

A small number of schoolboys are selected to take engineering or science degrees at the Royal Military College of Science as National Service officers and thereafter to be granted regular commissions. Regular commissions may also be granted to other officers already serving on National Service commissions or on short service commissions. Candidates for National Service commissions are trained at the Officer Cadet School, Mons Barracks, Aldershot. At this school the course, which consists of purely military training, lasts for four months.

Men wishing to enlist in the ranks must be British subjects between the ages of 17½ and 30 years, of good character, medically fit and able to pass an intelligence test. Men with certain trade qualifications may be accepted up to the age of 33 years.

Men can sign on for 22 years (with the option of finishing their Colour Service at the end of six years or at the end of any consecutive period of three years thereafter, provided they give six months' notice in writing).

Men may choose the corps in which they wish to serve and their wishes regarding trade training are met as far as possible.

On entry into the Army, other ranks are trained at the depots or with the training units of the arms or services for which they have been selected. This initial training consists of six weeks' basic military training common to all arms and services, and a further period of training which is special to the arm or service concerned. This latter training varies in length of time, e.g., infantry, four weeks; Royal Signals electronic technician, 22 weeks.

A boy can enlist in the Army as an Army apprentice tradesman, between the ages of 15 and 17; a junior leader, between the ages of 15 and 16½; and a drummer band boy, piper or tailor, between the ages of 15 and 17½ years.

After the age of 18 years, Army apprentice tradesmen serve nine years with the Colours and three years in the Reserve. Boys enlisted for training with junior leader units may serve either for nine years with the Colours and three years in the Reserve, or six years with the Colours and six years in the Reserve. The object of the junior leaders' units is to produce long-term Regular warrant officers and senior non-commissioned officers, and that of the apprentice schools is to produce



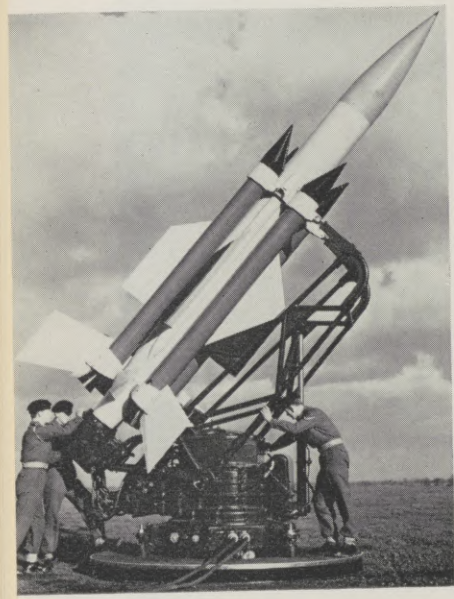
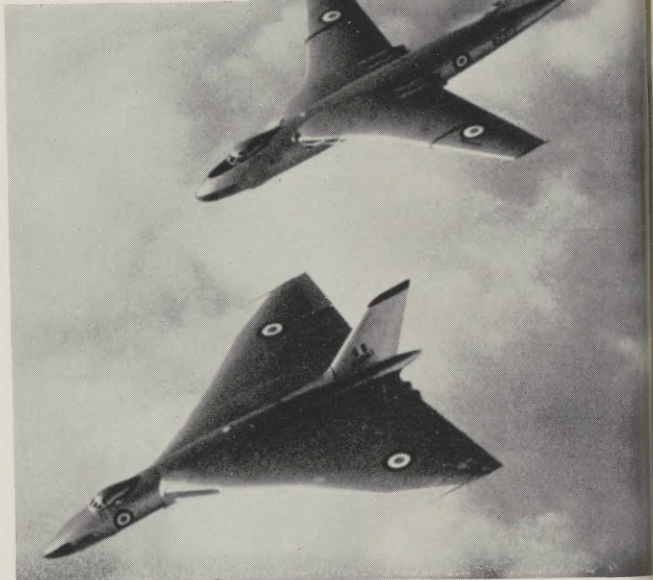
The London Fire Brigade fighting a fire in Oxford Street. Every area in Britain is covered by a public fire brigade; in cities, one or more appliances arrive within five minutes of a call.

The London County Council in session.





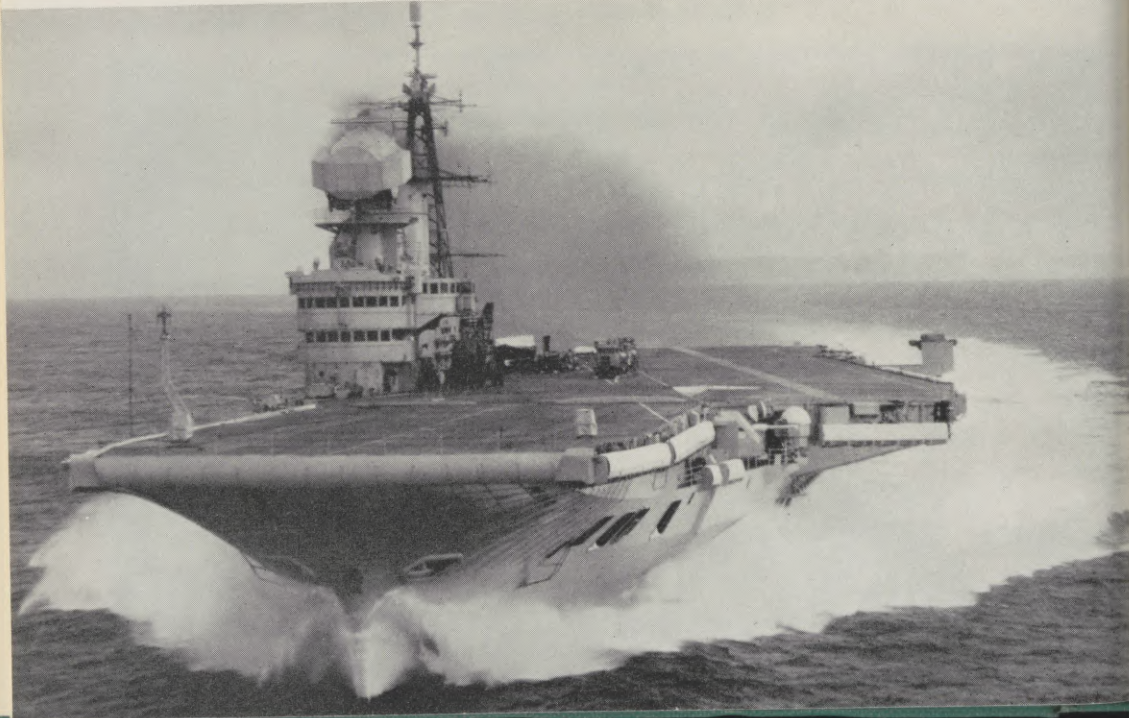
The Vickers Supermarine *Scimitar* swept-wing naval fighter.



The English Electric *Thunderbird* surface-to-air guided weapon.

The Vickers *Vulcan*, *Valiant* and *Victor* bombers form the spearhead of Britain's strategic bomber force.

The aircraft carrier H.M.S. *Victorious* rejoined the Fleet in 1958 after being completely modernised.



warrant officer and non-commissioned officer tradesmen for the Regular Army, some of whom may become specialist commissioned officers.

Women may enlist into the Queen Alexandra's Royal Army Nursing Corps or into the Women's Royal Army Corps between the ages of 17½ and 33 years.

The Reserve Army

With a smaller Regular Army, the Reserve Army, consisting of the Army Emergency Reserve and the Territorial Army, will have an increasingly important part to play.

The *Territorial Army* consists of volunteer officers and other ranks (including women), National Service officers and men carrying out their statutory obligation of three and a half years' part-time service after completing their whole-time service with the Army, and the Territorial Army Reserve of Officers. With the end of National Service it will become a wholly volunteer force. Its main role in the event of war would be the defence of the United Kingdom, but some units might be needed overseas and all its members are liable for service in any part of the world when the army reserve is called out by proclamation. Volunteers are required to attend annual camp and to carry out a minimum number of training periods. While the military authorities are responsible for policy, training and discipline, local administration of the Territorial Army is carried out largely by county Territorial and Auxiliary Forces Associations.

The *Army Emergency Reserve* has as its main function to provide essential communications and the technical and administrative services required on mobilisation by both the Regular and the Territorial Armies. It consists of specialist units and pools of skilled men—both volunteers and part-time National Service men—who can be called upon at short notice to fill gaps in Regular units. It also provides units of the Mobile Defence Corps for civil defence tasks.

Cadet Forces

The *Combined Cadet Force* and the *Army Cadet Force* provide training on Service lines for boys between the ages of 14 and 18 years. The Combined Cadet Force provides training in schools in which education is continued to the age of 17 years or above. Cadets receive a general basic training and then specialised training in the Royal Navy, Army or Royal Air Force Sections. Contingents are affiliated to Regular units and establishments of the Services. The Army Cadet Force is recruited from schools which do not raise contingents of the Combined Cadet Force, and from boys who have left school.

THE ROYAL AIR FORCE

The Royal Air Force is administered by the Air Council, composed of the Secretary of State for Air, who is president, and seven other members. The Parliamentary Under-Secretary for Air is vice-president and the Permanent Under-Secretary of State for Air, who is a civil servant, is secretary of the Council. The Service members are the Chief of the Air Staff, who is responsible for strategic policy and the fighting efficiency of the RAF; the Vice-Chief of the Air Staff, responsible for inter-Service policy, operations, intelligence, liaison with other air forces, standardisation and ground defence; the Deputy Chief of the Air Staff, responsible for the preparedness for war of the RAF, for command, staff and air training, and for policy regarding future aircraft and weapons; the Air Member for Personnel; and the Air Member for Supply and Organisation.

Commands

The Royal Air Force is organised into commands administered by the Air Council:

- At Home: Bomber, Fighter, Coastal, Transport, Flying Training, Technical Training, Maintenance and Home Commands.
- Overseas: Second Tactical Air Force (stationed in Germany as part of Britain's contribution to the NATO forces), the Middle East Air Force (headquarters in Cyprus), Aden Command,¹ and the Far East Air Force (headquarters at Changi, Singapore).

Aircraft and Equipment

The spearhead of the RAF is the force of four-engined jet bombers, which is building up steadily. At present, the majority of squadrons are equipped with *Valiants*, but the proportion of *Vulcans* and *Victors*, with greater performance, is rising. Stocks of nuclear weapons are increasing together with Bomber Command's ability to carry them. Improved marks of the V-bombers, now on order, will carry a powered guided bomb and will form for many years the foundation of Britain's deterrent power, though ballistic missiles will gradually play an increasing part.

The light bomber force in Bomber Command is equipped with the *Canberra* twin-engined jet bomber, which is being fitted to carry nuclear weapons. This force is committed to NATO.

Surface-to-air guided weapons are being introduced, but manned fighters will continue in service for some years to come. The *Javelin* all-weather fighter is now well established in Fighter Command and day-fighter squadrons are being equipped with the latest mark of *Hunter*. The *Lightning* (P.1), the RAF's first supersonic fighter, is in production. The aircraft is being fitted with an electronic computer to aid bomber interception.

Air defences are being recast in order to concentrate on the defence of nuclear bases. In 1957, a new organisation was set up in the Air Ministry to co-ordinate and speed up the introduction of defensive guided missiles and their associated radar, and to integrate them with the existing control and reporting and fighter defence systems.

The system of control and reporting, which has been built into a highly efficient organisation, is closely linked with the radar systems of Continental allies. Great advances in the development of radar have been made in recent years. A reconstructed radar chain now covers the whole of the United Kingdom. The high performance of the latest system makes it possible to have greatly improved cover with a smaller number of stations.

Full-scale service trials of the RAF's first air-to-air guided missile, *Fireflash*, began in 1957 with *Swift* aircraft, for experimental work and training purposes. A more advanced missile, the *Firestreak* (also to be used by the Fleet Air Arm), will be fitted to Mark 7 *Javelins* during 1958-59 and will be an integral part of the *Lightning* weapon system.

The development of surface-to-air guided weapons is well advanced. The first RAF missile station, at North Coates, Lincolnshire, was brought into use for service trials and training in May 1958. Initially it will be equipped for the operation of surface-to-air missiles of the semi-active homing type known as *Bloodhound*. The RAF is co-operating with the Army in operational trials of the *Thunderbird*. More advanced types are being developed.

¹ The Air Officer Commanding, Aden, is commander of all United Kingdom land and air forces in the Arabian Peninsula, Persian Gulf and British Somaliland, and of Naval forces allotted to the Persian Gulf.

Coastal Command's long-range maritime reconnaissance force, which is committed to NATO, is wholly equipped with *Shackleton* aircraft. An improved version—the *Shackleton* Mark 3—is being introduced.

Transport Command is being re-equipped to provide increased mobility for the strategic reserves of both land and air forces. A *Comet 2* squadron was formed in 1956—the first all-jet transport squadron in any air force—and has proved very successful. *Britannia* aircraft are on order and when in service will provide long-range transport; for short and medium ranges, use will still be made of piston-engined *Hastings*. The *Beverley* freighter, now in service, is a versatile aircraft which can lift large loads.

Increasing use is being made of helicopters for operations and for the Search and Rescue Organisation of Coastal Command. The *Sycamore* and *Whirlwind* helicopters have given good service, particularly in Malaya, and the Bristol 192 twin-engined helicopter is on order.

Following a decision to base initial flying training on jet aircraft, an order was placed for the *Jet Provost* trainer and, in July 1958, for a training version of the *Lightning*. The RAF is the first air force to adopt all-jet training.

In recent years there has been a great deal of airfield development in the United Kingdom to provide for the operation of the V-bombers and the new fighters, and a major programme of airfields, depots and technical facilities has also been carried out for units of the United States Air Force stationed in Britain.

Recruitment and Training for the Regular Air Force

It is the aim of the Air Council that all pilots, navigators and air electronics officers shall enjoy commissioned status. Appointment to a permanent commission in the General Duties Branch may be obtained either through a cadetship at the Royal Air Force College, Cranwell, Lincolnshire (pilots and navigators only), or by entry as a university graduate under special conditions. The majority, however, enter on short-term commissions or under the direct commission scheme which offers the choice of serving for eight or twelve years on the active list and going out with a gratuity, or of staying in the Service to qualify for pension. Except for those entering through Cranwell, where the course lasts three years, flying training takes about 18 months for pilots and one year for navigators and air electronics officers.

Officers in ground branches are usually found from people in civil life, some of whom already hold professional qualifications, who enter the Royal Air Force on short service commissions. Short service officers may be selected for permanent commissions while in the Royal Air Force.

Permanent commissions may also be obtained through cadetships at the Royal Air Force Technical College, Henlow, Bedfordshire (Technical Branch), the RAF College, Cranwell (Secretarial and Equipment Branches), or the Royal Military Academy, Sandhurst (RAF Regiment). University graduates are also eligible for permanent commissions under special conditions. Some technical cadets proceed after one year at Henlow to a three-year degree course at a university.

Women's Royal Air Force

Women play an important part in the work of the Royal Air Force and of its reserve and auxiliary formations. The WRAF is an integral part of the Royal Air Force and its members train with and work alongside airmen in the same trades, serving both in the United Kingdom and overseas. Nursing services are provided by *Princess Mary's Royal Air Force Nursing Service*.

Auxiliary and Reserve Forces

The *Royal Auxiliary Air Force* consists of fighter control units raised and maintained by Territorial and Auxiliary Forces Associations.

The *Royal Air Force Volunteer Reserve*, which is part of the Royal Air Force Reserve, provides a pool of officers, airmen and airwomen mainly with previous Air Force service, who, like the personnel of the Royal Auxiliary Air Force, train on a part-time basis. It includes members of the university air squadrons.

Part-time National Service men serve in Class H of the Royal Air Force Reserve or they may volunteer to join the Volunteer Reserve or the Royal Auxiliary Air Force.

Royal Observer Corps

Over 15,000 men and women from all walks of life form the *Royal Observer Corps*, a predominantly voluntary civilian organisation, administered by Fighter Command, and devoted to the specialised tasks of identifying and reporting the movements of aircraft, and of measuring and reporting on radioactivity in the event of nuclear attack. The Corps originated in the first world war to report the movements of German aircraft and zeppelins over Britain and was officially established in 1925.

Air Training Corps

The *Air Training Corps* provides pre-Service training for boys between the ages of 14 and 18 years. Like the other pre-Service formations, it seeks to inculcate citizenship as well as training for the RAF.

HOME DEFENCE

The experience of the second world war showed the importance of having trained and organised bodies of men and women ready to mitigate the effects of enemy air attacks on the civil population; and the Civil Defence Act, 1948, recognised that a permanent system of civil defence was essential to national safety. The development of nuclear weapons, while it has greatly intensified the problems of civil defence and has called for much replanning which is still in process, has not lessened the need for an efficient civil defence organisation. Civil defence, in the words of the 1958 White Paper on Defence, 'remains an integral part of the defence plan'.

In the event of nuclear attack, the problems of rescue, fire-fighting and welfare operations would be greatly intensified by the presence of radioactivity, which would have to be detected and its extent and intensity measured. The first call would have to be met by the civilian services on the spot, and these would be supported by the armed forces in the country at the time, whether regular or reserve, which were not immediately required for combat operations. The Minister of Defence is charged with planning the part which the armed forces would play in home defence, and with co-ordinating the plans of the military authorities with those of the civil authorities.

The country's economic capacity limits the effort which can be devoted to home defence preparations; and the main defence objective must be to maintain the nuclear deterrent, i.e. not to prepare for war but to prevent it. In home defence the main task in peace time is to keep a local organisation in being as a framework for expansion if necessary, to provide training equipment and to proceed with essential research. The Government has declared its conviction that, if the deterrent were to fail, countless lives could be saved by civil defence preparations made in advance.

Organisation of Civil Defence

Civil defence planning in the United Kingdom is the responsibility of a number of ministers each of whom undertakes the duties which, in war time, would represent a natural extension of his peace-time functions. As the development of effective civil defence services involves much detailed planning at local level, the central Government has enlisted the assistance of local government authorities, of industry and commerce and of public bodies of many kinds, including voluntary organisations such as the Voluntary Aid Societies and the Women's Voluntary Services.

In addition to his direct responsibilities under the Civil Defence Act, 1948, the Home Secretary is responsible for co-ordinating the defence plans of all the civil agencies of the Government. The Secretary of State for Scotland is responsible for civil defence matters in Scotland.

In England and Wales, the Home Secretary supervises the civil defence activities of the police and fire services, and he administers the Civil Defence Corps and the Industrial Civil Defence Service as well as such matters as shelter policy and the national air-raid and fall-out warning and monitoring systems. The Civil Defence Department of the Home Office is under the charge of a Director-General of Civil Defence, appointed by the Home Secretary. Other Government Departments have direct responsibility for the civil defence applications of the services which they control; for example, the Ministry of Health is responsible for the hospital and first-aid services, and the Post Office for telecommunications.

In Scotland, the Scottish Home Department deals with questions corresponding to those dealt with by the Home Office in England and Wales, and the Department of Health for Scotland is responsible for such matters as the hospital and first-aid services.

In Northern Ireland, the Civil Defence Act (Northern Ireland), 1950, places responsibility for civil defence matters on the Ministry of Home Affairs, which may arrange for other Departments to undertake some functions on its behalf.

The co-ordination of civil defence planning in Great Britain necessarily involves much work by interdepartmental committees, on which all Departments with civil defence responsibilities in Great Britain are represented, in order that plans and programmes may be constantly reviewed to take account of changes in the scale and nature of possible attacks.

England is divided into ten Civil Defence Regions in charge of Regional Directors of Civil Defence, appointed by the Home Office, and there is also a Director of Civil Defence for Wales. Their duties include liaison with the armed forces and the planning of combined exercises. There is no corresponding regional organisation in Scotland, where planning is carried out centrally, although the country is divided into zones for operational purposes.

The Civil Defence Services

To provide the personnel required in war for civil defence tasks, the following services, in which in times of peace only part-time service is required, are raised in Great Britain¹ by voluntary recruitment of civilians, both men and women:

1. The Civil Defence Corps, which was created by the Secretary of State's Warrant in May 1949, to assist local and other authorities to carry out their civil defence functions.

¹ In Northern Ireland there are three main services: the Civil Defence Corps, the Auxiliary Fire and Rescue Service, and the Hospital Service Reserve.

2. The Industrial Civil Defence Service, which comprises civil defence units formed in industrial and commercial premises.
3. The Auxiliary Fire Service, to reinforce the fire services maintained by local authorities under the Fire Services Act, 1947. (The Fire Service would become a national organisation in time of war.)
4. The National Hospital Service Reserve, limited at present to trained nurses and persons willing to be trained as nursing auxiliaries to reinforce the National Hospital Service in England and Wales. In Scotland, there is also an Ambulance Section of the Reserve to provide the additional manpower for the war-time operation of the Scottish Ambulance Service.

Subject to restrictions regarding age and obligation to serve in the armed forces, recruits for all services are drawn from men and women who are willing to serve as long as they are able and who will undertake to train regularly. The Government does not pay the volunteers for their services but reasonable out-of-pocket expenses are reimbursed.

Strengths in Great Britain at 31st March, 1958, were:

Civil Defence Corps	359,405
Industrial Civil Defence Service (at 31st October, 1957)		209,323
Auxiliary Fire Service	19,879
National Hospital Service Reserve	53,490

The Civil Defence Corps. This Corps is recruited and organised by certain local authorities (mainly the councils of counties and county boroughs in England and Wales, or large burghs in Scotland) in local divisions. The local divisions are subdivided into five sections¹ as follows:

Headquarters:	control of civil defence operations, communications, reconnaissance (including the identification of toxic agents).
Wardens:	public guidance and control, reporting of damage and radio-active fall-out, organisation of immediate self-help measures, and the local control of life-saving operations.
Rescue:	rescue of trapped persons and rendering first aid to them.
Ambulance and Casualty Collecting:	first aid, conveyance of casualties to hospital, and the organisation of stretcher-bearers.
Welfare:	escort and welfare of homeless and evacuees, assistance with billeting, rest centres, supervision and welfare of the public in shelters, emergency cooking and feeding, public information centres.

The Industrial Civil Defence Service. The Government has invited the managements of the larger industrial and commercial undertakings to form civil defence units for the protection of their own personnel and to give such assistance as they are able to the public civil defence services. The Government's aim is to have an

¹ Four in Scotland, where there is no separate Ambulance and Casualty Collecting section, ambulance services being provided by the National Hospital Service Reserve, and casualty collecting being a warden duty. In Northern Ireland, the Civil Defence Corps, which is organised directly by the Ministry of Home Affairs and not by the local authorities, consists of three sections only—Headquarters, Wardens and Welfare; the Ambulance Service forms part of the Hospital Service, and the Rescue Section has been integrated with the Auxiliary Fire Service to form the Auxiliary Fire and Rescue Service.

efficient civil defence unit in all premises where more than 200 people work. Units formed under these arrangements comprise sections similar to those of the Civil Defence Corps; they train in the same way as the Corps and in war would operate in close association with it and with the other public civil defence services.

Training

Members of the Civil Defence Corps are required to undertake the training necessary to enable them to carry out the duties of an ordinary member of the section of the Corps to which they belong, and thereafter to undertake a few hours' refresher training, including exercises, each year. If they wish to increase their knowledge they may undertake courses of additional and advanced training.

Civil defence instructors (except instructors in first aid) are trained either at one of the three central training schools or locally, under arrangements made by local authorities, in accordance with directions given by the Home Office or the Scottish Home Department. Courses and studies for senior officials concerned with civil defence are held at the Civil Defence Staff College at Sunningdale, Berkshire, and in Scotland, at Taymouth Castle, Perthshire.

Auxiliary firemen are trained in fire-fighting by firemen of the regular brigades of local authorities. They are encouraged to gain practical experience of fire-fighting by performing stand-by duty at fire stations to enable them to respond, with regular members of the brigade, to calls to fires. Auxiliary firemen also attend exercises involving the control of large numbers of pumping and other appliances used in fire-fighting operations.

The Police

In time of war the police would continue to be responsible for the maintenance of law and order and the control of traffic, and they would also be responsible for certain additional war-time and civil defence tasks. In all these duties they would have the aid of the Special Constabulary.

Role of the Armed Forces

The Services have a vital role to play in civil defence; all armed forces, whether regular or reserve, in the country at the outbreak of war who are not engaged in active operations against the enemy will have to be prepared to assist in the struggle for survival. The armed forces are in no sense a substitute for civil administration; the aim will be to support the civil authorities by all possible means. All units of the Regular and Reserve Armies are trained in peace time for the civil defence tasks they may be expected to perform in war. In addition, some 25,000 men of the Royal Air Force have been trained in emergency fire-fighting operations at Home Office training centres to enable them to serve as firemen in a National Fire Service.

The United Kingdom Commanders-in-Chief Committee, under the chairmanship of the Commander-in-Chief United Kingdom Land Forces, is responsible to the Chiefs of Staff for co-ordinating Service plans for home defence, including Service assistance to civil authorities for both civil defence and national recovery. While fulfilling those functions the Committee maintains close liaison with the Director-General of Civil Defence.

There is also close liaison in peace time between the civil and military authorities at all levels. Joint exercises are continually being held and everything possible is being done to align the civil and military chains of command. As a result, the functions which the military authorities could undertake in support of the civil authorities have been more clearly defined: there is also a growing understanding among the civil authorities of the part that the military authorities can best play.

There are two main ways in which the fighting Services can render assistance: by helping the civil authorities to maintain control; and by the direct employment of units on various tasks such as aid to the police in the maintenance of law and order and traffic control, aid to the fire service, assistance in the reception and care of the homeless, treatment and evacuation of casualties and in the clearance of radioactive fall-out zones, the provision of guards, the maintenance of road, rail and water communications, light rescue, reconnaissance and the provision and running of camps.

IV. SOCIAL WELFARE

STATE AND VOLUNTARY SERVICES

In Britain the State is now responsible, through either central or local government authorities, for a range of services covering subsistence for the needy, education and health services for all, housing, employment or maintenance, the care of aged or handicapped persons, the care of children, the nutrition of mothers and children, and sickness, maternity and industrial injury benefits, widow's and retirement pensions and family allowances. Public authorities in the United Kingdom are spending over £3,000 million a year on social services; that is over £50 a year a head of the population.

Voluntary organisations, especially the Churches, were the pioneers of nearly all the social services. They provided schools, hospitals, clinics, dispensaries, and social and recreational clubs before these were provided by the State. They made themselves responsible for the welfare of the very young and the very old, the homeless and the handicapped, before it was generally accepted that the whole community had a responsibility towards these people. Where the services and the facilities they provided were adequate, they have been encouraged to continue. The State now supplements these voluntary services and provides financial assistance, sees that essential services are brought within the reach of every citizen, and ensures that the necessary standards are maintained.

Many voluntary social services surround and supplement the State services. The two types are complementary, not competitive, and they merge into each other. The State services often work through voluntary agencies specially adapted to serve individual or special needs. The welfare work of the National Assistance Board is supplemented by the work of many voluntary social service societies with whose workers the Board's officers co-operate, while the institutional provision made by the State and by local authorities for the care of the chronic sick and the aged is supplemented by voluntary homes of various types for the care of the sick and elderly, most of whom receive State pensions or benefits.

Voluntary Bodies

The number of voluntary charitable societies and institutions in Britain runs into thousands. Some of them are large and some are small and local in character. Some have general aims and others, such as the Royal National Institute for the Blind, have been established for a particular purpose. The societies co-operate with each other and with local authorities engaged on the same work.

Foremost among societies providing general social service are the National Council of Social Service, with the Scottish Council of Social Service and the Northern Ireland Council of Social Service, and the Family Welfare Association. The National Council of Social Service was established in 1919, and the corresponding Scottish Council in 1943, to create a closer link between the machinery of government and the voluntary activities of the ordinary citizen. The Family Welfare Association, formerly the Charity Organisation Society, which was founded in 1869, works on personal lines to help any individual or family in need or difficulty. It works mainly in London, but there are some 180 voluntary family case-work agencies serving other areas of Britain.

There is a Central Council for the Care of Cripples, and the major societies caring for homeless children are represented on the National Council of Associated Children's Homes. Other examples of co-ordination in a specialised field are the National Association for Mental Health, the Women's Group on Public Welfare and the National Marriage Guidance Council.

Societies working on a national scale whose social work is definitely religious in inspiration include the Salvation Army, the Church Army, the Social Service of the Church of Scotland, the Church of England Children's Society, the Church of England Moral Welfare Council, the Young Men's Christian Association, the Young Women's Christian Association, the Society of St. Vincent de Paul, the Crusade of Rescue, the Jewish Board of Guardians and the Catholic Marriage Advisory Council.

War-time organisations such as the Women's Voluntary Services (WVS) and the Citizens' Advice Bureaux continue, with official support, to do very valuable work. The Citizens' Advice Bureaux (there are still over 400 of these) act as interpreters between the Government Departments and the ordinary citizen. WVS activities are many and various. They include welfare work for children, the aged and the sick, and for certain foreign workers, as well as relief work in emergencies.

The old-established British Red Cross Society not only aids the sick and wounded in time of war but works in peace time for 'the improvement of health, the prevention of disease, and the mitigation of suffering'. It is, in particular, developing its welfare services for civilian disabled, invalid and crippled children and the aged. The members of the St. John Ambulance Brigade and, in Scotland, the St. Andrew's Ambulance Association likewise render voluntary auxiliary medical services and undertake welfare work for the sick and the infirm.

The Social Worker

While the voluntary worker giving full-time or part-time service has done pioneer work in many of Britain's social services and continues to play an essential part in probably every service, social services of all kinds increasingly depend for their operation primarily on the professional social worker, that is the full-time salaried worker trained in the principles and technique of social service. Training for many forms of social work consists of a basic university diploma or certificate course in social science followed by a specialised training for a particular service. The latter is usually organised by the profession concerned. An attempt is being made to lessen specialisation in social work.

Voluntary organisations were the pioneers in the employment and training of social workers, but Government Departments and local authorities now employ a considerable number of trained social workers of various kinds. Such workers include regional and local welfare officers; children's care organisers; children's officers, child care officers and homes' residential staff for work under the Children Act, 1948; neighbourhood workers; youth leaders; almoners; mental health workers; psychiatric social workers; tuberculosis care workers; housing managers; personnel managers and probation officers—in fact, representatives of most branches of social work. In June 1955 the Minister of Health and the Secretary of State for Scotland set up a working party to examine the field of work, recruitment and training of social workers in the local authorities' health and welfare services.

NATIONAL INSURANCE AND RELATED SERVICES

National Insurance, Industrial Injuries Insurance, Family Allowances and National Assistance together constitute a system of social security in the United Kingdom which ensures that in no circumstances need anyone fall below a minimum

standard of living. The Ministry of Pensions and National Insurance administers the first three of these measures in Great Britain; in Northern Ireland they are administered by the Ministry of Labour and National Insurance.

National Assistance is administered by the National Assistance Board in Great Britain, and in Northern Ireland by the National Assistance Board for Northern Ireland. Pensions and welfare services for war pensioners and their dependants are the responsibility of the Ministry of Pensions and National Insurance throughout the United Kingdom.

Appeals relating to claims for insurance benefits or war pensions, or applications for assistance, are not decided by the Ministry or the Board but by independent authorities appointed under the Acts.

The Poor Relief Act of 1601 can be regarded as the starting-point of public provision for social security in England and Wales. From the beginning of the present century, and particularly after the Royal Commission on the Poor Laws and Relief of Distress had issued its report, with the influential Minority Report, in 1909, a strong movement arose against the form and spirit of the poor law as it had been administered under the Poor Law Amendment Act of 1834. The first departure from the poor law as the sole means of relief given from public funds had been the introduction in 1908 of non-contributory old age pensions granted on a test of means. Other changes followed, the broad effect of which was gradually to transfer more and more of the old poor law functions from local to central government administration, and the process was completed in 1948 with the passing of the National Assistance Act. In the same period there was a development of compulsory insurance administered on a national basis. The Workmen's Compensation Act of 1897 foreshadowed the present National Insurance Industrial Injuries scheme; although the system it introduced was not itself a State-administered insurance scheme, it required employers to pay compensation to workers for accidents at work. In 1912 came the National Health Insurance scheme and with it the introduction of the contributory principle on which all later measures have been based. In return for a small weekly contribution it provided a small cash payment and medical treatment without charge during sickness. It applied only to a limited number of the lower-paid workers. In 1912 also a limited scheme of unemployment insurance was started. This was extended in 1920 to cover the great majority of employed persons, a very necessary provision in view of the large-scale unemployment of the inter-war years. In 1926 contributory pensions for old people, widows and orphans were introduced.

By the beginning of the second world war the social services in Britain were among the best in the world, but they lacked co-ordination by the very fact of their piecemeal development, and they were not universal.

Under the stimulus of war, when plans for post-war reconstruction were being formulated, Lord (then Sir William) Beveridge was invited by the National Coalition Government to investigate the country's existing social insurance system. In 1942 the Beveridge Report was published; it recommended the creation of a comprehensive and unified system of social insurance. The report aroused intense interest and was accepted in general by the Government as the basis on which the future social security structure should be built.

In the immediate post-war years a series of Acts introduced a new comprehensive system which became fully operative on 5th July, 1948. Adjustments have been made by a number of subsequent Acts.

Reciprocity

The national insurance, industrial injuries and family allowances schemes of Great Britain and those of Northern Ireland and the Isle of Man operate as a single

system. Reciprocal agreements on family allowances are in operation with Australia, New Zealand, Jersey and Guernsey, and there are further agreements with Australia and New Zealand (on sickness, unemployment and widow's benefits, and retirement pensions), with Jersey (on sickness, industrial injuries and widow's benefits, guardian's allowances and retirement pensions), with the Irish Republic (on sickness, unemployment, maternity and widow's benefits, and the insurance of seamen), with Cyprus (on sickness, unemployment and widow's benefits, maternity grants, guardian's allowances, retirement pensions and death grants), and with Malta (on sickness, industrial injuries, unemployment and widow's benefits, guardian's allowances and retirement pensions). Agreements covering various aspects of social security have been in operation with France since November 1949, with Italy since May 1953, with Switzerland since June 1954, with Luxembourg since April 1955 and with the Netherlands since June 1955. Agreements with Sweden and Israel came into operation in June and November 1957 respectively, and with Norway, Belgium and Yugoslavia in April, June and September 1958. An agreement with the German Federal Republic was signed in December 1956. An agreement with Denmark on industrial injuries benefits has been in operation since May 1954. Similar agreements with other countries are under negotiation. The schemes in Northern Ireland are similarly linked with most of the countries mentioned.

A multilateral agreement on social security, signed by the five Brussels Treaty Powers, was ratified by the United Kingdom in May 1950 and is in operation between the United Kingdom, France, Belgium, the Netherlands and Luxembourg. Other multilateral provisions, embodied in two interim agreements on social security signed by the member countries of the Council of Europe and in a United Nations Convention on the status of refugees, have also been ratified by the United Kingdom.

FAMILY ALLOWANCES

Family allowances have been provided by the State since August 1946, under the Family Allowances Act of June 1945. Some five and a quarter million allowances are being paid in Great Britain to over three and a quarter million families with two or more children. An allowance is paid for each child other than the first or only child below the age limits. The age limits are 15 years for children who leave school at that age, 16 years for those who are handicapped, and 18 years for those who remain at school or are apprentices. The allowance was raised from 5s. to 8s. a week in September 1952 and, by the Family Allowances and National Insurance Act, 1956, for the third and each subsequent child in a family the rate was increased by 2s. to 10s. as from October 1956.

Family allowances are paid from the Exchequer and their object is to benefit the family as a whole; they belong to the mother, but may be paid either to the mother or the father. There is no insurance qualification, and parents who are not British subjects may claim allowances if they satisfy a special residence qualification.

The corresponding scheme in Northern Ireland makes similar provision for family allowances.

NATIONAL INSURANCE

The National Insurance Act, 1946, came into full operation on the 5th July, 1948. It has been amended by the National Insurance Acts, 1949 and 1951, the Family Allowances and National Insurance Acts, 1952 and 1956, and the National Insurance Acts, 1953, 1954, 1955, 1956 and 1957. The Acts apply, in general, to everyone over school-leaving age living in Great Britain. There are similar schemes in Northern Ireland and the Isle of Man.

Contributors are divided into three classes:

Class 1—Employed persons. Those who work for an employer under a contract of service or are paid apprentices—about 22 million.

Class 2—Self-employed persons. Those in business on their own account and others who are working for gain but do not work under the control of an employer—nearly 1½ million.

Class 3—Non-employed persons. All persons insured who are not in Class 1 or 2—about half a million.

This general classification is subject to certain modifications, made by regulations, to meet special circumstances. Married women engaged only in their own household duties are, in general, provided for by their husbands' insurance and cannot become insured in their own right unless they were insured under the old scheme on the 5th July, 1948, and continued to pay contributions as non-employed persons, or unless they have since taken up paid work. Employed married women may choose whether to pay separate contributions themselves or to rely on the cover provided by their husbands' contributions. Students receiving full-time education and unpaid apprentices need not pay contributions. Up to the age of 18, contributions are credited to them. Over that age they may, if they wish, pay as non-employed persons (Class 3). Self-employed and non-employed persons whose income is not more than £156 a year can apply for exception from liability to pay contributions under the scheme.

Contributions

The main weekly rates of contribution as in September 1958 are shown in Table 7. The Exchequer supplements these contributions from general taxation. They

TABLE 7
WEEKLY NATIONAL INSURANCE AND NATIONAL HEALTH SERVICE CONTRIBUTIONS
As at September 1958

	MEN(a)			WOMEN(a)		
	National Insurance (b)	Health Service	Totals	National Insurance (b)	Health Service	Totals
CLASS 1	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
Employed persons:						
Paid by employee ..	8 0½	1 10½	9 11	6 7½	1 4½	8 0
Paid by employer ..	7 9½	5½	8 3	6 3½	5½	6 9
TOTALS ..	15 10	2 4	18 2	12 11	1 10	14 9
CLASS 2						
Self-employed persons	9 10	2 2	12 0	8 4	1 8	10 0
CLASS 3						
Non-employed persons	7 5	2 2	9 7	5 11	1 8	7 7

(a) Boys and girls under 18 contribute at lower rates.

(b) Including, for Class 1, the Industrial Injuries Insurance contribution of 8d. from employee and 9d. from employer for a man, and 5d. from employee and 6d. from employer for a woman.

are normally paid on a single contribution card by National Insurance stamps bought from a post office. It is the employer's responsibility in the first place to see that the Class 1 contributions are paid, but he can deduct the employee's share from his or her wages. The self-employed and non-employed must stamp their own cards. Contributions are usually credited for weeks of unemployment, sickness or injury, or if widow's benefit is being paid.

An insured person ceases to be liable for National Insurance contributions when he retires, or is deemed to have retired, from regular employment. If such a person does any work as an employed person thereafter, he must pay an Industrial Injuries contribution; his employer's liability remains the same as shown in Table 7.

Benefits

The scheme provides sickness, unemployment, maternity and widow's benefit, guardian's allowance, retirement pension and death grant. Persons in Class 1 are covered for all benefits; those in Class 2 for benefits other than unemployment and industrial injuries benefits; and those in Class 3 for benefits other than sickness, unemployment and industrial injuries benefits, and maternity allowance.

For most of the benefits there are two contribution conditions. First, before any benefit can be paid, a minimum number of contributions must actually have been paid since entry into insurance; secondly, the full rate of benefit cannot be paid unless a certain number of contributions have been paid or credited over a specified period. For guardian's allowance and industrial injuries benefits there are no contribution conditions.

Rates of benefit have been increased since the scheme began. The rates current in mid-1958 are set out below.

Sickness Benefit

The standard weekly rate of sickness benefit for a man or woman over 18 (except a married woman) is 50s., with an increase of 30s. for an adult dependant and 15s. a week for the first or only child under the family allowances age limits, with 7s., in addition to any family allowance payable, for each subsequent child. The weekly rate for a married woman is 34s., but she is paid at the 50s. rate if she is maintaining an invalid husband or is separated from her husband and cannot get financial support from him.

Unless 156 Class 1 or Class 2 contributions have been paid since the entry into insurance, sickness benefit can be drawn only for a year, but in general it continues for as long as sickness lasts, once 156 contributions have been paid.

Unemployment Benefit

The rates of unemployment benefit are the same as for sickness benefit. Unemployment benefit is payable in the first place for 30 weeks, but it may be continued for up to a maximum of 19 months in all, according to the person's record of contributions paid as against unemployment benefit drawn in recent years.

Maternity Benefit

A maternity grant of £12 10s. is payable for a confinement, provided the required contribution conditions have been satisfied, and a further grant of £12 10s. for each additional child born at the confinement who is alive twelve hours after birth. A home confinement grant of £5 is payable where the mother is not confined in free accommodation under the National Health Service or in accommodation otherwise paid for out of public funds. A maternity allowance of 50s. a week, beginning the eleventh week before the expected week of confinement, payable for

18 weeks, is available for working women who satisfy the contribution conditions. These are that in the 52 weeks ending 13 weeks before the expected week of her confinement, the claimant must have paid 26 contributions at the full rate as an employed or self-employed person and, for an allowance at the maximum rate, have a total of at least 50 contributions paid or credited. Increases of maternity allowance for dependants are payable in certain circumstances at the same rates as increases of sickness benefit.

Widow's Benefit

There are three kinds of widow's benefit, paid only on the deceased husband's insurance. A Widow's Allowance of 70s. a week plus 20s. a week for the first or only child under the age limits and 12s. a week for second and subsequent children (in addition to family allowances) is paid for 13 weeks. A Widowed Mother's Allowance of 70s. a week is paid following widow's allowance to a widow who has a child who qualifies under the age limits; she also receives 12s. a week, in addition to any family allowance, for each child after the first. A widowed mother's allowance at the lower rate of 50s. a week may be paid to a widow who has residing with her a person under 18 who, but for age or because of absence abroad when the husband died, would have qualified as a child for this purpose (for example, a son or daughter aged 17 who is neither at school nor an apprentice and, therefore, is not within the family allowances' age limits). A Widow's Pension of 50s. a week is paid to a widow who is 50 or over at the time of the husband's death and has been married three years, or who is 50 (40 if the husband died before 4th February, 1957) or over when her widowed mother's allowance ends, provided three years have elapsed since the marriage. Widowed mother's allowance and widow's pension are reduced by 6d. for each complete 1s. of the first 20s. of earnings in excess of 60s. and 50s. respectively, and by 1s. for each shilling of higher earnings. In the case of widowed mother's allowance the total deducted in any one week cannot exceed 50s., whatever the earnings may be.

There are special rules to help widows to qualify for sickness or unemployment benefit if they are unable to obtain work when widow's allowance or widowed mother's allowance ends.

Guardian's Allowance

A Guardian's Allowance of 27s. 6d. a week may be paid to a person who has in his family a child whose parents (or step-parents) have died and one of whom was insured under the National Insurance Acts. This continues while the child remains in the guardian's family and is a child within the meaning of the Family Allowances Act.

Retirement Pension

Retirement pensions are paid to men at the age of 65, and to women at the age of 60, provided the required contribution conditions have been satisfied and subject to retirement from regular employment. From the age of 70 (men) and 65 (women), however, the pension is payable whether or not the claimant has retired. The standard rate is 50s. a week. A married woman ordinarily qualifies for pension on her husband's insurance at the standard rate of 30s. a week. If after retirement a pensioner below the age of 70 (65 for a woman) earns over £2 10s. a week, 6d. is deducted from the pension for each 1s. earned over that amount up to £3 10s. and 1s. is deducted for each shilling earned over £3 10s.

Men and women are encouraged not to retire at minimum pension age and are able to earn a larger retirement pension by continuing at work and paying contributions. For every 25 contributions they pay for weeks of work between the ages of

65 and 70 (men) or 60 and 65 (women) their pension is increased by 1s. 6d. a week. The pension of the wife of such a contributor is increased by 1s. a week for every 25 contributions paid by the husband after he has reached the age of 65 and the wife has reached 60, and it continues at this rate up to the time of the contributor's death; if his wife survives him her increments of pension are re-calculated at the 1s. 6d. rate if the 1s. increases were earned after 16th July, 1951. A man now reaching the age of 65 who continues at work for a further five years can therefore receive a pension of as much as 65s. a week on attaining the age of 70. If he has a wife not more than five years younger than himself, their combined pensions can be 105s. a week; if the wife survives her husband her pension can be 65s. a week.

A retirement pensioner is entitled to an increase of 30s. a week for his wife if she is under 60 and also to an increase of 15s. for the first child under the family allowances' age limits, and 7s. for each succeeding child, in addition to any family allowance payable.

Death Grant

A Death Grant of up to £25 is paid on the death of an adult, and a smaller sum on the death of a child, provided the required contribution conditions have been satisfied. Grants are not paid for persons who were already over pension age on 5th July, 1948. Reduced grants are paid on the deaths of men who were over 55 years of age and women who were over 50 on 5th July, 1948.

NATIONAL INSURANCE (INDUSTRIAL INJURIES)

The Industrial Injuries Insurance scheme, which replaced the Workmen's Compensation scheme in July 1948, provides benefits for personal injuries caused by accidents arising out of, and in the course of, employment, and for prescribed diseases due to the nature of employment. It covers practically everyone in Class 1 of the National Insurance scheme and certain others. The relevant Acts are the National Insurance (Industrial Injuries) Acts, 1946 to 1957. Cover against industrial injuries and diseases in Northern Ireland is provided to the same extent by the separate legislation of the Parliament of Northern Ireland.

Benefits

Injury Benefit

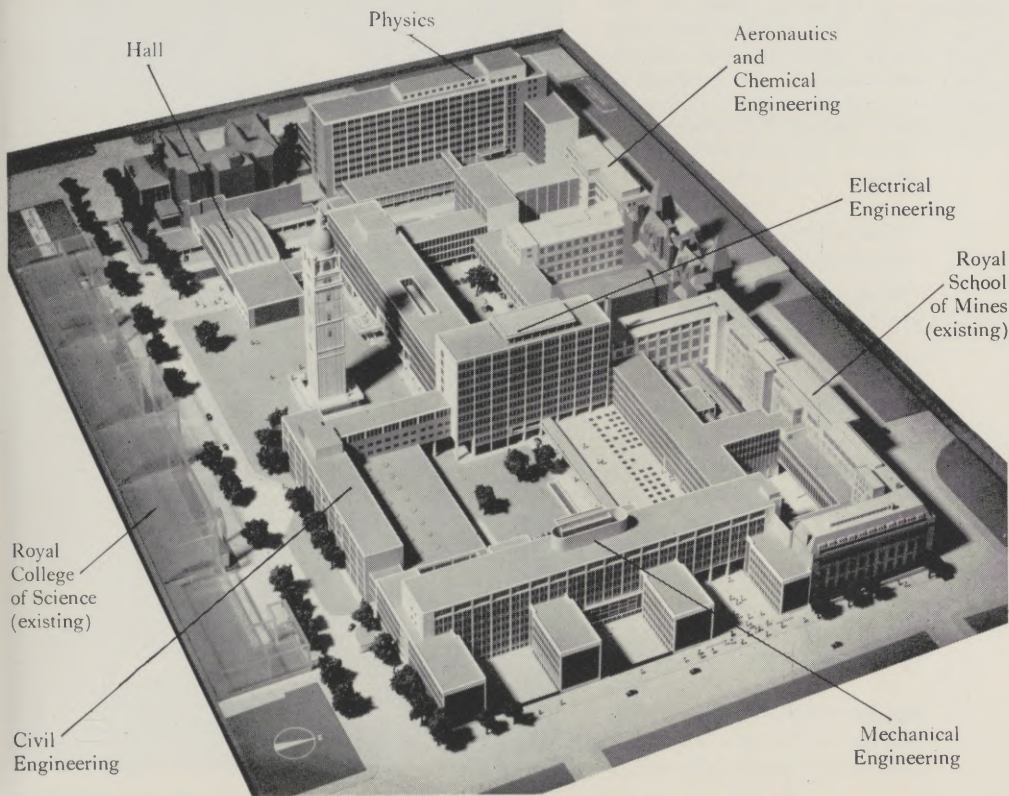
Injury Benefit for an adult is 85s. a week plus 30s. for an adult dependant and 15s. for the first or only child under the family allowances age limits and 7s. for each other eligible child, in addition to any family allowance payable. It is paid when the insured person is incapable of work as a result of an industrial accident or disease, and payment can continue for a maximum of 26 weeks from the date of the accident or development of the disease.

Disablement Benefit

Disablement Benefit may be paid when injury benefit stops and the amount depends on the extent of the disablement, as assessed by a medical board. It varies from 85s. for 100 per cent disablement to 17s. a week for 20 per cent disablement. For disablement of less than 20 per cent a gratuity is normally paid, ranging up to £280.

In the following circumstances Disablement Benefit may be increased:

1. It will be made up to the 100 per cent rate during in-patient treatment in a hospital for the relevant injury or disease, and increases for dependants may also be paid.



Model of the extensions to the Imperial College of Science and Technology, University of London. These are part of a large programme of university building for science and technology (see p. 160).



Boys entered for the Duke of Edinburgh's Award (see p. 167) with Sir John Hunt, leader of the successful Everest Expedition and secretary of the scheme.

Majestas, or Christ in Glory, by Sir Jacob Epstein. The 16-foot aluminium figure and the organ case and arch on which it is mounted were designed as part of the restoration after war damage of Llandaff Cathedral, South Wales.



The new high altar in the restored east end of St. Paul's Cathedral, London, is a memorial to the overseas members of the Commonwealth and Empire who gave their lives in the two world wars.

2. If benefit is being received at the 100 per cent rate and someone is needed to look after the insured person, a constant attendance allowance not exceeding 35s. a week (70s. in cases of exceptionally severe disablement) may be paid.
3. If the insured person is permanently unfit for work an unemployability supplement of 50s. a week may be paid, with allowances for dependants.
4. If the insured person is unfit to return to his former job, or work of a similar standard, benefit may be increased (subject to a maximum of 85s.) by a special hardship allowance of up to 34s. a week.

Death Benefit

If the accident or disease results in the insured person's death, Death Benefit is paid to the dependants.

For widows living with their husbands at the time of death, a pension of 70s. a week is payable for the first thirteen weeks of widowhood. Thereafter, if the widow (1) is entitled to a child's allowance or was over the age of 40 on ceasing to be so entitled, or (2) was over 50, or was permanently incapable of self-support, at the time of her husband's death, or (3) is not entitled to child's allowance, but has residing with her a young person under the age of 18 who was in her late husband's family, or (4) is over 40 when (3) ceases to apply, or (5) is pregnant by her late husband, she is entitled to a pension of 56s. a week. If none of these conditions is satisfied, the widow may receive a pension of 20s. a week.

In addition, allowances will be paid for children under the family allowances age limits. For widows, these allowances are normally at the rate of 20s. a week for the first or only child and 12s. a week for each other child. For other beneficiaries, the rate is 15s. and 7s. a week respectively.

Certain other dependants, such as parents and other relatives, are entitled to pensions, allowances or gratuities. The amounts vary with the closeness of the relationship and the extent to which the dependants were maintained by the deceased during his lifetime.

NATIONAL ASSISTANCE AND WELFARE SERVICES

The National Assistance Act, 1948, came into operation on 5th July, 1948. It provides a unified State service of financial assistance for those in need, replacing the various services of this kind provided in the past by the State and local authorities. As the residual service, National Assistance meets the financial needs of all those people who are unable to maintain themselves and who fall outside the scope of the other social security services, and supplements the insurance benefits when they are insufficient.

The National Assistance Board is responsible for administering these weekly cash grants. It has various other duties, including the administration of non-contributory pensions under the Old Age Pensions Act, 1936 (still payable on a nationality, means and residence test to a diminishing number of persons over 70 and blind persons over 40, who do not receive pensions under the contributory scheme); the administration of hostels provided under the Polish Resettlement Act, 1947; and the assessment under the Legal Aid and Advice Act, 1949, and the Legal Aid and Solicitors (Scotland) Act, 1949, of the maximum amount a person applying for legal aid may be called upon to pay towards the cost of the action.¹

The Board is responsible for influencing 'persons without a settled way of living' to lead a more normal life. It provides temporary accommodation for such persons.

¹ For further information on legal aid see pp. 86-88.

usually through the agency of local authorities, and it runs a residential re-establishment centre for men of this type or men who have been long unemployed and in receipt of National Assistance grants.

The provision under the National Assistance Act of residential accommodation for the aged, infirm and others, and of special welfare services for the blind, the deaf, the crippled and other handicapped persons is the responsibility not of the National Assistance Board but of county and county borough councils in England and Wales and, in Scotland, of councils of counties and large burghs.

In Northern Ireland, financial assistance is given under the provisions of the National Assistance Act (Northern Ireland), 1948, to persons in need and there is also a system of non-contributory pensions similar to that in operation in Great Britain. Under the Welfare Services Act (Northern Ireland), 1949, local authorities, in their capacity as welfare authorities, provide residential accommodation for aged, infirm and other persons who are in need of care and attention. The welfare authorities also provide special services for the blind, deaf and other handicapped persons.

Old People's Welfare

The newer homes provided by local authorities for aged or other infirm persons usually have accommodation for 25 to 40 residents; over a thousand have been opened in Great Britain since the end of the second world war. County welfare authorities in Northern Ireland have provided over 20 similar homes. These smaller homes are gradually replacing the larger institutions which were previously maintained by local authorities.

Voluntary bodies take a large share in work for old people, which has been steadily expanding since the second world war brought into prominence the problems of old people's welfare that social and population changes had already begun to accentuate. Voluntary homes for old people now number about 1,800 and some 7,000 social clubs for elderly people have been started in recent years in all parts of Britain. The regular visiting of lonely old people and the delivery of cooked meals to their homes ('meals-on-wheels') are other welfare services that are being developed by voluntary effort with the support of local authorities. Their object is to enable old people to continue to live in their own homes wherever possible. Domestic help and home nursing are provided in the National Health Service (see p. 147).

Local Old People's Welfare Committees are formed by those concerned in this work, and are aided by the National Old People's Welfare Council, an associated group of the National Council of Social Service widely representative of voluntary and statutory bodies having direct contact with old people, or by the Scottish Old People's Welfare Committee, a committee of the Scottish Council of Social Service. A National Corporation for the Care of Old People was established in 1947 by the Nuffield Foundation to stimulate and to give financial support to schemes for the welfare of the aged, to maintain an expert technical advisory service, and to encourage and to undertake research and experiment for the welfare of old people. The Corporation is now concentrating its main effort on home services for old people. The King George VI Foundation has allocated £440,000 from the King George VI Memorial Fund to schemes for the benefit of old people.

CARE OF CHILDREN

The Children Act, 1948, which came into force with the ending of the Poor Law, places upon local authorities in Great Britain a duty to 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 temporarily or permanently. Local authorities must keep a child in care until he is 18 years of age or until he no longer requires it. Under the Children and Young Persons Acts, 1933-52, as regards England and Wales, and under the Children and Young Persons (Scotland) Act, 1937, local authorities are required also to accept children committed to their care, until the age of 18, by Juvenile Courts, as needing care or protection. Both categories of children are to be treated so as to further their best interests and to afford them opportunity for the proper development of their characters and interests.

Children in care are, if possible, to be boarded out with foster parents, who receive an allowance to cover the cost of maintenance. If a foster home cannot be found, a child may be placed in a children's home managed by a local authority or a voluntary organisation. Many children's homes are now provided in small houses, on housing estates or in ordinary streets, where a group of ten or fewer children live in the care of a housemother or houseparents, the husband following his normal employment. Other children may be placed in hostels or lodgings or in other accommodation specially suited to their needs. The desirability of returning a child to his family circle as soon as possible is fully appreciated, and work is carried out to rehabilitate the family where this is necessary.

To carry out their functions under the Children Act each local authority (county council and county borough council or, in Scotland, council of a large burgh) is required to appoint a Children's Committee and a Children's Officer to be responsible for the care and upbringing of children in the authority's care. Children's officers are assisted by a staff of child care officers who undertake inquiries and who supervise children placed in foster homes. Regulations for England and Wales safeguarding the boarding out of children by local authorities and voluntary organisations and the conduct of children's homes have been made by the Home Secretary. The Secretary of State for Scotland is the responsible Minister in Scotland.

In Northern Ireland, the Children and Young Persons Act (Northern Ireland), 1950, gave to the welfare authorities of each county and county borough the duty of caring for homeless and neglected children under the general direction of the Ministry of Home Affairs.

Voluntary organisations, many of which were pioneers in the work of child care, continue to play a valuable part. The larger societies, such as Dr. Barnardo's, the Church of England Children's Society and the Catholic Child Welfare Council, are constituent societies of the National Council of Associated Children's Homes, to which a large number of smaller voluntary homes are also affiliated. In Scotland, a valuable contribution is also made by the Children's Homes and Hostels under the auspices of the Church of Scotland Committee on Social Service, and by other voluntary organisations, including the Orphans' Homes of Scotland.

Children's homes provided by voluntary organisations are required to be registered under the Children Act. The boarding out of children and all children's homes, whether local authority or voluntary homes, are subject to inspection by Inspectors of the Home Office Children's Department or of the Scottish Home Department.

The cost of the local authorities' child care service, including the provision of training for houseparents and child care officers, is shared between the local authorities and the Exchequer.

The practice of adoption, for which legal provision was first made in England and Wales in 1926 and in Scotland in 1930, has considerably increased during the last twenty years. It is now regulated by the Adoption Act, 1950, as amended by the Children Act, 1958.

To safeguard the welfare of children living with their own parents or guardians, the children's departments have a duty to cause inquiries to be made in any case in which it is reported that a child may need care or protection. In addition, all local authorities have been asked by the Government Departments concerned to appoint a committee to co-ordinate local authority and voluntary services dealing with unsatisfactory families, and to designate one of their officers as co-ordinating officer for the purpose of calling meetings of interested bodies to discuss particular 'problem families' and to decide on a course of action. Local health authorities have wide powers under the National Health Service Act to make arrangements for the prevention of illness, and for care and after-care; these arrangements enable preventive and remedial measures to be taken to safeguard the physical and mental health of the children of problem families. These problem families, a very small minority in the community, are the focus of much attention from health, housing, education, children's and welfare authorities and voluntary bodies. The voluntary Family Service Units undertake intensive and prolonged casework with such families and there are several voluntary recuperative centres to which mothers, with their children, can be sent for a period of residential training, sometimes as a condition of a probation order. The old-established National Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children and its Scottish counterpart maintain inspectors and visitors for the investigation of cases of reported cruelty or neglect of children in their own homes; when necessary they resort to law for the protection of children, but they prefer to achieve their purpose by warning and advice.

WAR PENSIONS AND RELATED SERVICES

Pensions to persons disabled or bereaved through the wars are paid under Royal Warrants and other instruments.

The current basic pension for 100 per cent disablement for a private soldier is 85s. a week, but the amount varies according to rank and the degree of disablement. The latter is assessed by comparing the disabled person with a normal healthy person of the same age and sex, without taking earning capacity into account. Allowances for a wife and children are paid in addition to the basic pension and there are various supplementary allowances, the main ones being for unemployability (55s. a week), constant attendance (up to 35s. and, exceptionally, 70s. a week), comforts (10s. or 20s. a week), and lowered standard of occupation (up to 34s. a week). There is an allowance (at rates varying between 5s. and 15s. a week) for persons drawing disablement pensions who are aged 65 or over and whose assessment is 40 per cent or more.

Both the basic disablement pension and the supplementary payments are free of income tax, and children's allowances are paid in addition to any allowance payable under the Family Allowances Acts.

War pensioners have priority (except over more urgent cases) for treatment of their war disabilities in National Health Service hospitals.

Pensions are paid to war orphans and to war widows. The standard rate of pension for war widows of private soldiers is 66s. a week, an addition being made for higher rank, and they also receive allowances for their children (25s. for each child), and, in certain cases, an allowance for rent (up to 25s. a week). Parents or other relatives who were dependent on a person whose death resulted from the wars may receive pensions if they are in pecuniary need.

The Ministry of Pensions and National Insurance maintains a welfare service for war pensioners, with a special branch for war orphans.

Many ex-Service organisations, e.g., the British Legion, and other voluntary associations give financial aid and personal service to disabled ex-servicemen and women and their families. The Ministry and these bodies work in co-operation.

HEALTH

The concern of the State with the nation's health is chiefly a development of the last 100 years. The second half of the nineteenth century saw the growth of the environmental or public health services, such as provision of pure water, sewerage, disposal of refuse and cleaning of streets, and also building byelaws and other measures designed to promote healthy living conditions in Britain. Local authorities provided smallpox and other infectious-disease hospitals and poor law infirmaries in the nineteenth century, but the major hospital and medical services remained in the hands of voluntary hospitals and private practitioners until the twentieth century. This century has seen the main development of publicly provided personal health services, as distinct from environmental services. The medical benefit introduced under the National Insurance Act of 1911 was the first step in the provision of a State-aided general practitioner service outside the Poor Law. The early years of the century were notable for the development of maternity and child welfare and measures for the prevention and treatment of tuberculosis; there was progressive development in the hospital services provided by local authorities until these were absorbed in the National Health Service created in 1948.

Over the past forty years advances have been made in many directions: medical research, discovery of important new drugs, blood transfusion, control and treatment of venereal disease, and research into diet. The second world war served to emphasise the importance of a sound diet and as a result the Welfare Foods Service for expectant and nursing mothers and young children was introduced, and the School Meals Service and industrial canteens were expanded. War also stimulated developments in industrial health services and in the rehabilitation of the disabled. Scientific discoveries and improved services are reflected in declining mortality rates and improved physique.

PUBLIC HEALTH

The Public Health Act of 1936 brought up to date and consolidated preceding Acts; it constitutes the present basic public health code in England and Wales. Local authorities are mainly responsible for its implementation and they have extensive powers for the making and administration of byelaws (laws of local application) relating to matters of public health. The local authorities chiefly concerned are the councils of county and non-county boroughs, urban and rural district councils, and, to a limited extent, parish councils. Local authorities also have power to secure clean air by establishing smoke control areas (see the Fuel and Power section of Chapter IX).

The development of the public health services in Scotland and in Northern Ireland has been largely on the same lines as in England and Wales, although these services have been based on separate Acts, and different authorities are responsible for the various services. The Public Health (Scotland) Act, 1897, and the Burgh Police (Scotland) Act, 1892, constitute the basic legislation for Scotland. The local authorities concerned are the councils of counties and burghs. In Northern Ireland, the county and county borough councils are mainly responsible for administering the Public Health Acts (Northern Ireland), 1878-1949.

Control of Infectious Diseases

Local authorities are responsible to the Minister of Health (or the Secretary of State for Scotland) for recording notifications of the prescribed infectious diseases; they are also responsible for the investigation by the Medical Officer of Health of outbreaks of infectious diseases, and for disinfection and other measures advised by the Medical Officer of Health for prevention of the spread of infectious diseases in the area.

The same Ministers have the general responsibility for supervising the operation of health control at seaports and airports, the primary object of which is to prevent the introduction of infectious disease into the country. It is operated at the principal seaports by Port Health Authorities specially constituted for the purpose, and at others by the local authorities. Health control at airports is operated by the local authorities. At seaports, the work is carried out by the Port Medical Officer assisted by Port Health Inspectors, rodent officers and others; at airports, the Airport Medical Officer is responsible.

Pure Food

The purity, hygiene and description of food are controlled by legislation now consolidated for England and Wales in the Food and Drugs Act, 1955, and for Scotland in the Food and Drugs (Scotland) Act, 1956. In England and Wales, the Act, and regulations made under it are, in general, carried out and enforced by Food and Drugs Authorities (i.e. county councils, county borough councils and, generally, the larger borough and urban district councils) in relation to composition, adulteration and description, and by local authorities (i.e. county borough, borough, urban district and rural district councils) in relation to purity and hygiene; the Ministry of Health and the Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food are the central Departments responsible for advising and for making regulations under the Act. Premises where food for sale for human consumption is prepared, sold or stored are required to conform to certain hygienic standards. Authorised officers of food and drugs authorities and of local authorities are empowered to take samples of any food for sale for human consumption, for analysis or for bacteriological or other examination. Special regulations are in force for certain foods such as milk, meat and ice-cream.

In Scotland, the local authorities chiefly concerned are the councils of counties and large burghs; the central Department is the Department of Health for Scotland.

THE NATIONAL HEALTH SERVICE

The National Health Service was established in 1948. The relevant Acts, the National Health Service Act, 1946, the National Health Service (Scotland) Act, 1947, and the Health Services Act (Northern Ireland), 1948, came into force simultaneously on 5th July, 1948.

The National Health Service Act, 1946, aims 'to promote the establishment in England and Wales of a comprehensive health service designed to secure improvement in the physical and mental health of the people of England and Wales and the prevention, diagnosis and treatment of illness, and for that purpose to provide or secure the effective provision of services'. The National Health Service (Amendment) Act, 1949, and the National Health Service Acts, 1951 and 1952, make some modifications in the scheme for Great Britain and provide for charges to be made for certain parts of the Service, which is otherwise available free of charge to all according to medical need, without regard to any insurance qualification.

Health Service Administration in Great Britain

In England and Wales the Minister of Health has direct responsibility for (1) the provision on a national basis of all hospital and specialist services, (2) the mental health functions previously in the hands of the Board of Control, except for the quasi-judicial functions of the Board designed to safeguard the liberty of the patient,¹ (3) the conduct of research work into matters relating to the causation, prevention, diagnosis or treatment of illness or mental defect, (4) a public health laboratory service, and (5) a blood transfusion service. He has indirect responsibility for the general practitioner services and local health authority services. He is advised by the Central Health Services Council and by standing advisory committees on various aspects of the Service.

The hospital and specialist services are administered through Regional Hospital Boards and Hospital Management Committees or, in the case of teaching hospitals, by Boards of Governors. The hospitals themselves have been grouped into administrative units; these consist sometimes of several formerly independent hospitals and sometimes of one. There are nearly 400 such groups under the control of hospital management committees, which are in turn under the control of 14 regional hospital boards. The regions are arranged so that the hospital and specialist services can conveniently be associated with a university having a school of medicine.

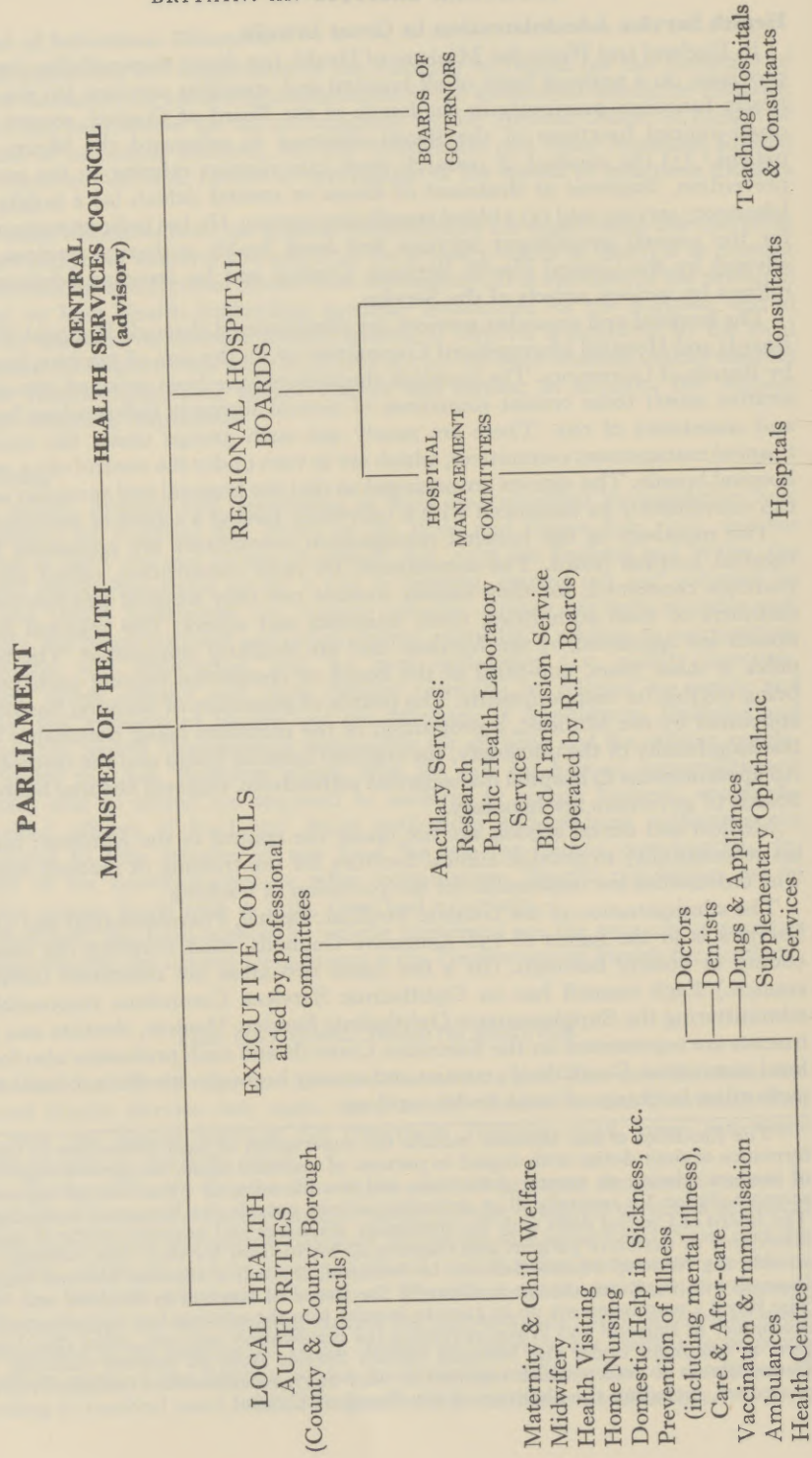
The members of the hospital management committees are appointed by the regional hospital board. The committees, by their constitution, reflect the communities concerned, for they usually include not only medical practitioners but members of local authorities, trade unionists and others. The regional hospital boards are appointed by the Minister and are similarly constituted. The term of office is three years, one-third of the board or committee retiring each year but being eligible for reappointment. The boards of governors of teaching hospitals are appointed by the Minister, a proportion of the members being nominated by the teaching faculty of the university, the regional hospital board and the medical staff. All appointments to hospital management committees, regional hospital boards and boards of governors are honorary.

Medical and dental schools are not under the control of the Minister; but it is his responsibility to provide clinical facilities for the training of medical students. The universities are responsible for the provision of teaching.

The administration of the General Medical, Dental, Pharmaceutical and Optical Services is in the hands of 138 Executive Councils, each covering the area of a county or county borough. (In a few cases two areas are combined under one council.) Each council has an Ophthalmic Services Committee responsible for administering the Supplementary Ophthalmic Service. Doctors, dentists and pharmacists are represented on the Executive Councils and each profession also forms a local committee. Councils of counties and county boroughs are the 146 local health authorities in charge of local health services.

¹ The functions of the Minister include the supervision of local authorities in the performance of their duties with regard to persons of unsound mind, the general supervision of matters relating to mental defectives, and the licensing or other formal approval of accommodation for mentally ill or defective patients outside the National Health Service. The Board of Control deals with the admission, discharge and periodic review of mentally disordered or defective patients and inspects all institutions for their care, whether in or outside the National Health Service. In Scotland, there is a separate General Board of Control with functions similar to those of the Board of Control in England and Wales. The Royal Commission set up in 1954 to inquire into the existing law and administrative machinery in England and Wales governing the certification and care, other than hospital care or treatment under the National Health Service Acts, of persons suffering from mental illness or defect, which reported in May 1957, recommended changes in law and procedure, including the abolition of the Board of Control.

ORGANISATION OF THE NATIONAL HEALTH SERVICE IN ENGLAND AND WALES



In Scotland, the Secretary of State for Scotland is the responsible Minister; 31 county councils and 24 town councils of large burghs are the local health authorities; hospital and specialist services are administered by five Regional Hospital Boards appointed by the Secretary of State, assisted by 84 Boards of Management (the equivalent of hospital management committees in England); and there are 25 Executive Councils, each serving the area of one or more local health authorities. The teaching hospitals in Scotland come under the control of the Regional Hospital Boards, but special Medical Education Committees consider matters relating to medical teaching. The Scottish Health Services Council and its Standing Advisory Committees advise the Secretary of State and keep closely in touch with the Central Health Services Council on common issues.

The Northern Ireland Health Services are described separately on page 149.

Health Service Finance

Annual expenditure on the National Health Service in the United Kingdom amounts to about $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent of total national resources. The greater part of the cost falls on the Exchequer, to be met from general taxation, and a small part is met from local rates. Other income is derived from the National Health Service contribution paid with the National Insurance contribution and from the payments for those parts of the Service for which charges are made.

To help to limit expenditure without reducing the services offered, it was found necessary in 1951 and again in 1952 to introduce charges for certain items in the Service. There is a charge of 1s. for each item prescribed on a prescription form, and charges are also made for dentures and spectacles (except children's spectacles in standard frames), for elastic hosiery supplied in the family doctor service or hospital out-patients' department, for certain appliances supplied to out-patients, for treatment in the dental service (but not for examination only or for treatment given to persons under 21 or to nursing or expectant mothers), and for some local health authority services. Certain exemptions or refunds are made and anyone may apply to the National Assistance Board for help in meeting any of these charges. Under the 1946 Act, a limited number of beds may be put aside for hospital patients wishing for privacy, provided that this accommodation is not needed on medical grounds for non-paying patients. Charges for these 'amenity' beds are fixed under Regulations. Provision is also made at certain hospitals for patients who wish to occupy private patients' accommodation on payment of the whole cost of this accommodation and treatment. Such patients may make private arrangements for treatment by a doctor of their own choice.

Hospital medical staffs are either full-time and salaried or part-time; part-time medical officers are usually paid on a sessional basis and are free to accept private patients. General medical practitioners in public service are remunerated mainly by capitation fees according to the number of persons on their lists.

Dentists providing treatment in their own surgeries are paid on a prescribed scale of fees according to the treatment they have carried out. Pharmacists dispensing on their own premises are paid on the basis of the prescriptions they dispense. Doctors and ophthalmic opticians taking part in the Supplementary Ophthalmic Service are paid prescribed fees for each sight test made; opticians who dispense spectacles are paid according to the number of pairs supplied.

A committee set up to review the cost of the Health Service found no scope for recommendations which would either produce new sources of income or reduce substantially the annual cost of the Service. It found that the real cost of the Service,

after allowing for rising prices, had increased little during the years 1949-54 while many of the services provided were substantially expanded and improved.¹

The General Practitioner Services

The General Practitioner Services cover the medical attention given to individuals by doctors and dentists of their own choice, from among those enrolled in the Service. Doctors and dentists normally work at their own surgeries; in a few places they practise in health centres established under the National Health Service Acts. Nearly 25,000, or almost all, general medical practitioners (principals and assistants) in Great Britain take some part in the Service.

Doctors previously in practice were entitled to join the Service at its start in the place where they were practising. Those now wishing to enter practice have to apply through their Executive Councils to the central Medical Practices Committee, so that a better distribution of doctors throughout the country may be facilitated. The maximum number of patients' names permitted to be on a family doctor's list is normally 3,500; the average number in England and Wales is about 2,200. It is normally through the patient's own doctor that access to most other parts of the Health Service is obtained.

Of about 11,200 dentists in England and Wales available for general practice, about 10,200 are in the Service, and in Scotland 1,120 dentists (practically all those in general practice) are in the General Dental Service.

Over 900 ophthalmic medical practitioners and over 7,000 ophthalmic and dispensing opticians in England and Wales, and 70 ophthalmic medical practitioners and 900 ophthalmic and dispensing opticians in Scotland, are engaged in the Supplementary Ophthalmic Service. This service provides for the testing of sight and provision of spectacles. Cases requiring treatment are dealt with through the hospital eye service.

Almost all chemists (nearly 16,000 in England and Wales and 2,600 in Scotland) are taking part in the Service.

Hospital and Specialist Services

The hospital and specialist services include the provision of consultants; hospitals of all kinds including maternity accommodation, tuberculosis sanatoria, mental hospitals and institutions for the mentally defective, infectious-disease units, convalescent homes and rehabilitation centres; and all forms of specialised treatment.

In the Service in England and Wales there are nearly 3,000 hospitals (including teaching hospitals) with nearly 500,000 available beds and a nursing and midwifery staff of nearly 150,000 full-time and over 38,000 part-time nurses. In Scotland, there are 400 hospitals with nearly 67,000 beds and some 22,000 full-time and 5,000 part-time nurses and midwives. A small number of hospitals remain outside the Service for special reasons. Most of these are run by Religious Orders.

An expanded programme of new hospital building and capital improvements in existing hospitals, begun in 1956, is proceeding on an ever increasing scale.

Teaching Hospitals

The 26 London teaching hospitals are in fact groups of hospitals, and include about 100 hospitals, convalescent homes, branches, annexes or treatment centres. The 10 teaching hospitals elsewhere in England or in Wales cover some 70 hospitals and other establishments.

¹ Report of the Committee of Enquiry into the Cost of the National Health Service, *Cmd.* 9663, January 1956.

Rehabilitation

The importance of rehabilitation as a facet of medical treatment is firmly established and, today, hospital treatment is not limited to the relief of pain, or alleviation or cure of pathological conditions, but aims at restoring the individual's functional capacity without delay. Special rehabilitation facilities are provided, for those requiring them, in the departments of physical medicine and occupational therapy at the main hospitals, and in a few special rehabilitation centres which are not attached to any hospital. The work is carried out under the guidance of the appropriate medical specialist by physiotherapists, remedial gymnasts, occupational therapists and social workers, working as a team. Experience has shown that efficient medical rehabilitation reduces the stay in hospital, the incidence of permanent disability and the period of incapacity for full work. The departments work in close association with the Disablement Resettlement Service of the Ministry of Labour and National Service. Rehabilitation methods have been applied with advantage in the care of the chronic sick, the aged and the handicapped and have enabled many patients to become self-sufficient or to be discharged from hospital and to resume an independent life in their own homes.

Blood Transfusion

The National Blood Transfusion Service is administered by the regional hospital boards under the National Health Service. Each region maintains an organisation for collecting blood within the region. Voluntary donors, recruited from the public, give their blood without payment. It is kept in the regional blood bank, or issued to area blood banks which are maintained at general hospitals in each region. There are two central laboratories administered by the Medical Research Council on behalf of the Ministry of Health: the Blood Group Reference Laboratory, which prepares grouping serum and investigates blood grouping problems referred to it, and the Blood Products Laboratory, which prepares dried plasma and plasma fractions.

Medico-Social Work

There are over 1,000 trained almoners working in Britain; the majority work in hospitals, others in local authority services or elsewhere. The almoner co-operates with the medical staff in the investigation and treatment of disease by elucidating and adjusting social and economic factors which contribute to a patient's disability or impede his restoration to health. Psychiatric social workers are specially trained for work in the mental health and child guidance services. They are an invaluable complement to doctors, not only in mental and mental deficiency hospitals but also in the local health and education services, in assessing the environmental factors in mental abnormalities and in helping patients to make the necessary adjustments.

Local Health Services

The Local Health Services administered by the county and county borough councils (in Scotland, county and large burgh councils) include those for maternity and child welfare (but not hospitals and maternity homes), domiciliary midwifery, vaccination and immunisation, health visiting, home nursing, the prevention of illness and the care and after-care of the sick (including the mentally ill and also the mentally defective), the provision of domestic help (in such circumstances as sickness, confinement or old age), the ambulance service (in Scotland, the responsibility of the Secretary of State), and the establishment and maintenance of local health centres (in Scotland, the responsibility of the Secretary of State).

Welfare Centres

Maternity and child welfare centres have been established for many years. These are part of the advisory and preventive services of the local health authority and they provide regular supervision by nurses and doctors for expectant and nursing mothers and young children. Special sessions for test feeding and for remedial exercises are also arranged at some centres. A special feature of the service is the education of mothers by means of talks, demonstrations and classes. Practically all centres are distribution points for the national dried milk and vitamin preparations provided for expectant mothers and young children which are distributed by local health authorities (see below). In England and Wales more than 75 per cent of all babies are taken to the centres.

Maternal Care

According to the advice given by the doctor or midwife and her own preference, the expectant mother may arrange to have her baby at home or in hospital; in allocating hospital beds, priority is given to those for whom domiciliary confinement is inadvisable for medical or obstetric reasons or because of adverse home conditions. For a home confinement every mother has available to her the services of either a general practitioner obstetrician or her own family doctor if he is willing to undertake her maternity care, besides those of a trained midwife employed in the domiciliary service of the local health authority. The doctor carries out certain ante-natal and post-natal examinations, attends at the confinement if he thinks it necessary, and gives any other medical care required. The services of a consultant obstetrician are also available if the doctor seeks his advice. Routine supervision and advice is provided by the midwife, who visits regularly before the confinement for the purpose of examination and to give the mother advice and help. In addition, the expectant mother may attend the ante-natal clinic for instruction in preparation for motherhood and in some cases for interim ante-natal supervision. The midwife delivers the patient (unless the doctor considers it necessary to be present) and continues in attendance for the first 14 days after the birth. Midwives work in close touch with the welfare centres in the care of the mother both before and after the birth of the child.

Welfare Foods Service

Local health authorities distribute the welfare foods, other than liquid milk, that the Welfare Foods Service¹ provides for expectant and nursing mothers and young children at a low cost or free of charge. These foods are National Dried Milk as an alternative to liquid milk² and at an equivalent price; orange juice, at 5d. a six-fluid-ounce bottle, for expectant mothers and children under two; cod liver oil, free of charge, for expectant mothers and children under five; vitamin A and D tablets, free of charge for expectant mothers as an alternative to cod liver oil, and also for mothers for 30 weeks after confinement. These supplies of milk and orange juice are provided free of charge if the families cannot afford to pay.

¹ The Service began as a war-time measure with the National Milk Scheme in 1940, but in 1946 the Government decided to continue the extended scheme as part of the peace-time social services. Beneficiaries now obtain the necessary tokens from the Ministry of Pensions and National Insurance.

² The liquid milk allowance (which is obtained through the usual retail channels) is one pint a day at 4d. a pint for expectant mothers, children under five years of age, and children of five years or more but under sixteen years who are physically and mentally handicapped or who are unable to attend school or an occupation centre (where they would receive milk).

Other Maternity and Child Welfare Services

Many local health authorities make special arrangements for premature babies remaining in their own homes, by lending equipment and appointing experienced nursing staff to supervise their care.

There are some 550 day nurseries for children under five in Great Britain provided by local health authorities or voluntary associations working with them. The National Health Service Act, 1952, gave local authorities power to make charges for the use of day nurseries. Private or factory nurseries (of which there are about 460 altogether) must be registered with the local health authorities; this regulation applies also to persons who mind for payment more than two children, not all of the same family.

Local authorities co-operate with voluntary denominational and other bodies caring for unmarried mothers and their babies, or make direct provision for their special needs through welfare workers, homes, hostels and nurseries, and by finding suitable foster-mothers.

Health Visiting

Health visitors are State Registered Nurses, with at least six months' training in midwifery, who have had special training in health visiting. They are employed by local health authorities to visit people in their own homes to give advice on the care of young children, expectant and nursing mothers, persons suffering from illness, including mental illness, and any injury or disability requiring medical or dental treatment, and on measures necessary to prevent the spread of infection. Their duties include health education and attendance at ante-natal and child welfare clinics. They may also undertake tuberculosis visiting and school nursing.

Home Nursing

The employment of nurses for attending persons who require nursing in their own homes is the responsibility of the local health authorities. Although many authorities employ nurses directly for this purpose, others have entered into arrangements with voluntary organisations to provide a service on their behalf.

Domestic Help

Local health authorities have the power to make arrangements for providing domestic help in households where it is needed owing to illness, confinement, or the presence of children, old people or mental defectives. This is not one of the free services and authorities are authorised to recover from those assisted such charges as the authorities consider reasonable, having regard to the person's means.

Ambulance Services

Free conveyance by ambulance between home and hospital or clinic is provided where necessary, either directly by local health authorities or, on their behalf, by voluntary organisations. The Hospital Car Service (organised by the St. John Ambulance Brigade, the British Red Cross Society, and the Women's Voluntary Services) provides special transport in many areas for patients who are not stretcher cases; such patients are conveyed in private cars whose owners volunteer to give this service, and the authorities make a mileage payment to the volunteers to cover their expenses. In Scotland, ambulances are run by the Scottish Ambulance Service (St. Andrew's Ambulance Association and the Scottish Branch of the British Red Cross Society) on behalf of the Secretary of State.

Mental Health Services

Persons who are suffering from mental illness can consult the family doctor and receive specialist advice at hospital out-patient clinics in the ordinary way. If they

need to enter a mental hospital they can do so as voluntary patients with little formality. If need be, they may be admitted under Order as temporary or certified patients. If patients, or their relatives, are unable or unwilling to make the necessary arrangements for admission to a mental hospital, it is the duty of a duly authorised officer of the local health authority to do so. The local health authority is expected to offer a welfare service to such patients, whether before admission or to help their rehabilitation on discharge.

Local health authorities have a duty to ascertain mental defectives in the community, to supervise them and to provide, where practicable, suitable training or occupation. This is given in occupation centres where the defectives attend daily, as at school, or by home teaching. If supervision affords insufficient protection it is the duty of officers of the local health authority to take the initial steps to place such defectives under guardianship within the community or to arrange for their admission to a mental deficiency hospital.

Prevention of Illness: Care and After-Care

Measures for the prevention of tuberculosis, e.g., the tracing of sources of infection, the prevention of its spread, and the removal of the cause of infection, are the responsibility of all the local health authorities. Facilities for diagnosis and treatment are the responsibility of the hospital service and are provided through sanatoria and chest clinics. The chest physicians staffing these clinics are often employed jointly by the hospital authorities and local health authorities, to ensure that diagnosis and treatment are properly co-ordinated with prevention and after-care. Among the duties of these officers are those of making recommendations for residential treatment, visiting the homes of patients, and examining and advising 'contacts'. They are assisted in this work by tuberculosis health visitors and nurses. Most local health authorities have statutory or voluntary tuberculosis care committees.

Mass miniature radiography was introduced in 1943 as a means of early diagnosis of tuberculosis. About 75 units now operate under the regional hospital boards in England and Wales, in close co-operation with local health authorities; there are 10 units in Scotland. They examine nearly four million persons a year, concentrating increasingly on areas with a bad record for tuberculosis, on specially susceptible groups in the population, and on adults in regular contact with organised groups of children.

Care and after-care of patients is supplemented by general advice and assistance given to households in which the patients live. Local health authorities send suitable patients to the village settlements for tuberculous persons which are run by voluntary bodies or by local health authorities of other areas; and training for employment is carried out in conjunction with the training and resettlement schemes of the Ministry of Labour and National Service.

Care and after-care arrangements are made by all local health authorities for other types of illness, including mental illness or mental defectiveness.

As part of their preventive work, local health authorities give help and advice to families which may be in difficulties and in danger of breaking up.

A charge may be made for some of these services, if the person wishing to make use of them can reasonably be expected to contribute towards their cost.

Vaccination and Immunisation

Arrangements for vaccination against smallpox and immunisation against diphtheria, without charge, as part of the National Health Service, are made by all local health authorities; in addition, most local health authorities have similar arrangements for immunisation against whooping cough, and a small number have

authority to provide for immunisation against tetanus. In 1957 there were only 6 deaths from diphtheria in England and Wales, as against 2,641 in 1941, and in Scotland, none as against 517 in 1941.

Vaccination against poliomyelitis, which was introduced for children in 1956 and made available to some adults in 1957, is being extended in 1958 to all persons up to the age of 25 years as well as to certain others. BCG vaccination against tuberculosis is available to certain adults and children.

Health Centres

A few health centres have been established, differing widely in size and character according to local need. Experience shows that they are likely to be most successful in areas of housing development where new services are needed. The need to observe the working of the experimental centres already provided and to conserve scarce resources is likely to prevent any general expansion of the service in the near future. In Scotland, the provision of health centres is not the responsibility of local health authorities but of the Secretary of State for Scotland.

HEALTH SERVICES IN NORTHERN IRELAND

In Northern Ireland the historical development of the health services has taken broadly the same course as in other parts of the United Kingdom and the Health Services established under the Health Services Act (Northern Ireland), 1948, correspond fairly closely to the medical care system established under the National Health Service in Great Britain. The essential principle is that the same range of services shall be available to citizens in Northern Ireland as in England, Wales and Scotland. The Services in Northern Ireland are financed as in the rest of the United Kingdom.

In hospital administration the role of the central Government is not quite so immediate or direct as in Great Britain, and hospital property, for example, is vested not in the Minister of Health and Local Government but in the Northern Ireland Hospitals Authority. The Hospitals Authority has under its control 64 hospitals and three special care institutions containing in all about 15,000 beds.

The Tuberculosis Service is on a separate footing from the main Hospital Service, having been established a little earlier to deal urgently with a serious tuberculosis problem. The Northern Ireland Tuberculosis Authority, which was constituted for the prevention of tuberculosis and the care of tuberculous patients by the Public Health (Tuberculosis) Act (Northern Ireland), 1946, has seven hospitals under its control.

Vaccination against smallpox is compulsory in Northern Ireland but otherwise the range of preventive and domiciliary services is similar to that existing in Great Britain. Domestic help (whole-time or part-time) for aged or handicapped persons and expectant mothers is provided by county welfare authorities under the Welfare Services Act (Northern Ireland), 1949.

VOLUNTARY AID FOR THE SICK AND HANDICAPPED

A number of voluntary organisations provide services of various kinds for sick and handicapped persons in co-operation with, or supplementary to, the provision made by central and local authorities. Some convalescent homes, for instance, of a type outside the scope of the hospital service, are administered by such bodies. In many areas invalid children and others needing care in their own homes are visited and helped by voluntary organisations. Though the need for material aid from

private sources becomes less as public provision extends, many forms of help to meet individual needs that would not otherwise be met are given by voluntary agencies. Their most valuable service is probably to provide personal service and the continued personal interest that can contribute so much to the welfare of the sick and infirm. These voluntary agencies usually depend largely on the work, part-time or full-time, of unpaid volunteers.

A great deal of voluntary help is given to hospitals by voluntary bodies and individual voluntary helpers. More than half the hospitals in England and Wales have their own Leagues of Friends or similar bodies of voluntary workers who organise and undertake a variety of services for their hospitals. Many hospitals also have help from the British Red Cross Society, the Order of St. John, the Women's Voluntary Services, or a similar organisation. The operation of canteens for out-patients and trolley-shops and library services for in-patients, visiting in the wards, receiving new patients, and mending linen are among the tasks commonly undertaken.

THE MEDICAL, DENTAL AND ALLIED PROFESSIONS

Only persons whose names are on the Medical Register can practise as doctors under the National Health Service. Apart from medical practitioners, only persons whose names are on the Dentists' Register can practise dentistry in Britain. The minimum qualification for registration as a doctor requires five to seven years' training in medical school and hospital, plus one year as an intern; for a dentist, four or more years at a dental school are required. The governing body of the medical profession is the General Medical Council, first set up in 1858; that of the dentists is the General Dental Council, which succeeded the Dental Board in 1956.

The minimum period of hospital training required to qualify for State registration as a general trained nurse is three years. Training is available also in sick children's, mental, and mental deficiency nursing. The qualifying period for enrolment as an assistant nurse is one year's practical training followed by one year's work under supervision. The governing body of the nursing profession is the General Nursing Council, set up in 1919. Midwives must be certified by the Central Midwives Board. Most pupil midwives are already State registered general nurses or sick children's nurses; for them the two-year midwifery training period is reduced to one year.

Only registered pharmaceutical chemists may practise as pharmacists or describe themselves as such, and qualifications requiring four to five years' academic study and practical training are necessary for registration. The Pharmaceutical Society of Great Britain is the governing body of the profession. Training as an ophthalmic optician takes three years followed by a year under supervision. Under the Opticians' Act, 1958, a General Optical Council will be set up to regulate the profession and only registered ophthalmic opticians (or registered medical practitioners) will be allowed to test sight.

For the professions of almoner, chiropodist, dietitian, medical laboratory technician, occupational therapist, psychiatric social worker, physiotherapist, radiographer and speech therapist a good general education is required followed by a professional training. The length and nature of the training varies according to the profession, and may be as long as three years.

MEDICAL RESEARCH

The Medical Research Council (see the section on the Promotion of the Sciences in Chapter VII) is the main governmental organisation engaged in medical research in Britain. A considerable amount of research is also carried out in the universities

and their associated medical schools and teaching hospitals, while the Minister of Health and the Secretary of State for Scotland, and hospital boards and committees, are also able to initiate and maintain research within the National Health Service. The Public Health Laboratory Service, administered by the Medical Research Council for the Ministry of Health, also undertakes research in addition to its more routine duties, and this provides an important complement to the work of the Council.

A valuable contribution to research in particular branches of medicine is made by private organisations, of which the British Empire Cancer Campaign and the Nuffield Foundation are the largest. There is close collaboration between the Medical Research Council and these other organisations to ensure the best allocation of their respective resources.

Medical Research Council

The Medical Research Council's programme of work is carried out both in its own research establishments and by independent investigators, in the universities and elsewhere, who receive grants from the Council. The programme includes fundamental studies of the structure and natural processes of the body; clinical and laboratory studies of disease; the development and evaluation of special methods of treatment and also of prophylaxis and diagnosis; and the study of social and occupational factors affecting health and the efficiency of body and mind.

In planning and carrying out its programme, the Council is assisted by special advisory committees which it may appoint. One of the more important of these is the Clinical Research Board, set up in consultation with the Health Departments to assist the development of clinical research.

The Public Health Laboratory Service

The Public Health Laboratory Service provides a network of bacteriological and virological laboratories throughout England and Wales to assist in the diagnosis, prevention and control of epidemic diseases. The largest establishment is the Central Public Health Laboratory at Colindale, in north-west London, which includes the National Collection of Type Cultures, the Standards Laboratory for Serological Reagents, the Food Hygiene Laboratory, and reference laboratories specialising in the identification of certain infective micro-organisms.

In Scotland and Northern Ireland there is no separate Public Health Laboratory Service; bacteriological work is mainly done in hospital laboratories.

EDUCATION

There are nearly nine million children and young people in full-time attendance at schools, universities, training colleges or technical colleges in the United Kingdom. Over 90 per cent of school children attend publicly provided or aided schools. The universities are independent, self-governing institutions but are aided from public funds. Most technical colleges and other centres of further education are publicly maintained. Many schools and colleges continue to benefit from the endowments provided by benefactors in past centuries.

The bulk of expenditure on education in the United Kingdom therefore comes from public funds. It is estimated for 1958-59 that total public expenditure on education, which is increasing, will be about £805 million. This includes expenditure on university education. Of public expenditure on education other than in the universities, at present about 60 per cent comes from taxes and about 40 per cent from local rates.

In England and Wales, the main development of publicly provided primary education dates from 1870, and that of secondary education from the beginning of the present century. In 1833 the Government had begun to make annual grants to the voluntary societies which were providing schools, and the Elementary Education Act of 1870 accepted the principle of compulsory education. By the end of the nineteenth century, elementary education had become virtually both compulsory and free. Public provision of secondary education (already begun in Wales) started in England under the Act of 1902. The Education Act of 1944 now governs public education in England and Wales. It seeks to widen and improve educational opportunities at every stage.

The Scottish and Northern Ireland educational systems both have long histories independent of that of education in England, but the same general policy is now being implemented throughout the United Kingdom, with some national variations.

Educational Administration

Administration of publicly provided education in Britain is divided between the central Government Departments (the Ministry of Education for England and Wales, the Scottish Education Department, and the Ministry of Education for Northern Ireland), local education authorities, and various voluntary organisations. The relation between these three groups is based on consultation and co-operation, both by direct contact between the parties and through Her Majesty's Inspectors who act as liaison officers, particularly between local education authorities and the Departments.

The local education authorities (called education authorities in Scotland) are responsible for ensuring that adequate provision is made in their areas for the two stages of school education (primary and secondary), and that those pupils who would profit by proceeding to a university have the opportunity of doing so. They are also responsible for the provision of all forms of 'further education', i.e. post-school education outside the universities.

All schools, including independent schools (which must be registered), are subject to official inspection.

SCHOOLS

Parents in Britain are required by law to see that their children receive efficient full-time education, at school or otherwise, between the ages of 5 and 15. In England and Wales over 6,850,000 children, including about 190,000 under and 262,000 over compulsory school age, are attending publicly maintained schools, besides 104,000 others (including 1,500 under and nearly 30,000 over school age) who are at schools receiving direct grants from the Ministry of Education. There are also about half a million children of all ages at independent schools. In Scotland, 860,000 children are attending publicly maintained or aided schools and about 22,000 are at independent schools. In Northern Ireland, 260,000 children (including 12,300 under and 12,000 over compulsory school age) are attending publicly maintained or aided schools; independent schools are few.

In England and in Northern Ireland it is usual for boys and girls to be taught together in primary schools, but rather more than half the secondary schools are for boys or girls only. Mixed schools are more common in Wales; and in Scotland all but a few city schools take both boys and girls.

The majority of independent schools are for boys or for girls only, except in classes for small children. There are, however, a few schools which are co-educational.

In England and Wales, three kinds of school are supported from public funds: *county schools* (the largest group) which are provided and maintained by local

education authorities, i.e. their full cost falls on public funds; *voluntary schools* which have been provided by a voluntary body (usually of a religious denomination) but which are maintained by local education authorities; and *direct grant schools* which are completely independent of local education authorities but receive a grant-in-aid from the Ministry of Education. These last (the smallest group) mostly provide education of the grammar school type; they include some schools of ancient foundation.

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 of which there are also a few in Scotland and Northern Ireland). There are also a few *grant-aided schools* (some of ancient foundation) conducted by voluntary managers and receiving grants direct from the Scottish Education Department.

In Northern Ireland, there are county schools, managed by local education authorities, and voluntary schools, which are grant-aided schools under voluntary management.

In England and Wales, no fees are charged to parents of children attending schools maintained by local education authorities, and books and equipment are supplied free. Grammar schools receiving grants direct from the Ministry of Education still charge fees but they are required to offer each year, to pupils who have at any time previously attended a grant-aided primary school for not less than two years, free places to the extent of not less than 25 per cent of the previous year's admission to the upper school; and a further 25 per cent of the places must be put at the disposal of the local education authorities if they require them. Pupils occupying these latter places need not previously have attended a grant-aided primary school. Day pupils not holding free places are entitled to claim a remission of fees in accordance with an approved income scale, and the Ministry pays the governors of the school the amount of the fees so remitted. Local education authorities also pay for some free places in independent schools, which normally charge fees. A number of independent schools are able to offer some scholarships from endowments.

In Scotland, education authorities may charge fees in certain schools provided that this does not prejudice the provision of free education for all who desire it.

In Northern Ireland, no fees are charged to parents of children attending any county or voluntary primary, intermediate or special school; qualified pupils attending both county and voluntary grammar schools receive scholarships from the local education authorities which cover the whole or most of the fees charged by the school.

Primary Schools

A child's primary education continues until about the age of 11 in England, Wales and Northern Ireland and 12 in Scotland. There are some *nursery schools* and classes for children between 2 and 5 years old. In England and Wales, there are *infant schools*, or departments, for all children between 5 and 7 and *junior schools* for those aged 7 to 11. In Scotland there are *primary departments* for children between 5 and 12 years old.

Secondary Schools

Public provision of secondary education is being greatly extended with the aim of providing for all children an education suited to their particular abilities.

England, Wales and Northern Ireland

In England and Wales, *grammar schools* take children who hope to reach a university and others likely to profit from an academic type of education. A large

proportion of university students are recruited from these schools which, in England and Wales, are attended by about one secondary school pupil in four. *Secondary modern schools* form the largest group of secondary schools. They give a general education with a practical bias, closely related to the interests and environment of their pupils. The *secondary technical schools* are the smallest group and offer an education largely related to industry, including commerce, or agriculture. Each local education authority decides how the selection shall be made for its secondary schools: generally speaking, this selection depends upon an assessment of the child's ability as shown in the primary school, often coupled with objective tests taken at about eleven years of age. There is provision for an appeal to the Minister of Education in the event of a dispute between a local education authority and a parent, and almost all authorities reconsider original decisions when subsequent events prove this to be necessary.

Two types of education may be given in one school—a bilateral school; some authorities are establishing *comprehensive schools* providing all types of secondary education.

In Northern Ireland, *secondary intermediate schools* are the equivalent of the secondary modern schools in England and Wales. *Technical intermediate schools* in Northern Ireland offer the same facilities as secondary technical schools in England and Wales.

Most grammar school pupils remain until they are 16 years old, some until they are 17, 18 or 19. Most secondary modern pupils at present leave at the age of 15, but the number staying on until the age of 16 is increasing.

Scotland

Scottish secondary schools fall into two main categories, those providing courses extending normally to three years, generally called *junior secondary schools*, and those providing courses of five or six years, known as *senior secondary schools*. In each type of school the courses are intended to provide a general education, but they are differentiated in character to suit the varying needs and abilities of the pupils, and include literary, commercial, boys' technical, domestic and rural courses. While some schools are purely junior secondary and some purely senior secondary, there are also a number of schools of the comprehensive type in which all kinds of courses, both junior secondary and senior secondary, are provided. Many schools also provide modified courses for pupils of limited ability for whom the normal courses are too exacting.

Promotion from the primary to the secondary school takes place usually between the ages of 11½ and 12½. The fitness of pupils to profit from the various types of secondary course is assessed on the basis of teachers' estimates of attainment, intelligence tests, and attainment tests, with due regard to the wishes of the parents. There is provision for an appeal to the Secretary of State for Scotland in the event of a dispute between the education authority and the parent and also for the reconsideration of original allocations where transfer to another course subsequently appears to be necessary.

Independent Schools

The largest and most important of the independent schools are known in England as public schools, although not all schools classed as public schools are independent (those which are not are mostly direct-grant schools) and public schools form only a minority of all independent schools.

The *public school* is a characteristic English institution which has made a notable contribution to English education. Many public schools date from the sixteenth

century, some are older (e.g., Winchester, founded in 1382, and Eton, founded in 1440), and many have some income from endowments. Each is controlled by its own Board of Governors. Public schools have emphasised the importance of character-building, and in these schools were developed the prefect system, whereby day-to-day discipline is largely maintained by the pupils themselves, and the house system, whereby a school is divided into groups of about 50 pupils, each under the care of a housemaster. The public school is also characterised by a high staffing ratio and a high proportion of pupils doing advanced work. A public school is often, although not necessarily, a boarding school; day boys are also taken at some of these boarding schools. The usual age of entry to the independent public schools for boys is 13 and the leaving age about 18. There are some girls' public schools modelled to a certain extent on the public schools for boys.

There are also *preparatory schools*, many of them boarding schools, for boys aged from about 8 to 13 years most of whom are intending to enter public schools; there are some similar schools for girls, and a wide range of other day and boarding schools covering every age group and grade of education and every variety of educational method. Some of these schools are owned and managed, often under a trust deed, by independent non-profit-making bodies. Others are privately owned by proprietors for whom the running of the school provides a living.

Secondary School Examinations

In 1951, the General Certificate of Education superseded the former School Certificate and Higher Certificate examinations in the secondary schools (State-aided and independent alike) of England and Wales. This examination, which may also be taken by candidates not attending school, is conducted at three levels (ordinary, advanced and scholarship). Most candidates are at least 16 years old on 1st September of the year of their examination, but a child can sit at an earlier age at the discretion of the headmaster or headmistress of the school, and many do so.

In Scotland, the courses in senior secondary schools lead to presentation for the Scottish Leaving Certificate at about the age of 17, although many pupils who are under 17 take the examination. The certificate, which can be taken only by pupils in attendance at Scottish schools, is awarded on examinations conducted by the Scottish Education Department.

In Northern Ireland, the Junior Certificate Examination is taken at about the age of 15 and the Senior Certificate Examination, which is conducted at two levels, at about 17 years of age.

Teachers

Teachers are appointed by local education authorities or school governing bodies or managers. In England and Wales they are not subject to official control on questions relating to curricula or methods. In Scotland, schemes of work in primary and secondary departments are subject to the approval of one of Her Majesty's Inspectors, and no pupil may be presented for the Scottish Leaving Certificate examination unless he has followed a course approved by the Scottish Education Department. In Northern Ireland, the curriculum of each grant-aided school is subject to the approval of the Ministry, but considerable latitude is afforded both in the scope of the curriculum and in the methods employed.

In 1957, there was one full-time teacher to 27 pupils in publicly maintained primary and secondary schools in England and Wales; the figure was 24 for Scotland and 29 for Northern Ireland. The high birth rate at the end of the second world war is the chief of several factors in the present need for more teachers.

There are 155 teachers' training colleges in England and Wales. At present, the usual training course lasts for two years, but there are three-year courses for women taking housecraft or physical education and the ordinary course is to be extended to three years in September 1960. There are 23 university departments of education providing a one-year course for graduates. In Scotland, there are four general colleges, two denominational colleges and a college for women teachers of physical education. Courses are normally of one year's duration for graduates or the equivalent, and of three years for non-graduates. Northern Ireland has two general teachers' training colleges, one university training department and three specialist colleges—one for training teachers of physical education, one for teachers of domestic science and one for teachers of art. The basic course in the general training colleges lasts three years. The Education Departments, the universities, local education authorities and other bodies provide a variety of short courses for practising teachers.

Teachers from schools in the United Kingdom go to a number of overseas countries each year under interchange schemes or schemes for temporary overseas posts. Nearly 100 teachers from the United States and about 50 teachers from Canada exchange posts for a year with teachers from Britain, and similar exchange schemes, on a smaller scale, operate between Britain and Australia, New Zealand, South Africa and the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland. There are also official schemes operating between Britain and several other European countries for similar exchanges and for temporary assistants' posts for language specialists.

There are national salary scales for teachers in schools and other educational institutions maintained from public funds in England and Wales, in Scotland, and in Northern Ireland; and these scales influence the salaries paid to teachers in many independent schools. There are also national superannuation schemes which are administered by the central Departments.

In England and Wales, agreed salary scales are submitted to the Minister by joint committees of representatives of local education authorities' and teachers' associations. The best-known of these committees are the Burnham Committees dealing with the salaries of teachers in primary and secondary schools and in establishments of further education.

The Minister can accept or reject (but not modify) the committees' recommendations and make the approved scales mandatory on local education authorities.

Broadcasting and Visual Aids

The School Broadcasting Department of the British Broadcasting Corporation sends out over 50 sound transmissions a week which reach nearly 29,000 schools in the United Kingdom, over 73 per cent of the possible total. School broadcasting does not attempt to cover the whole school curriculum, or to replace the teacher, but to supplement existing work in the schools.

Television broadcasts to schools were begun in 1957 by both the British Broadcasting Corporation and the Independent Television Authority. Daily programmes are received by over 1,500 schools. Other visual aids to education—films, film strips, wall charts, pictures, and models—are being increasingly used in Britain's schools.

Religion in Schools

In England and Wales, all children in county or voluntary schools, that is, all schools wholly or partly financed by local authorities, receive religious instruction and take part in a daily corporate act of worship unless their parents object. In county schools, and in certain circumstances in voluntary schools, religious instruction of an undenominational Christian character is given. In all kinds of voluntary

school¹ there is opportunity for denominational instruction. Over a third of the schools maintained by local education authorities in England and Wales are voluntary schools and the majority of these are Church of England primary schools. There are nearly 2,000 Roman Catholic voluntary schools and smaller numbers belonging to other religious bodies. In county schools in Northern Ireland, clergy have a right of access to give denominational instruction to children of their persuasion for a limited period each week. In Scotland, subject to safeguards for the individual conscience, matters relating to religious instruction are in the hands of the school managers, but there are a number of denominational schools conducted by education authorities.

Services in the school chapel and religious teaching are an essential part of the life and education of the independent public schools and most of these schools are linked to some religious denomination.

Health and Welfare of School Children

Physical education, including games, is in the curriculum of all schools.

The School Health Service provides regular medical examination and certain free treatment for all children attending schools maintained by local education authorities. Treatment facilities include dental clinics and child guidance centres. (There are also child guidance clinics in the National Health Service.) In Northern Ireland the School Health Service is operated by the health authorities.

Milk (normally one-third of a pint a day) is given free to all children in school who wish to have it, and the School Meals Service provides a daily dinner at a subsidised price (remitted where there is need) to nearly half the pupils in county and voluntary schools. Education authorities have power to provide free transport for children who live more than a reasonable distance from the schools which they attend; this distance is defined as two miles for those under eight years (11 years in Northern Ireland) and three miles for those over eight years.

Special educational treatment, either in special schools or otherwise, is provided between the ages of five (or less) and 16 for children who require it on account of any physical or mental handicap, including maladjustment. There are over 800 special schools in the United Kingdom, including hospital schools, day and boarding schools, and boarding homes for handicapped children attending ordinary schools.

School Building

An extensive building programme for education has been undertaken in Britain since the end of the second world war. In the early post-war years, schools, together with factories and houses, were given priority over less essential forms of building.

Many war-damaged schools had to be repaired or rebuilt. Entirely new schools, both primary and secondary, were needed to provide for the increased number of school children and their longer school life, and for the many post-war housing estates and for the new towns; new buildings were also needed to replace or improve those which, by modern standards, were out of date and ill-equipped. Although nearly 4,300 new post-war schools had been completed in the United Kingdom by the end of 1957, and 1,000 more were under construction, much remains to be done.

¹ The majority of voluntary schools are either 'aided' or 'controlled' schools. The controlled school has less independence than the aided school: for example, in the controlled school, denominational instruction may be given only for two periods a week, and only to children whose parents desire it. The aided school, however, has financial obligations for part of its maintenance, whereas the controlled school has none.

Advantage is being taken of this opportunity to raise standards in public educational building and to introduce new ideas and methods in the design and construction of schools. Education authorities are using both traditional and new methods of building. Post-war school buildings are light and airy, with an imaginative use of colour and generous provision of practical rooms and space for outdoor games.

Local education authorities are responsible for providing the schools and other buildings needed for public education in their areas, but the central Departments exercise control by approving annual building programmes, framing regulations, fixing cost limits and approving or rejecting the authorities' plans; they also offer guidance to authorities in the form of building bulletins and in other ways.

UNIVERSITIES

There are 16 universities in England, four in Scotland, the University of Wales, and the Queen's University of Belfast in Northern Ireland.

The English universities are: Oxford, Cambridge, London, Birmingham, Bristol, Durham, Exeter, Hull, Leeds, Leicester, Liverpool, Manchester, Nottingham, Reading, Sheffield and Southampton. There is also the University College of North Staffordshire, which is empowered to award its own Bachelor of Arts degree. A new University College of Sussex is under consideration.

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 or twentieth centuries.

The Universities of Oxford and Cambridge are each composed of a number of residential colleges. These colleges are corporate bodies governed by their own Fellows and distinct from the university. Most of the Fellows of the colleges are university teachers or officers and the majority of university teachers are also Fellows of colleges. The universities, as distinct from the colleges, own the main libraries, laboratories, and other buildings used for teaching and research.

The other universities in Britain are in the main non-residential and most are non-collegiate. Those which are composed of groups of largely autonomous colleges are London, with over 20,000 students by far the largest of Britain's universities; Durham, which includes King's College, Newcastle upon Tyne; and St. Andrews, which consists of colleges in St. Andrews itself and in Dundee. The University of Wales comprises the University Colleges of Aberystwyth, Bangor, Cardiff and Swansea, and the Welsh National School of Medicine at Cardiff. The Queen's University of Belfast recognises Magee University College, Londonderry, for certain arts courses.

The Education Departments have no jurisdiction over the universities, and their relations with them are concerned mainly with the training of school teachers, the provision of extra-mural education, and the award of scholarships from public funds. The universities receive aid from the State mainly in the form of direct grants from the Treasury which, in Great Britain, are made on the advice of the University Grants Committee, a committee appointed by the Chancellor of the Exchequer from persons with experience of university administration and education.

The proportion of university income provided by the Exchequer is increasing and in 1956-57 was 70 per cent for the United Kingdom. Another 3 per cent was contributed by local authorities, 11 per cent by fees, and the balance by endowments and other sources.

Students

Admission to the universities is by examination and selection; there is no religious test and no colour bar. Women are admitted on equal terms with men, but at Cambridge their numbers are limited by statute (as they were at Oxford until 1957). The general proportion of men to women students is three to one; at Oxford it is six to one, and at Cambridge ten to one.

All universities in Britain limit the number of undergraduates; in spite of the increase in these limits which has taken place since the end of the second world war, the demand for places continues to be very keen and many candidates are unable to gain entrance to the university of their first choice.

Scholarships and Other Awards

Scholarships and other awards are now very widely available, for it is the national educational policy that no able boy or girl shall be prevented by lack of means from pursuing a university or other advanced course of study. About 75 per cent of university students in Great Britain are now aided from public or private funds.

The Ministry of Education offers about 2,000 State scholarships annually on open competition for full-time honours courses at universities and, in addition, it gives some 1,500 new supplementary grants each year to winners of open scholarships awarded by the universities and colleges from their own funds. The Ministry also awards 225 technical State scholarships annually. (These and the ordinary State scholarships may be held at a technical college instead of a university for courses of appropriate level.)

Local education authorities in England and Wales make awards to over 13,000 other students each year to enable them to enter a university.

State studentships for postgraduate study in arts subjects are offered annually by the Ministry of Education; 250 were awarded in the first year, 1957. Postgraduate awards for scientists and technologists are made by the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research and the research councils.

In Scotland, the power of awarding bursaries and scholarships is confined in the main to the education authorities, who in exercising this power are required to comply with regulations made by the Secretary of State. There are no State scholarships, but the Secretary of State supplements scholarships at English universities won in open competition by Scottish students.

University scholarships in Northern Ireland are awarded by the local education authorities. The Ministry of Education awards State exhibitions. Scholarships awarded by the universities and State exhibitions may be supplemented by local education authorities. Postgraduate awards are made by the Ministry of Education.

Studies and Degrees

Courses in arts and science are offered by all universities and, at nearly all universities, courses are available in one or more applied sciences. At the beginning of the academic year 1957-58, 43 per cent of full-time university students in Great Britain were taking arts courses and 57 per cent were studying science or technology (including medicine).

University degree courses generally extend over three or four years; though in medicine five or six years are required. The first degree of Bachelor (Master in Scotland) is awarded on the completion of such a course, depending on satisfactory examination results. In most universities an 'ordinary' (or 'pass') or an 'honours' degree can be taken, although the majority of students take honours courses. Further study or research is required at the modern universities for the degree of Master and by all universities for that of Doctor. Actual degree titles vary according

to the practice of each university; some differentiate between the arts and sciences and some do not. Diplomas and certificates are awarded after shorter courses in some subjects.

The tutorial system of individual tuition to supplement the lecture system is a traditional and valued feature of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge; it is now being developed in the other universities and colleges of Britain.

Most members of the academic staffs devote time to research and at all universities there are postgraduate students engaged in research. There has been an expansion particularly of research and study in science and technology in recent years (see the Science section of Chapter VII).

University Expansion

The universities of Britain are expanding rapidly to meet the greatly increased demand for university education which will arise during the next decade and also to meet the need of a modern democracy for a highly educated population and the particular need, in a technical age, for scientists and technologists.

At the beginning of the academic year 1957-58, there were nearly 95,000 full-time students at universities or university colleges in Great Britain, and 2,500 in Northern Ireland. Although this is an increase of 90 per cent over the pre-war number, a further increase to about 124,000 by the mid-1960s, with a still further 10 per cent increase in the latter half of the decade, is planned for Great Britain alone. About two-thirds of the additional students who are expected to be in the universities by about 1965 will be students of science or technology.

An extensive building programme is in progress to provide for the increase in student numbers. In particular, halls of residence are being built to enable a higher proportion of students to enjoy the intellectual, social and cultural advantages of community life, and many new science buildings are needed to provide up-to-date facilities for the increasing proportion of science students.

A large programme of building for science and technology was begun in the universities in 1953. The programme includes extensions to the Imperial College of Science and Technology in the University of London to enable the number of students to be increased from 1,650 to 3,000 by the end of 1962, major developments at Glasgow, Manchester, Birmingham, Leeds and Belfast Universities, and specialised developments at other universities. In addition to the large sums required for the expansion of Imperial College, other university buildings of all kinds to the value of about £4.8 million were begun in 1956, and of £10.4 million in 1957. Authority has been given for building projects to the value of £12 million to be started in each of the years 1958 and 1959, and of £15 million in each of the four years 1960-63. These amounts are to be paid from general taxation and exclude any further sums for building collected by the universities.

FURTHER EDUCATION

Outside the universities there is a great variety of further education, full-time and part-time, for those of all ages who have left school. Local education authorities are required to secure such provision either directly or by aiding voluntary bodies and institutions. Vocational and non-vocational courses at all levels and in all subjects are available in technical, commercial and art colleges¹ and in evening institutes. These courses may lead to a wide variety of qualifications ranging from external university degrees and the highest technological awards to craftsman's

¹ For further information on art colleges see the Arts section of Chapter VII.

certificates, or they may offer opportunities for pursuing leisure-time interests. In the year 1956-57 there were some 67,000 full-time students at the technical and commercial colleges (excluding art colleges) in Great Britain and nearly 1,100,000 part-time students. An increasing number of young employees, apprentices and others (449,000 in Great Britain in 1956-57) are released by their employers to attend technical or general education classes during working hours. Nearly a million other students attend evening institutes.

Technical and Technological Education

Within the field of further education, facilities for technical and technological education have been expanded greatly since the second world war and the Government is promoting further development. In 1956, the Government announced a five-year programme for the expansion of technical colleges designed to provide for an increase of about half as many again in the number of students completing advanced courses and to double the numbers released by their employers for part-time courses during the day. The cost of the programme for buildings and equipment in the five years from 1956 to 1961 was estimated at nearly £100 million, comprising £70 million to be spent on buildings and £15 million on equipment in England and Wales, and £10 million for buildings and £2 million for equipment in Scotland. The expansion of advanced courses is aided by a special higher rate of grant from central Government funds, introduced in 1952.

The largest group of students attending technical colleges are young employees and apprentices who are released by their employers for study, usually on one day a week, supplemented often by evening study. A wide variety of craft courses is available for young workers in various trades and occupations leading to appropriate qualifications at the end of a course of three to five years. Courses of a more professional character which are suitable for technicians or for those who aim ultimately at membership of a professional institution are also provided, leading to the National Certificates approved by joint committees representative of the Education Departments and the appropriate professional body, e.g., the Institution of Mechanical Engineers. Such courses are normally at two levels, ordinary and higher. Most courses for the ordinary certificate last three years and students usually follow them between the ages of 16 and 19. The higher certificate requires a further two years' part-time study and is generally considered to reach a level corresponding to a pass degree in the subject concerned.

Full-time courses are taken by large numbers of younger students who leave school to enter secretarial or clerical work and also as an introduction to apprenticeship. But the most important group of full-time students are those following advanced courses leading to an external degree of the University of London, to the Higher National Diploma (awarded by joint committees in the same way as the Higher National Certificates) or to the new national qualification, the Diploma in Technology. The latter award is administered by the National Council for Technological Awards, an autonomous body set up by the Minister of Education in 1955. The diploma is awarded after the successful completion of an approved course in a technical college and is intended to be equivalent in standard to a university honours degree.

One form of advanced course which is rapidly gaining favour is the 'sandwich course'. This lasts from three to five years and consists of periods usually of three or six months spent alternately in studying full-time in a technical college and in gaining practical experience in industry. It is through a major increase in the number of students following sandwich courses that the technical colleges are expected to achieve a 50 per cent increase in the output of advanced students.

There is a growing demand for courses of postgraduate standard in technical colleges for students who have already obtained a first degree, a diploma, or a Higher National Certificate. A wide range of advanced short courses of a very specialised nature is also offered for senior technical staffs engaged in industry. A considerable amount of research is also carried on in the technical colleges: the arrangements vary very widely and frequently take the form of a contract between the college and a local industrial concern.

Under this system there is great flexibility in the provision of courses. As a result, young people can start courses at various ages on leaving school and can attain the highest qualification to which their abilities entitle them.

Technical colleges in England and Wales vary greatly in size, range of subjects, level of work and type of course. The largest has a total of some 14,000 students on the roll. The large colleges usually offer a wide range of subjects, covering the basic technologies and the fundamental sciences. The colleges are organised in five broad groups:

- (1) *Local Colleges*, providing mainly part-time courses, some (lasting two to five years) leading directly to craftsman and technician qualifications such as Ordinary National Certificates and City and Guilds of London Institute Certificates;
- (2) *Area Colleges*, providing also some advanced courses from two to four years in duration for students starting at 18 or 19 years of age, and leading to Higher National Certificates and Diplomas;
- (3) *Regional Colleges*, covering wider areas than the local and area colleges, and doing a substantial amount of advanced work, including full-time and sandwich courses;
- (4) *Colleges of Advanced Technology* (eight in number), which concentrate entirely on advanced work, including postgraduate and research work; and
- (5) *National Colleges*, of which seven have been established to provide advanced courses for the work of particularly specialised industries. These include the National Colleges such as those for Rubber Technology and Food Technology and the National Foundry College; they are managed by independent bodies with grants direct from the Ministry of Education.

At present, in England and Wales, there are over 340 technical colleges (other than art colleges) that provide for full-time students, besides some 220 others which take part-time students only. Over 175 technical colleges provide instruction in one or more technologies at an advanced level, that is of Higher National Certificate standard.

Scotland has 16 Central Institutions for further education, of which seven are technical colleges. Five of these have full-time courses leading to their own diploma or associateship and, in some, the greater part of the work is full-time. The full-time courses are of three or four years' duration and comparable in scope and standard with university degree courses. There are close ties between the central institutions and the universities. The central institutions, working on a regional basis, are supported by some 50 local technical colleges, providing full-time and part-time day courses, and by evening classes at local centres.

In Northern Ireland, the system of technical education is similar to that in England and Wales and includes courses leading to national certificates. The Ministry of Education for Northern Ireland awards junior and senior trade scholarships to apprentices, to enable them to follow full-time courses of study at the

Belfast College of Technology. The junior course lasts five months and the senior course eight months.

The great majority of technical colleges and other further education establishments in the United Kingdom are either maintained or aided from public funds. Tuition fees are therefore moderate, and often nominal for young people under 18 years of age. Many full-time students are helped by awards from local education authorities. The awards are generally based on the results of the General Certificate of Education or a corresponding examination; they are assessed to cover tuition fees and a maintenance grant, but parents who can afford to contribute towards the cost are required to do so. There are also some scholarships available from endowments, and others are provided under schemes organised by particular industries or companies for the most promising of their young workers. In England and Wales, State scholarships (see p. 159) are available for advanced technological courses.

Adult Education

The extra-mural departments of the universities, the Workers' Educational Association and a few other voluntary bodies organise cultural, non-vocational courses for adults. These courses are grant-aided from public funds, and some 158,000 students in England and Wales attended them in the year 1956-57. Voluntary bodies with a particular view-point, such as the National Council of Labour Colleges and the Co-operative Union, also organise adult education courses without grant-aid. Six residential colleges (five in England and Wales and one in Scotland) directly aided by the Education Departments provide one-year or two-year cultural, non-vocational courses for adult students. In addition, there are about 30 other residential colleges where students can take short courses of a similar kind lasting for a few days or a few weeks. Most of these latter colleges are maintained or aided by local education authorities.

The National Institute of Adult Education provides in London a centre of information and research for adult education, as well as a channel of co-operation and consultation for the many organisations in England and Wales which are interested in the subject. It is assisted by a grant from the Ministry of Education. The Scottish Institute of Adult Education performs similar functions in Edinburgh.

Local education authorities can provide *community centres* for urban areas; these centres normally supply facilities for both vocational and non-vocational classes for the further education of young people and adults. The centres are usually managed by Community Associations, many of which are affiliated to the National Federation of Community Associations. Similar classes in rural areas are provided in village halls and a variety of other premises by local education authorities and voluntary bodies.

OVERSEAS STUDENTS IN BRITAIN

Opportunities for students from overseas to come to Britain to study in universities or other educational institutions, or to obtain specialised training in industry or elsewhere, have greatly expanded since the second world war. There are some 35,000 overseas students in Britain, of whom about one-third are at universities, another third at technical colleges, and the remainder training for the law, in industry, or at hospitals as doctors or nurses. In the year 1957-58, Britain's universities contained 7,000 students from Commonwealth countries overseas and

nearly 4,000 students from foreign countries. About 200 British Council¹ scholarships, tenable usually for one year in the United Kingdom, are awarded annually to graduates of overseas universities. Twelve Marshall Scholarships for university study in Britain are offered annually by the United Kingdom Government to graduates from the United States of America, and the universities and colleges themselves offer many scholarships for which graduate students of any nationality are eligible.

Universities and other educational institutions in the United Kingdom annually reserve a proportion of their places for students from the United Kingdom dependencies. At the end of 1957, there were 9,923 students from United Kingdom dependencies studying in the United Kingdom, many of them at universities. Of this number, 1,298 held scholarships. The chief sources of grants are funds set aside by Colonial Governments (sometimes supplemented by United Kingdom Colonial Development and Welfare funds) and funds provided by public boards and corporations in the territories.

A wide range of public and private fellowships and scholarships for advanced study in Britain are awarded annually to members of Commonwealth countries overseas. Under the Athlone Fellowship Scheme the United Kingdom Government has from 1951 awarded 38 fellowships a year to engineering graduates in Canada for up to two years' further study, training or research in institutions or industries in Britain.

Under the United Nations Programmes of Technical Assistance, 500 holders of fellowship awards came to Britain in 1957 for study or training, a larger number than were received in any other country. Similarly, under the Technical Co-operation Scheme of the Colombo Plan for Economic Development in South and South-East Asia, between 300 and 400 trainees annually come to Britain for industrial training or postgraduate research, for specialised instruction or for study visits of some kind.

Under the Baghdad Pact, about 30 fellowship holders a year, mainly in medicine or veterinary science, come to Britain; and under the British Technical Assistance Programme for Yugoslavia, 150 trainees will come to Britain over a period of eighteen months.

Arrangements for Overseas Students

Students from overseas are given many opportunities to get to know more of Britain in their leisure time and to make friends with British people. The British Council offers a wide range of interesting and instructive activities. The Council has overseas students' centres in London and in other university cities, which provide a varied programme of lectures, discussions and social and other activities. Many British people like to invite students to their homes and the British Council

¹ The *British Council* exists to promote a wider knowledge of the United Kingdom and the English language overseas and to develop closer cultural relations with other countries. It was founded in 1934 and was granted a Royal Charter in 1940. Nine of the 30 members of its Executive Committee are nominated by Government Departments; it is financed almost entirely from public funds, mainly through the Foreign Office. In the Commonwealth it acts directly as the agent of the Commonwealth Relations Office and the Colonial Office. It is usually designated as the Government's principal instrument for the implementation of cultural conventions to which the United Kingdom is a party. The Council maintains staffs who, in about 66 overseas countries, foster English studies, provide regular information on British life and thought and promote knowledge of the scientific, literary and other developments and achievements of the United Kingdom. It arranges study programmes in the United Kingdom for scholars, teachers and other professional visitors from overseas.

arranges introductions. In the vacations, there are courses in many parts of the United Kingdom which provide excellent opportunities for getting to know more about British life in town and country. In term time there are visits to various places of interest, and theatre and concert parties are arranged. The British Council assists many students to find accommodation, particularly those from the United Kingdom dependencies and from a number of other Commonwealth and foreign countries. They are met on arrival and helped to settle down quickly in their new environment.

Among many voluntary organisations which offer a welcome to overseas students are the East and West Friendship Council, Rotary, Round Table, the Victoria League, the Over-Seas League, the Royal Commonwealth Society, the National Union of Students, and churches of all denominations. In some London boroughs there are committees which help students to make contact with local residents and organisations.

YOUTH SERVICES

The object of the youth services in Britain is to provide for the leisure-time activities of young people and to offer them opportunities—complementary to those of home, formal education and work—for discovering and developing their personal resources, so that they may be better equipped to be responsible members of a free and civilised society. There is no regimentation of young people; they are free to join any of the youth organisations, or none, and the aim is that the facilities for recreation, educational pursuits and social contacts offered should be sufficiently varied to appeal to every type of boy and girl.

Responsibility for youth services is shared by the Education Departments, local education authorities and numerous voluntary organisations. There is no attempt to impose uniformity or to create anything in the nature of a national youth movement. Youth groups, the oldest-established of which have been active for over a century, have been developed and financed mainly by voluntary effort. Some of them now receive aid from public funds but all retain their independence of action. The practice of democratic self-government has an established place in most youth organisations and service to the community is encouraged. Over two million young people under 21 years of age are members of voluntary youth organisations in Britain.

Many of the youth organisations formed during the nineteenth century are religious in origin and purpose; for example, the *Young Men's Christian Association* (1844), the *Young Women's Christian Association* (1855), the *Girls' Friendly Society* (1875), the *Boys' Brigade* (1883), and the *Church Lads' Brigade* (1891). Later organisations, such as the *Boy Scouts* and *Girl Guides Associations*, which, as movements, have no definite affiliation to a religious body although local groups are often attached to a church or chapel, also recognise the importance of spiritual values in the formation of character and seek to inculcate high ideals of personal conduct and of service to others.

Local education authorities have been indirectly concerned with youth services since 1918, and in 1939 the then Board of Education decided to give active encouragement to youth welfare. The Board urged local education authorities to stimulate the provision of leisure activities for young people, both by co-operating with voluntary agencies and by establishing *Youth Centres* and other recreational facilities of their own. The status of youth services as an essential part of the educational system, thus recognised in 1939, was confirmed by the Education Act of 1944 and the Education (Scotland) Act of 1945.

All local education authorities are required to ensure that adequate facilities for the recreational and social needs of young people exist in their areas. In areas where voluntary youth organisations are well established, local education authorities cooperate with them, for example, by making grants, by offering the use of premises and playing fields, by lending equipment, and by employing youth organisers to help in the development of local youth work; and where existing services are inadequate, the authorities make provision themselves (usually in the form of youth centres and clubs). Most local education authorities have also appointed local youth committees or councils, on which official and voluntary bodies are represented.

In Northern Ireland, in accordance with strong local tradition, youth work is carried out mainly by voluntary organisations, which are eligible to receive financial assistance by way of direct grant from the Ministry of Education for Northern Ireland under the Youth Welfare, Physical Training and Recreation Acts (Northern Ireland), 1938-47. In practice, most of the necessary funds for the support of these organisations are found from voluntary sources. The substantial contribution of the local authorities under these Acts is made mainly in the provision of playing fields, swimming baths and other facilities. In addition, the local education authorities provide further education facilities, under the Education Acts (Northern Ireland), 1947-56, which in some respects approximate to the work of the voluntary organisations.

Twenty-four of the largest voluntary youth organisations, each with an adolescent membership in England and Wales of at least 10,000, belong to the *Standing Conference of National Voluntary Youth Organisations*. The Conference, with which other, smaller, youth groups are associated, was founded in 1936 as a consultative body which takes action only in the name of its constituent members and with their consent. Its member organisations have a common aim in the development of character through educational and recreational interests, and in the promotion of the physical, mental and spiritual training of their members. Scotland and Northern Ireland have separate Standing Conferences, and there is a Regional Standing Conference for Wales.

In addition, each of the leading political parties maintains a junior organisation; and there are a number of bodies which, although not specifically youth organisations, promote the welfare of young people by providing them with opportunities for physical training, holidays, camping and travel.

Contacts with youth movements in other countries are promoted by the *World Assembly of Youth (WAY)*, which was founded in 1949, following a youth conference held in London in the previous year. The British National Committee of WAY includes representatives of most of the leading youth organisations in the United Kingdom.

Finance for youth work is provided by voluntary subscriptions from members of youth organisations and others, by the money-raising efforts of members, by contributions from local education authorities and direct grants from the Education Departments, and by grants from charitable trusts such as King George's Jubilee Trust and the King George VI Foundation.

The local education authorities finance youth work under their direct control and also assist the local clubs and branches of voluntary youth organisations. For their expenditure on this work they receive grant-aid from the Education Departments.

Direct grants are made by the Education Departments to some national voluntary youth organisations towards the cost of headquarters administration and training and towards capital expenditure incurred by local branches.

Since its inauguration in 1935, King George's Jubilee Trust has contributed over £1 million for youth work, and the King George VI Foundation (created in

1953) has allocated a similar sum to finance three schemes for the provision of youth leadership training courses, national recreation centres and youth hostels. In addition, the Foundation undertook in 1955 to provide £50,000 to finance the five-year experimental period of a nation-wide scheme, the Duke of Edinburgh's Award, designed to encourage young people to attain high standards of achievement in various spheres of endeavour, and to develop their fitness, initiative and determination.

Some Voluntary Youth Organisations

The following examples are selected to illustrate the variety and wide scope of the services and activities provided by voluntary organisations in Britain concerned with the welfare of young people in their leisure hours. Among the other numerous voluntary youth organisations are the *Catholic Young Men's Society*, the *Methodist Association of Youth Clubs* and other religious groups, the *Co-operative Youth Movement*, and the *Welsh League of Youth*.

Scouts and Guides

The *Boy Scouts Association* and the *Girl Guides Association*, which were founded by Lord Baden-Powell in 1908 and 1910 respectively, aim to develop character and good citizenship in boys and girls by training them in habits of observation, self-reliance, self-discipline, loyalty and consideration for others, and by promoting physical fitness and a knowledge of useful crafts. Both associations have world-wide affiliations, and are undenominational and non-political in character.

In March 1958, there were 260,000 Boy Scouts (aged 11 to 15 years), Senior Scouts (15 to 18) and Rovers (over 17½ years) in the United Kingdom. This total includes Sea Scouts and Air Scouts. There were also 247,000 Wolf Cubs (aged 8 to 11 years). At the end of 1957 there were 238,000 Girl Guides in the United Kingdom, including Cadets and Land, Sea and Air Rangers (aged 15 to 21 years). There were also 248,000 Brownies (aged 7½ to 11 years).

Other Uniformed Organisations

The *Boys' Brigade*, founded in 1883, is essentially a Protestant religious organisation. Every company is attached to a church, and regular attendance at church is a vital principle. Companies have frequent drill parades, there are club rooms for games and other pastimes, and summer camps are held.

The *Church Lads' Brigade*, founded in 1891, is a similar organisation attached to the Anglican Church. Companies are formed in parishes under the direct control of the incumbent. Summer camps are a special feature of the Brigade.

The *Girls' Life Brigade*, founded in 1902, is an inter-denominational organisation. Each company is connected with a church or other religious body.

The *National Association of Training Corps for Girls* comprises the *Girls' Training Corps*, the *Girls' Nautical Training Corps* and the *Women's Junior Air Corps*. Each constituent corps, besides its special activities, gives a basic training in physical education, health and hygiene, craftsmanship and public affairs. Cadets are trained for responsibility through personal service.

National Associations of Clubs

The *National Association of Boys' Clubs* and the *National Association of Mixed Clubs and Girls' Clubs* provide recreational facilities for young people designed to develop their mental, physical and spiritual well-being. Discussion groups, handicrafts, drama, music and many other activities are encouraged.

Pre-Service Organisations

Pre-Service organisations, which comprise the *Sea Cadet Corps*, the *Army Cadet Force*, the *Combined Cadet Force* and the *Air Training Corps* (see pp. 116, 119 and 122), have special connections with the respective Service Departments and receive financial grants from them. The training of boys for entry into the armed forces provided by these organisations is linked with training to promote their social, educational and physical development.

Young Farmers' Clubs

The *National Federation of Young Farmers' Clubs* (see also the Agriculture section of Chapter IX) instructs its members in agricultural subjects and rural crafts, and each club has the support of an advisory committee on which local farmers are represented.

Youth Sections of Adult Organisations

Youth Sections are maintained by several adult voluntary organisations which have a particular function; for example, the *British Red Cross Society* and the *St. John Ambulance Brigade* train their young members in first aid and home-nursing.

Political Party Youth Groups

Youth groups which are junior branches of the political parties in the United Kingdom are maintained by each of the leading parties to stimulate interest in politics, to spread knowledge of party policy among young people, and to obtain party recruits. Members are encouraged to form debating societies and to engage in other social activities, and they are trained to take an active part in party politics. These groups receive no aid from public funds.

Other Bodies Concerned with Youth Work*Outward Bound Trust*

The Outward Bound Trust, founded in 1946, maintains mountain schools at Eskdale and at Ullswater, in the Lake District, and sea schools at Aberdovey, in North Wales, and at Burghead, Morayshire, in Scotland. In these schools it provides four-week character-building courses for boys, mainly young employees of industrial firms sent at their employers' expense. The boys live as a community and are given the opportunity to assess and develop their qualities of courage, endurance, initiative and self-discipline in learning the techniques of sailing or of rock-climbing, by various physical tests, and in expeditions over rough hill country lasting several days. Similar, but modified, courses are held for girls.

Youth Hostels Associations

The Youth Hostels Association (YHA), which was founded in 1930, seeks to promote a greater knowledge of, and love for, the countryside. It caters for young people of limited means by providing hostels where they can stay for a small charge when on walking or cycling tours or canoe trips. In 1957, the YHA in England and Wales had a membership of 190,000; it maintains about 270 hostels in England and Wales. The Scottish YHA has 33,600 members and about 90 hostels, and the Northern Ireland Association, 4,100 members and 16 hostels. The YHA is linked closely with similar organisations in other countries and, through its International Travel Bureau, it encourages and facilitates the exchange of visits.

The Central Council of Physical Recreation

The Central Council of Physical Recreation, on which the leading voluntary youth organisations are represented and from which they receive practical and advisory services, is grant-aided by the Ministry of Education, by the corresponding Department in Northern Ireland, and by the King George VI Foundation. It was established in 1935 to improve the physical and mental health of the community through physical recreation. The Central Council arranges training courses and provides instructors in games and athletics for young people and adults who wish to learn new forms of physical recreation or to improve their standards under expert tuition, and it plans and judges athletic competitions and organises demonstrations of sport and physical training. It also arranges training holidays for young people in its three National Recreation Centres. The corresponding body in Scotland, the Scottish Council of Physical Recreation, which is grant-aided by the Scottish Education Department, maintains the Scottish Centre of Outdoor Training and also a National Recreation Centre, which was established with funds provided by the King George VI Foundation.

The National Playing Fields Association

The National Playing Fields Association is a central organisation, founded in 1925, with 54 affiliated county and city associations throughout England and Wales, and branches covering Scotland and Northern Ireland. The Association encourages the provision and preservation of public playing fields and playgrounds for the present and future needs of all sections of the community and advises local authorities and sports organisations on the acquisition, layout, construction and use of grounds. It also keeps a watch on all matters relating to playing fields, endeavours to stimulate recreational activity by grants, publications and persuasion, carries out technical research and pioneers new ideas. The Association has spent over £1 million since its inception in providing public playing fields and playgrounds. It also provides an information service for Commonwealth countries overseas.

V. HOUSING AND PLANNING

PROBLEMS AND ADMINISTRATION

Britain is a small country with a large population, and a population moreover which has increased sevenfold in the last two and a half centuries. This increase has been accompanied by rapid industrial expansion. In consequence, the problems of planning, in town and country alike, spring mainly from the intensity of competing demands for land and from the unplanned concentration of most of the population in a few very large industrial areas. Similarly, the problems of housing in large part reflect the attraction of population into industrial areas, and also the poor quality of much of the housing erected in the nineteenth century, now in course of replacement.

Ministerial Responsibility for Housing and Planning

The Minister of Housing and Local Government is responsible in England and Wales for formulating housing policy, for housing standards and for general supervision of the housing programme. In planning, the Minister is responsible for implementing general policy regarding the use and development of land throughout England and Wales, and for the direction and guidance of local planning authorities, the New Towns Development Corporations and the National Parks Commission in the carrying out of their planning functions.

The Secretary of State for Scotland has similar responsibilities in Scotland.

In Northern Ireland, the Minister of Health and Local Government is responsible for housing and planning.

The Ministry of Works acts as production authority in Great Britain for the building industry. The Agricultural Departments are responsible for advising on the agricultural value of land proposed for housing or other development. The Board of Trade is responsible for regulating the distribution of industrial development. An Inter-Departmental Committee on Services' Land Requirements meets to harmonise Service and civilian needs and proposals for land use.

HOUSING

While responsibility for housing policy and for the general execution of the housing programme rests with the Minister (see above), local authorities have executive responsibilities (as set out below) for housing in their areas.

HOUSING AUTHORITIES

In England and Wales and Northern Ireland, the local housing authorities are the councils of county boroughs, boroughs (including metropolitan boroughs), urban districts and rural districts, the London County Council and the Common Council of the City of London. In Scotland, all town and county councils are housing authorities.

Housing Powers and Duties of Local Authorities

The local housing authorities are responsible for ensuring as far as possible that housing conditions in their areas are satisfactory. They are empowered to provide housing accommodation themselves by erecting houses on land acquired by them, by acquisition of suitable houses, or by the conversion of existing buildings; and they are responsible for ensuring that unfit houses are demolished or closed.

Scottish Special Housing Association

The Scottish Special Housing Association, a statutory body, assists local authorities in their housing programmes. It has built about one in eight of the permanent post-war houses completed in Scotland. The Association is financed entirely from Government funds and is under the general direction of the Secretary of State for Scotland.

Northern Ireland Housing Trust

The Northern Ireland Housing Trust, a statutory body, was established in 1945 for the purpose of erecting houses for letting to supplement the activities of local authorities. The Trust has built about a quarter of Northern Ireland's post-war houses.

PROGRESS AND POLICY

There are in all about 15½ million houses in the United Kingdom: 13½ million in England and Wales, 1½ million in Scotland, and nearly half a million in Northern Ireland.

Housebuilding was restarted after the second world war early in 1945. By mid-1958, three million new permanent houses had been built in the United Kingdom since the war, besides nearly 160,000 temporary houses (some of which have now been replaced). Many other means have been employed to rehouse the families needing homes, including repair and reconditioning of war-damaged and other dilapidated property and the adaptation and conversion of old houses.

When the most pressing needs for additional accommodation had been met, the local housing authorities were, in 1954, required to prepare proposals for dealing with houses unfit for human habitation, in order to hasten slum clearance; and it is on slum clearance that the main emphasis in local authority housing is now laid. During 1956 and 1957 over 100,000 unfit dwellings in Great Britain were demolished or closed pending demolition. A similar campaign was launched in Northern Ireland at the end of 1956.

New Building

The agencies for building houses in Britain are local authorities, private builders, New Towns Development Corporations, certain Government Departments which need to house the families of the armed forces or other services, and housing associations (which are non-profit-making bodies providing houses mostly for letting rather than for sale).

Local authorities (that is, for the most part, private builders under contract to local authorities) have built nearly three-quarters of the permanent houses completed since the second world war. In the first post-war period, when resources were very limited and the demand for houses urgent and widespread, local authorities were made responsible for the greater part of the programme. Since the beginning of 1952, private enterprise has been able to build an increasing proportion of the new houses; the restrictions on private building imposed by the post-war licensing system were finally abolished in November 1954.

In 1957, 268,653 new houses were completed in England and Wales, 32,437 in Scotland, and 6,500 in Northern Ireland. Of the United Kingdom total of 307,590, 55 per cent were built by housing authorities and New Towns Development Corporations, 42 per cent by private builders, and the remainder by Government Departments and voluntary housing associations.

Local authority houses are normally built for letting, and privately built houses for owner-occupation. In England, Wales and Scotland, local authority houses may be sold on certain conditions, with the consent of the Minister, to occupying tenants or to persons in need of a house for their own use.

The central Departments have issued manuals of guidance for local authorities setting standards of space, structure, design and equipment for different types of houses, and describing how estates can be laid out attractively while saving land and money, by the use of new and improved types of layout.

Slum Clearance

Because of the need to concentrate on providing new houses for families without a separate home of their own, slum clearance was virtually in abeyance for some years after the end of the second world war, and the number of houses demolished was relatively small. With the increase in the number of new houses it became possible, however, to resume the campaign of slum clearance which the war had interrupted.

Returns made by local housing authorities in 1955 indicated that there were about one million slum dwellings in Great Britain which ought to be cleared. In England and Wales, about 850,000, or 6·5 per cent of all houses, were estimated to be unfit for habitation. In Scotland, over 150,000 houses (about 10 per cent of all houses) were estimated to be unfit and due for demolition.

During 1956, local authorities in England and Wales demolished 35,000 unfit houses, involving 108,000 occupants. During 1957, 44,000 houses were demolished, involving 148,000 occupants—an increase of 26 per cent and 37 per cent respectively over the previous year. In Scotland, the total figure of houses demolished or closed during the two years was 21,000.

At the present rate of progress, many local authorities will have completed their programmes by the end of 1960 or soon after; in some of the larger industrial towns, however, where there are a great number of small, obsolete dwellings, mostly dating from the nineteenth century, completion will necessarily take much longer.

To help in those areas where the number of slum houses is so large that it would not be practicable to replace all of them within the next few years, local authorities are empowered to acquire houses unfit for human habitation and to repair them in order that they may be occupied for a strictly limited period pending their demolition. The intention is that these houses should be demolished as early as possible: temporary repairs are not intended as an alternative to slum clearance. Exchequer contributions are available to meet part of the costs of acquisition and essential repairs.

Housing authorities are under a statutory obligation to see that other accommodation exists or can be provided by them for persons to be displaced from slum clearance areas. Compensation is not payable for the demolition of a house unfit for human habitation, but, in England and Wales, owner-occupiers and business occupiers may, in certain circumstances, receive payments to alleviate hardship. Payments are also awarded, where appropriate, in recognition of good maintenance. Hardship payments are not provided in Scotland, where the basis of compensation for unfit houses is different, but payments in recognition of good maintenance are available as in England and Wales.

An Exchequer subsidy is payable to the local authority for every dwelling built to rehouse a family displaced from an unfit house.

Preservation of Old Houses of Distinction

Special consideration is given to safeguarding old houses of charm and distinction. As a result of a national survey, all those of outstanding merit are listed and protected from demolition; although, where their condition makes it necessary, they may be closed and no longer used for habitation. Certain other buildings possessing a degree of architectural or artistic merit, though not qualifying for inclusion on the national list, have been saved from demolition by works of repair and reconstruction undertaken as a result of local efforts.

HOUSING FINANCE

The average 3-bedroom house built by a local authority in England and Wales in 1957 had a superficial area of about 908 square feet and cost about £1,486 to build. Trends affecting the cost of building in recent years have been a reduction in size due to the adoption of space-saving designs, and improved productivity to which the greater use of mechanical plant and better organisation and management have contributed. These factors have helped to offset increases in wages and cost of materials.

The initial capital cost of houses built by or for local authorities is met by raising loans; current expenditure, including loan repayment and interest on loans, is met from rents, rates and, where available, subsidies. Local authorities may raise loans for housing either in the open market or by borrowing from the Public Works Loan Board.

Funds for private enterprise housing are obtained in the main by borrowing. The chief agencies concerned in lending money are the building societies, insurance companies, industrial and provident societies, and local authorities.

Subsidies

Housing subsidies, at varying rates and for varying purposes, have been provided in Britain since 1919. After the second world war, high rates of subsidy, payable annually for 60 years, were provided for all new local authority houses. In England and Wales, a standard rate of subsidy was paid for ordinary flats or houses built to meet general needs, and special rates of subsidy were provided for special types of housing (e.g., high blocks of flats and blocks of flats built on expensive sites), houses built for special purposes (e.g., for the agricultural population) and houses in special areas (e.g., poor areas of low rate-paying capacity).

The Housing Subsidies Act, 1956, continued the subsidies on these three special categories of housing but it initiated a change of policy. It provided a higher rate of subsidy (£24 a house a year) for houses built to relieve congestion in overcrowded areas, houses built by New Towns Development Corporations and houses built to meet the urgent needs of industry, while continuing at the same rate as before (£22 1s. a house a year) the subsidy on houses built to replace slums; but it reduced, and provided for the abolition of, the standard subsidy on new dwellings built for general needs. This was reduced to £10 a house a year and it was abolished as from November 1956, except in respect of one-bedroom dwellings as an encouragement to the provision of accommodation for elderly and single persons.

For those flats still eligible for subsidy, higher rates are payable for blocks of four or more storeys. There is also a subsidy for residential hostels built by local authorities or by certain other bodies. The Housing (Financial Provisions) Act, 1958, consolidates the legislation on housing subsidies in England and Wales.

Housing subsidies are separately provided for in Scotland and Northern Ireland where the amounts are generally higher on account of the different circumstances. Subsidy rates in Scotland were revised under the Housing and Town Development (Scotland) Act, 1957. These include a subsidy of £24 a house a year for housing to meet general needs, with higher rates of subsidy for special needs, particularly houses built to meet the urgent needs of industry and to relieve congestion in overcrowded areas. In Northern Ireland, annual subsidies are paid for 60 years to local authorities, the Northern Ireland Housing Trust and housing associations. The Housing Subsidy Order (Northern Ireland), 1956, altered the basis on which subsidy is paid, and prescribed a subsidy higher than the standard rate in respect of houses for persons displaced from slum houses. In addition 'lump sum' subsidies are paid to private persons who build houses for letting or for owner-occupation. Under the Housing on Farms Act (Northern Ireland), 1950, grants are available for the provision of new houses and for the reconditioning of existing premises to accommodate farmers and approved workers.

The cost of housing subsidies in the United Kingdom for the calendar year 1957 was £111 million (£80 million paid by the central Government and £31 million paid by local authorities).

House Purchase Schemes

Loans to enable persons to buy their houses by a system of instalment purchase are provided by many local authorities as well as by building societies, certain insurance companies and other financial institutions.

Many local authorities also operate a scheme whereby, for a house costing up to £2,500, they guarantee part of the loan made by a building society so that an advance greater than normal (up to 95 per cent of the value of the house in some cases) may be made to the purchaser. The Exchequer undertakes to share any liability local authorities may incur under this scheme.

Improvement Grants

The Housing Act, 1949, provides Exchequer assistance for the improvement of existing housing or adaptation of buildings for housing by local authorities or private owners in England and Wales. Grants can be made by local authorities, with Exchequer assistance, to persons converting or improving existing buildings for housing at a cost of over £100 a dwelling. The grants may amount to half the cost, with a maximum grant of £400. There are certain technical conditions which the dwellings as improved or converted must satisfy to ensure that public money is only spent on property that will provide satisfactory accommodation for a sufficiently long period. The Housing Repairs and Rents Act, 1954, considerably eased the conditions attaching to these grants. Similar provisions apply in Scotland and are contained in the Housing (Scotland) Act, 1950, and the Housing (Repairs and Rents) (Scotland) Act, 1954. In Northern Ireland, the scheme is operated under the provisions of the Housing (Miscellaneous Provisions) and Rent Restriction Law (Amendment) Act (Northern Ireland), 1956.

Rent Control

The majority of the privately owned houses in Great Britain which are let are subject to rent control. Houses owned by local authorities, New Towns Development Corporations, housing associations, and the Scottish Special Housing Association are, in general, free from control, as are new houses completed since 30th August, 1954.

In the autumn of 1956, the Government adopted a policy of progressive abolition of rent control on the grounds that the existing system led to deterioration and wasteful use of the nation's stock of housing accommodation.

The first Rent Restrictions Act was passed in 1915. The main Acts now in force, either wholly or in part, are the Rent and Mortgage Interest Restrictions Acts, 1920 to 1939, the Landlord and Tenant (Rent Control) Act, 1949, the Housing Repairs and Rents Acts, 1954, and the Rent Act, 1957.

The Rent Restrictions Acts, which apply, with few exceptions, to all unfurnished dwellings below a certain rateable value, limit the rent a landlord may legally recover from a tenant, while at the same time giving the tenant in most circumstances security of tenure. The Acts also make illegal most premiums for the grant of a tenancy of rent-controlled premises. Landlords restricted in this way are themselves protected against undue increases in rates of mortgage interest and against the calling in of mortgages so long as they pay the restricted interest due. The Housing Repairs and Rents Acts, 1954, allowed landlords to increase their rents to pay for repairs, subject to certain conditions and to a maximum limit.

The Rent Act, 1957, established, for houses which remain in control in England and Wales, revised rent limits more in keeping with the current value of money and the cost of maintenance, and permitted in Scotland an increase in controlled rents subject to certain conditions. It provided that new unfurnished lettings should be free of control, whether of the $4\frac{3}{4}$ million houses in owner-occupation when the Act was passed, or of controlled houses which fall vacant and are re-let. In addition, over 800,000 houses let at controlled rents were released from control by the lowering of the limits of rateable value below which rented houses are subject to control.¹ The Act provided for the de-control from time to time of further categories of houses by Order, subject to approval by Parliament; it also made certain exceptions and safeguards for the protection of tenants, including a 'stand-still' period of fifteen months (up to October 1958) during which tenants of premises decontrolled at the passing of the Act could not be compelled to quit. The Landlord and Tenant (Temporary Provisions) Act, 1958, enables decontrolled tenants to remain for a limited time after a notice to quit has expired, if they can satisfy a court that they are unable to find other accommodation and would suffer hardship. The Act is in force for three years.

In England and Wales, the rents payable for houses, or parts of houses, let furnished or in which services are provided, are controlled by the Furnished Houses (Rent Control) Act, 1946. The Rent Act, 1957, provided that if the premises let unfurnished would be above the rateable value limits for control, they should not, if let furnished, come within the scope of the Act of 1946. Local rent tribunals, appointed for the purpose, determine the rents of furnished lettings in cases referred to them by either party or by the local authority. Similar legislation for controlling rents of furnished lettings was passed for Scotland in 1943.

Somewhat similar measures of control apply in Northern Ireland. In 1951, however, legislation was passed which permitted prescribed increases in the rent of controlled houses, provided they were maintained in good repair; and the Housing (Miscellaneous Provisions) and Rent Restriction Law (Amendment) Act (Northern Ireland), 1956, provided for an increase of one-third in the rent levels fixed by the 1951 Act where the landlord had recently incurred expenditure of a certain amount on repairs. The 1956 Act also released from control houses with a net annual value of over £50 (with certain safeguards) and houses with a net annual value of over

¹ The limits under the Act are £40 a year in the London Metropolitan Police District and Scotland and £30 a year elsewhere. For definition of rateable value see p. 74.

£26 of which the landlord was in actual possession when the Act came into force, or of which he subsequently obtained possession.

TOWN AND COUNTRY PLANNING

The land of Britain is one of the most densely populated areas in the world and it is therefore of vital importance in the public interest that competing claims to its use should be settled in such a way that the necessary balance between them is maintained.

From 1909 onwards, the idea of the planned use of land was given a degree of expression in successive Acts of Parliament, but because the pattern of development over much of the country had already hardened into large unplanned urban concentrations (as a result of the industrialisation processes of the previous century) the powers granted to planning authorities by the early Acts were inadequate for the task in hand.

The twenty years between the two world wars were decades of expansion in industry, engineering and house-building; population was increasing, and there was a general movement towards better standards of living, and consequently a greater need for systematic planning than had hitherto been required. At the beginning of the nineteen-thirties, a major effort was made to consolidate and strengthen planning law and to extend the planning powers of central and local authorities to the point at which they could exercise effective control. Despite this effort, which culminated in the Town and Country Planning Act, 1932, inter-war planning legislation had only a limited effect, mainly because it failed to deal adequately with the question of compensation, which had always been an obstacle to satisfactory planning. By the nineteen-twenties, the principle had been accepted that the property of an individual might be subjected to restrictions in the public interest, provided that he received some compensation out of public funds for any deprivation (which went beyond the requirements of good neighbourliness) that he might suffer thereby. The method adopted for implementing this principle, however, placed so heavy a financial burden on planning authorities that they were often prevented from, or at least hampered in, carrying out their work. As a result, at the time of the outbreak of the second world war, many of the outstanding problems of land use remained unsolved.

Renewed efforts were made to deal with these problems immediately before and during the war. Between 1937 and 1942 three expert committees were appointed to study and report upon (1) the unregulated growth and spread of industry, (2) the hampering of planning by the financial and administrative difficulties of compensation and betterment and (3) the encroachment of urban development upon the countryside. After the war, other committees studied the question of New Towns and National Parks.

Almost all the principal planning recommendations of these committees have now been incorporated in Acts of Parliament, as follows: the Distribution of Industry Act, 1945; the New Towns Act, 1946; the Town and Country Planning Act, 1947; the Town and Country Planning (Scotland) Act, 1947; the National Parks and Access to the Countryside Act, 1949; the Town Development Act, 1952; the Town and Country Planning Act, 1953; the Town and Country Planning Act, 1954; the Town and Country Planning (Scotland) Act, 1954; and the Housing and Town Development (Scotland) Act, 1957. Town and country planning in Northern Ireland is governed by the Planning and Housing Act (Northern Ireland), 1931; the Planning (Interim Development) Act (Northern Ireland), 1944; and the Planning Acts Amendment Act (Northern Ireland), 1944.

Planning in Great Britain

The Town and Country Planning Act, 1947, and the Town and Country Planning (Scotland) Act, 1947, are comprehensive and radical measures which provide a framework or pattern of land use for the whole of Great Britain.

Their main purposes are:

1. To co-ordinate planning throughout Great Britain by means of development plans against which day-to-day development can be considered.
2. To bring development (with certain exceptions) under control by making it subject to the permission of a local planning authority or of a central Government Department.
3. To extend both the powers of public authorities to acquire and develop land for planning purposes, and the scope and scale of grants from central funds to local authorities towards carrying out the acquisition and clearing of land.
4. To deal with certain specific amenity problems, e.g., the preservation of trees and woodlands and of buildings of special historic or architectural interest, and the control of the display of advertisements.

The 1947 Acts also contained a number of financial provisions intended to solve the compensation-betterment problem which had previously hampered effective planning, but the system established proved unsatisfactory in operation, and amendments were therefore made in three subsequent Acts: the Town and Country Planning Act, 1953; the Town and Country Planning Act, 1954; and the Town and Country Planning (Scotland) Act, 1954. Under provisions of these Acts, compensation is now payable by the State for loss of development value through the imposition of planning restrictions (other than restrictions in the interest of 'good neighbourliness') up to the amount of any claim established under the Town and Country Planning Acts, 1947, for development value existing in 1948. On compulsory acquisition of land by a public authority, owners receive the existing use value of the land, and payment for any development value up to the amount of any claim which has been established or which could have been established, if made. This limitation of compensation enables local authorities to carry out their duties as planning authorities free from the financial burdens which restricted the scope of their operations during the inter-war years.

Development Plans

Under the terms of the 1947 Acts, local planning authorities in England and Wales and in Scotland are required to prepare, and submit to the Minister of Housing and Local Government and to the Secretary of State for Scotland respectively, development plans covering the whole of their districts, based on a survey of physical and other resources. By 30th June, 1958, all the planning authorities in England and Wales and 42 of the 57 in Scotland had already done so, and three-quarters of the plans in England and Wales, and 52 plans (including 13 part-plans and 28 amendment proposals) in Scotland, had been approved. The local planning authorities are: in England and Wales, county councils, county borough councils, or, in some areas, joint planning boards; and in Scotland, councils of counties and of large burghs, and the councils of the two small burghs of St. Andrews and Thurso. Provision is made in the Acts for a public inquiry or hearing before any plan receives ministerial approval, so that persons whose land is affected may have an opportunity to state their case, and for plans to be reviewed every five years. By 30th June, 1958, in England and Wales, 11 plans had been approved without

the need to hold an inquiry or hearing, and 138 inquiries and two hearings had been held, which varied in duration from one day to several weeks.

Individual plans for the reconstruction of parts of many of the large towns and cities in Great Britain have also been drawn up and approved, and in many places which suffered war damage, including Bristol, Coventry, Exeter, Kingston-upon-Hull, Portsmouth, Plymouth and Southampton, considerable progress has been made. In the City of London, projects valued at about £40 million had been completed by the end of June 1958.

The Distribution of Industry

The Distribution of Industry Acts, 1945 and 1950, and the Town and Country Planning Acts, 1947, contain provisions to control the location of industry throughout the country, which are described in the first section of Chapter IX, Industry.

General problems of industrial development are dealt with jointly by a number of Government Departments, but the main responsibility for controlling the siting of industry as apart from its general location rests with the local planning authorities, for it is their duty to ensure that industrial development fits properly into existing and expanding communities and is consistent with the best use of land.

New Towns

The New Towns Act, 1946, gives the Minister of Housing and Local Government and the Secretary of State for Scotland, who are the responsible ministers, powers to make an order designating any area of land (which may include as its nucleus the area of an existing town) as the site of a proposed new town, after consultation with the local authorities concerned and if it is in the public interest to do so. Once the site has been designated, the responsible minister appoints a Development Corporation (consisting of a chairman and up to eight other members) to be responsible for the development of the new town. One of the first tasks of the development corporation is to prepare a master plan which becomes the basis for development proposals, each of which covers a part of the area. Every proposal must be submitted to the responsible minister who must consult the local planning authority and, together with the Treasury, must be satisfied with the proposal on economic grounds before giving approval.

The development corporations have powers in general (subject to the consent of the Minister of Housing and Local Government or the Secretary of State for Scotland) to acquire, by agreement or compulsory purchase, any land or property in these areas which is necessary for their purposes, and they may provide housing, commercial and industrial premises, estate roads and other buildings or services essential for the development of the towns. In England and Wales, the Minister of Housing and Local Government has made a special development order to exempt the development corporations from the necessity of obtaining planning permission from the local planning authorities; but in Scotland, in the absence of a similar order, permission to develop has to be obtained from the local planning authority.

The capital cost of developing the new towns is advanced to the corporations from public funds and must be repaid on terms approved by the ministers with the concurrence of the Treasury. The corporations must submit their reports (which must include copies of their audited accounts) annually to the Minister or to the Secretary of State for Scotland, who are responsible for laying them before Parliament.

Fifteen new towns are coming into being in Great Britain (see map, p. 179)—twelve in England and Wales and three in Scotland. Eight of the new towns in England and Wales—Basildon and Harlow in Essex; Hemel Hempstead, Stevenage,

New Towns National Parks & Forest Parks



Hatfield and Welwyn in Hertfordshire; Crawley in Sussex; and Bracknell in Berkshire—are designed to help in absorbing excess population from the Greater London area; four others—Corby in Northamptonshire; Aycliffe and Peterlee in Durham; and Cwmbran in Monmouthshire—are to serve the special needs of their areas. Of the Scottish new towns, East Kilbride in Lanarkshire and Cumbernauld in Dunbartonshire are being established to assist in housing the surplus population from Glasgow; Glenrothes in Fife will also make a contribution towards the relief of Glasgow overspill, but its primary function is to provide housing and other facilities for miners and their families transferring to an area where mining activities are steadily expanding.

In spite of the fact that the development corporations have been somewhat handicapped by shortages of materials and labour and for a time by restrictions on capital investment, their work represents a notable achievement in the translation of planning into reality. By the end of June 1958, the total population of the new towns in England and Wales, designed to be 550,000 when the towns are completed, had reached an estimated total of 348,000 (including the people previously living in the area); 62,852 houses had been built by the development corporations, and a further 8,575 were under construction; 314 factories had been established and a further 39 were being erected; 1,123 shops had been completed, and 435 more were being built; 106 schools had been finished and 27 more were under construction. Many miles of roads had been laid, and large main sewerage works had kept pace with domestic and industrial needs.

In the Scottish new towns, by the same date, the population, eventually to be 125,000, had reached an estimated figure of just over 38,600; 7,667 houses had been built, with a further 2,138 under construction; 90 shops had been completed and 23 were under construction; 10 new schools were in use, and the extension of communications and public services was under way.

Under the New Towns Act of 1946, Parliament approved a consolidated fund of £50 million to provide for advances to the development corporations for work on the new towns. This fund was increased by subsequent Acts and, in 1958, stood at £300 million. By the end of June 1958, £240 million of expenditure from this amount had been approved by the Minister of Housing and Local Government and the Secretary of State for Scotland.

National Parks and Access to the Countryside

The National Parks and Access to the Countryside Act, 1949, provided for the designation of a number of extensive areas of beautiful country in England and Wales as National Parks. In these areas the characteristic landscape is to be carefully preserved, and facilities for open-air recreation may be provided or improved.

A National Parks Commission for England and Wales was set up by the Act of 1949, and by June 1958 its work had resulted in the establishment of ten of the twelve National Parks recommended by the National Parks (England and Wales) Committee, which reported in 1947.

The established parks are: the Peak District, the Lake District, Snowdonia in North Wales, Dartmoor in Devon, the Pembrokeshire Coast, the North York Moors, the Yorkshire Dales, Exmoor in Devon and Somerset, Northumberland (comprising most of the upland country from the Cheviots in the north to the Roman Wall in the south), and the Brecon Beacons in South Wales (see map, p. 179). These parks cover a total area of 5,254 square miles, almost one-eleventh of the area of England and Wales. The administrative arrangements for the parks are as follows: the Peak District and Lake District National Parks are administered by

joint planning boards; for Dartmoor, the Pembrokeshire Coast, the North York Moors and Northumberland, special park planning committees of the respective county councils concerned have been set up; while in Snowdonia, the Yorkshire Dales and Exmoor (which include areas of more than one county council) there are special park planning committees of each of the constituent county councils concerned with the parks. Each of the separate planning committees is advised by a park joint advisory committee concerned with the whole park. All these authorities control development in the parks and take such positive action as they deem necessary to enhance natural beauty (e.g., by restoring derelict land, by removing unsightly structures, and by tree planting), and to promote the enjoyment of the area by the public (e.g., by providing car parks, camping sites or other kinds of accommodation). Government grants of 75 per cent are available towards certain approved expenditure.

Under the provisions of the 1949 Act, the Commission was also given authority to select other, possibly less extensive, areas in England and Wales for designation as 'areas of outstanding natural beauty' in order to keep them unspoiled. By the end of June 1958, five such areas had been established, two others had been designated, and proposals for a further ten were under consideration.

A Scottish National Parks Working Party has considered all five areas recommended as National Parks in Scotland—the Trossachs, Glen Affric, the Cairngorms, Wester Ross (Loch Maree) and Glen Coe—with a view to their possible development under existing statutory powers, and has submitted to the Secretary of State for Scotland a report on each of these areas.

In addition to the establishment of National Parks, the Act provided that a complete survey should be made of all footpaths and bridle-ways in England and Wales to be a comprehensive national record of public rights of way and that long-distance routes should be created, which by connecting existing footpaths and bridle-ways would become continuous rights of way. Individual surveys of footpaths are being carried out by parish and county district councils; on completion, they are collated and published by the county councils. Responsibility for making proposals for long-distance routes rests with the National Parks Commission; once the proposals are approved by the Minister of Housing and Local Government, it falls to the local authorities to give effect to them. By the end of June 1958, the National Parks Commission's proposals for the creation of five routes, covering some 850 miles, had been approved (see map, p. 179); progress had been made by means of surveys, cairn building and footpath agreements, towards their completion; and discussions were taking place between the Commission and the relevant local authorities regarding the establishment of several more routes of this kind.

The Act also gives local authorities the task of surveying in their areas the access enjoyed by the public to open country, i.e. mountain, moor, heath, down, cliff or foreshore, and empowers them to improve such access, where necessary, by means of agreements with owners or by access orders. By June 1958, considerable areas of the Peak district had been opened to the public by this means.

National Forest Parks

The Forestry Commission has opened to the public eight National Forest Parks in Great Britain (see map, p. 179): Argyll, Glen Trool, Glen More, and Loch Ard (renamed the Queen Elizabeth Forest Park to commemorate the Coronation) in Scotland; Hardknott and Forest of Dean in England; Snowdonia in Wales; and the Border Forest Park (adjoining the Northumberland National Park to the westward), which was declared in September 1955 and includes forests on the borders of Northumberland and Cumberland in England and of Roxburghshire in Scotland.

The total area of the eight parks is nearly half a million acres, including planted areas and unplanted moorland and mountains. Camping facilities are provided in most of the parks.

Nature Conservation

The responsibility for nature conservation rests with the Nature Conservancy (see the Science section of Chapter VII), which derives the necessary powers for the proper discharge of its functions from the National Parks and Access to the Countryside Act, 1949. The object of conservation, which is to influence soils, water, vegetation and animal life, either directly or indirectly by means of research, experiment and control, entails the acquisition and management of a representative series of Reserves, as well as the establishment of laboratories for use in long-term research schemes.

Sixty-five Nature Reserves, covering 128,096 acres in Great Britain, had been declared by the end of June 1958. The Cairngorms Reserve, which covers 39,639 acres, is the largest of these; it is also one of the largest in Europe. In addition, two Forest Nature Reserves (which are not under the control of the Nature Conservancy) have been set up, by the Forestry Commission and the Crown Estate Commissioners, to be managed in the interest of ecological research and of timber production.

In addition to national Nature Reserves and Forest Nature Reserves, there were, by end-June 1958, six local Nature Reserves, established and administered by local authorities, in consultation with the Nature Conservancy, using their own powers under the Act.

Apart from the statutory Nature Reserves, there are also a number of non-statutory reserves managed by societies such as the Society for the Promotion of Nature Reserves, County Naturalists' Trusts and the Royal Society for the Protection of Birds. Under bird protection legislation, powers have long existed to create statutory bird sanctuaries, where interference with birds and their eggs is penalised.

Preservation of Amenities

Responsibility for the preservation of the historic, scenic and architectural beauties of Great Britain is vested mainly in the Minister of Housing and Local Government, the Secretary of State for Scotland, and the various statutory planning authorities and commissions. The Ministry of Works is also concerned, both because it is the Department responsible for the maintenance of royal parks and palaces and because it is empowered by the provisions of the Historic Buildings and Ancient Monuments Act, 1953, to assist in the preservation of historic houses by making grants (after consultation with specially constituted Historic Buildings Councils) for their upkeep together with their contents and their adjoining land. By end-July 1958, grants totalling £1,650,000 had been paid towards the cost of urgently needed structural repairs to 546 historic buildings in England, Scotland and Wales.

Unofficial amenity societies, wholly dependent upon the support of their members, include: the Council for the Preservation of Rural England, founded in 1926 to organise concerted action to secure the protection of rural scenery and of town and country amenities from disfigurement or injury; the Association for the Preservation of Rural Scotland, founded in 1927 for the protection of rural scenery and the amenities of country districts and towns and villages in Scotland; the Commons, Open Spaces and Footpaths Preservation Society; the Ramblers' Association; the Society for the Protection of Ancient Buildings; the Pilgrim Trust;

the National Trust for Places of Historic Interest or Natural Beauty in England, Wales and Northern Ireland; and the National Trust for Scotland. The National Trust for England, Wales and Northern Ireland (which was founded in 1895 and by 1958 had nearly 70,000 members) is (apart from the Crown) the largest land-owner in the United Kingdom. It has acquired, mainly through gifts, over a thousand properties, which it holds for the enjoyment of the public; it administers more than 250,000 acres of land of great natural beauty; and it owns many fine gardens. The National Trust for Scotland, an independent body, founded in 1931 to promote the preservation of places of historic or architectural interest or of natural beauty in Scotland for the benefit of the public, now has about 12,000 members and has under its care some 60 properties, covering in all about 55,000 acres.

Planning in Northern Ireland

The Planning and Housing Act (Northern Ireland), 1931, which is the main source from which power to prepare a planning scheme is derived, provides for the preparation by local authorities of planning schemes for development or redevelopment of their areas, with the general object of securing proper sanitary conditions and amenities in connection with the laying out and use of land. The Interim Development Act of 1944 enables persons wishing to carry out development to do so without delay, while ensuring that such development shall conform to the provisions likely to be included in the planning scheme for the area.

The provisions of the Acts brought all land in Northern Ireland under planning control and required every local authority to prepare a planning scheme for its area. Interim control is exercised in accordance with the section of the 1944 Act which requires that, where application is made to an authority for permission to develop, the authority may grant the application conditionally or unconditionally or may refuse it altogether. In the event of a refusal or conditional approval, the applicant has a right to appeal to the Ministry of Health and Local Government for Northern Ireland (which is the Department primarily responsible for the administration of the Planning Acts) or to an independent person appointed by the Ministry.

Since 1944, all local planning authorities in Northern Ireland have made appreciable progress in the preparation of outline plans which indicate broadly the proposals for their areas. The outline plans provide a foundation for the preparation of more detailed plans at a later stage and also facilitate materially the work of interim development control. Many interim development applications have been decided by local planning authorities, and appeals lodged with the Ministry have been relatively few.

Northern Ireland Forest Park

In May 1955, Northern Ireland's first forest park at Tollymore Park, Newcastle, County Down, was opened to the public. Situated at the foot of the Mountains of Mourne, it covers an area of 1,200 acres. It contains an arboretum comprising a wide variety of native and exotic trees, and is rich in mountain, river and parkland scenery. Caravan facilities and a camping site for youth organisations are available.

VI. THE CHURCHES

Every person living in Britain possesses the right of religious freedom as described in Article 18 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights: he may change his religion at will, and may manifest his faith in teaching, worship and observance. Churches and religious societies of all kinds may own property, conduct schools, and propagate their beliefs in speech and in writing.

Freedom of conscience in religious matters was achieved gradually from the seventeenth century onwards; in many cases, relaxation in the administration of laws discriminating against minority religious groups preceded the repeal of the legislation concerned. Heresy ceased to be a civil offence with the passing of the Ecclesiastical Jurisdiction Act, 1677, and the Toleration Act of 1688 granted freedom of worship to Protestant dissenters. In 1828, the repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts freed nonconformists from political disabilities and made it possible for them to be appointed to public offices; Roman Catholics gained political emancipation under the Roman Catholic Relief Act, 1829; the Jewish Relief Act, 1858, enabled Jews to become members of Parliament; while religious tests that had been imposed on prospective students and members of the academic staff of the universities of Oxford, Cambridge and Durham were successively abolished by Acts of 1854, 1856 and 1871. Nowadays, public offices are open without distinction to members of all religious groups or of none.¹

In the services administered by the State, such as the armed forces, the national hospitals, and the prisons, the clergy of the established Church of England or the Church of Scotland provide the principal ministrations and are paid a salary by the State for this part of their work. Chaplains of the Roman Catholic Church and ministers of other denominations may also be appointed or specially called in as required. Voluntary schools (see the Education section of Chapter IV) provided by churches of any religious denomination may be wholly or partly maintained from public funds.

There is no precisely accurate or uniform method of assessing the number of adherents to the various churches in the United Kingdom, since no inquiries are made about religious beliefs in population censuses or other official returns, and each church adopts different criteria in counting its members. The membership figures given in the following sections should therefore be taken as approximate.

Church of England

The Church of England is the Established Church, and claims to be the ancient Catholic Church of the land. At the Reformation in the sixteenth century, it repudiated the supremacy of the Pope, but retained the historic episcopate, and the creeds and sacraments upon which its doctrines are based; therefore it claims to be both Catholic and Reformed. Its form of worship is embodied in the Book of Common Prayer, which was first compiled in 1549.

Relations with the State

No single Act of Parliament defines the position of the Church of England in the way that the Treaty of Union, 1707, for example, defines the position of the Church

¹ An exception is that the Lord Chancellor may not be a Roman Catholic.

of Scotland. In England, the relationship of Church and State is one of mutual obligation—privileges accorded to the Church which are balanced by certain duties.

The Church is uniquely related to the Crown, in that the Sovereign, who must be a member of the Church of England, is called 'Defender of the Faith' (a statutory title as protector of the Church) and promises on his or her accession to uphold it. The coronation of the Sovereign is performed by the Archbishop of Canterbury, Primate of all England; prayers for the Sovereign and other members of the royal family are said in all the statutory services of the Church; all bishops and deans are appointed by the Sovereign on the advice of the Prime Minister; and all clergy take the oath of allegiance to the Crown.

The Church is further linked with the State through the House of Lords, in which the two archbishops of Canterbury and York and the twenty-four senior diocesan bishops have seats. This makes it possible for the views of the Church leaders to be expressed freely on any moral issue raised in connection with the corporate conduct of the State, as well as on specifically ecclesiastical issues—a matter of particular significance in view of the fact that clergy of the Church of England (together with those of the Church of Scotland, the Church of Ireland and the Roman Catholic Church) are legally disqualified from sitting in the House of Commons.

The Church is not free to change its form of worship, as laid down in the Book of Common Prayer, without the consent of Parliament; canon laws (Church rules) cannot be made or amended without the consent of the Queen in Council; and the measures of the Church Assembly (as distinct from their regulations) are not valid without parliamentary assent.

Church Organisation and Government

The Church is organised by geographical areas, and not by congregations. There are 43 dioceses in England, each under a bishop, which are grouped into two provinces, each under an archbishop: Canterbury (29 dioceses) and York (14 dioceses). The dioceses are sub-divided into ecclesiastical parishes, of which there are well over 14,000. Everyone in England is born in a parish; many more people than regularly attend the Established Church tend to look to it for such personal ministrations as baptism, marriage and burial; and the parish Church is expected to play an active part in local life.

Spiritual authority in the Church rests with the bishops. The authoritative bodies in matters of doctrine, belief and practice are the Convocations of Canterbury and York, each presided over by its archbishop, and consisting of an upper house of bishops, and a lower house of representatives of each cathedral chapter, archdeacons and elected clergy. The Convocations meet not more than three times a year.

The legislative and central administrative body of the Church is the National Assembly of the Church of England, which is commonly called the Church Assembly. It was set up by the Crown in 1919 at the request of the two Convocations, and was given power to legislate by measure by the Church of England Assembly (Powers) Act of 1919. It can discuss any matter connected with the Church of England, but may not make any doctrinal statements, nor infringe upon the rights of the Convocations. It consists of three houses: bishops, clergy and laity. The first two houses are composed of the members of the Convocations; the house of laity consists of men and women elected every five years by the lay members of diocesan conferences, and the constitution allows for 10 co-opted members.

The Church Assembly usually meets three times a year. Measures, after passing through various stages in the Assembly, are presented to an ecclesiastical committee

of both Houses of Parliament, consisting of 30 members, of whom 15 are appointed by the Lord Chancellor and 15 by the Speaker of the House of Commons. This committee lays the measures, together with a report upon them, before both Houses. If both Houses so resolve, the measure is then sent to the Sovereign for Royal Assent, after which the measure has the same force and effect as an Act of Parliament. Parliament, though it may reject a measure, has no power to amend it.

The Assembly is the centre of an administrative system, consisting of boards and councils dealing with various aspects of the Church's work, such as education, training for the ministry, social responsibility, and Church work overseas.

Parochial church councils were set up by a measure in 1921 to associate the laity with the government of the Church in the parish. The members of these councils are appointed by the parochial electors, i.e. persons who are baptised, are not members of any other church, are over 17 years of age, and who have applied for membership of the electoral roll of the parish where they habitually reside or worship. The estimated number on the parish electoral rolls in 1958 was three and a quarter million.

The Church of England has its own ecclesiastical courts. Their jurisdiction, as it is exercised today, consists almost entirely of faculty cases, with occasional cases of discipline against clergy, either for moral or ecclesiastical offences. A faculty is necessary for any specific alteration or addition to the fabric or ornaments of a church or to a churchyard.

Church Finance

Each parish is responsible for its own finances, and also contributes an annual fixed quota to diocesan funds, and each diocese similarly contributes to the Church Assembly. In the diocese, the financial authority is the diocesan board of finance, which administers the money contributed by the parishes, and acts as trustee on behalf of the parochial church councils, which have only limited powers of holding property. The Church Assembly fund and various other central funds (including that for the training of ordination candidates) are administered by the Central Board of Finance of the Church of England.

The Church Commissioners, a body created by measure in 1947 to replace the former Ecclesiastical Commissioners and Queen Anne's Bounty, administers the endowment income of the Church. It is largely responsible for the payment of stipends of the clergy, and it also provides finances for pensions, new churches, parsonage houses, and church schools. The total income from investments in the financial year 1956-57 was £11,765,096. The total annual income of the Church is estimated to be approximately £27¼ million; no precise figure can be given.

The Anglican Communion

In the United Kingdom, there are unestablished Anglican Churches in Ireland, Scotland and Wales: the Church of Ireland (disestablished in 1869) has six dioceses in Northern Ireland (four of which are situated partly in the Irish Republic) and some 354,000 members; the Episcopal Church in Scotland, 7 dioceses, 377 churches and some 108,000 members; and the Church in Wales (disestablished in 1920) 6 dioceses and some 200,000 Easter communicants.

Outside the United Kingdom the Anglican Communion exists wherever Englishmen have gone as settlers, traders and missionaries. The Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States of America, the Church of India, Pakistan, Burma and Ceylon, and the Anglican Churches of South Africa, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, the West Indies, China, Japan, the Middle East, West Africa and Central Africa are all autonomous members of the Anglican Communion, while there are

21 overseas dioceses, mainly in Africa and Asia, which are under the jurisdiction of the Archbishop of Canterbury. In addition, terms of limited inter-communion with the Church of South India, similar to those already existing between that Church and the Church of India, Pakistan, Burma and Ceylon, were laid down in resolutions passed by the Convocation of Canterbury in 1955.

Since 1867, except for the war years, the Lambeth Conference has met every tenth year as an unofficial consultation between all Anglican bishops, presided over by the Archbishop of Canterbury; the last meeting, which was held in London during July and August 1958, was attended by 310 bishops from all parts of the Anglican Communion. The conference has no executive authority, but enjoys great moral prestige, and its findings on doctrine, discipline, relations with other communions, and on the attitude of the Anglican churches to political and social questions are widely studied.

The Church of Scotland

The established Church in Scotland is the Church of Scotland, which in government is presbyterian. It has been described as 'the supreme example of a church which is established and yet is free'. Its position, defined in the Treaty of Union, 1707, was further safeguarded by the Church of Scotland Act, 1921.

Whereas in episcopacy, church government is a hierarchy of persons, in presbyterianism there is a hierarchy of courts. All ministers are of equal status, and each of the 2,280 churches is governed locally by a Kirk Session, consisting of the minister and elected elders (of whom there are over 43,000 in all): above this is the Court of the Presbytery, then the Court of the Synod, and finally the General Assembly, which meets annually and consists of elected ministers and elders presided over by an elected Moderator who serves for one year. The Sovereign is represented at the General Assembly by the Lord High Commissioner. The Church of Scotland has fought with the utmost vigour throughout the years for complete freedom in all spiritual matters and for the right to appoint its own officers and to decide all matters of doctrine and discipline. This freedom is recognised by Parliament, and the decisions of the Church of Scotland are not subject to parliamentary debate or modification.

The thorough training of the ministry—lasting a minimum of six years—has given the church a high reputation for scholarship and has in turn influenced the standard of education in Scotland. The communicant membership of the Church of Scotland in 1958 was 1,320,000.

The Free Churches

The phrase 'Free Churches' has now come into common use, especially to describe in England those churches which were more generally known in the past as Nonconformist Churches. Strictly speaking, all churches in Wales and Northern Ireland are Free Churches, since in those countries there is no Established Church, but the churches usually described as Free Churches are the Methodist, Baptist, and Congregational Churches, and the Presbyterian Churches (other than the Church of Scotland). There are other religious associations, e.g., the Society of Friends and the Salvation Army, which have links in certain ways with the main Free Churches.

The word 'nonconformist' signifies dissent from certain of the formularies and practices of the Church of England. The Free Churches would more positively affirm that the reason for their existence is a deep conviction about the nature of religious worship. The Baptist, Congregational and Presbyterian Churches have

their roots in the Reformation movement, and the Methodist Church originated in the evangelical revival led by John Wesley within the Church of England in the eighteenth century. The Baptist and Congregational Churches regard their churches as gathered covenanted communities of believers. The Presbyterian Churches lay great stress on the doctrine of the sovereignty of God and the way in which that should be reflected in religious observance.

The Methodist Churches

The largest of the Free Churches is the Methodist Church, the product of a union of Methodist Churches in 1932. It has some 740,000 adult full members. The supreme authority is the annual conference, and the system of government is in many ways presbyterian: the Leaders' Meeting corresponding to the Kirk Session, with Circuit Meetings and District Synods resembling Presbytery and Synod. One of the characteristics of Methodism is its strong emphasis on lay leadership. There are over 23,000 trained lay preachers sharing the ministers' work and preaching in thousands of local churches.

Methodist Churches which did not join the union in 1932 include: the Independent Methodists, in which ministerial service is on a purely voluntary basis and women (many of whom are ministers) have full equality with men; and the Wesleyan Reform Union which, while retaining the essential Methodist doctrine, gives autonomy to each of its 177 individual churches.

The Congregational and Baptist Churches

The Congregational and Baptist Churches are covenanted fellowships of believers; ministers (who may be men or women) are called to special service, and trained and recognised by the church. Local churches have formed county and national unions, whose secretariat and assemblies have much influence, but no compulsive authority over them, since great importance is attached to the autonomy of local church meetings.

The Congregationalists in Britain, including Welsh Independents, number approximately 340,000 and the Baptists 328,000 adult members. Baptists differ from Congregationalists in practising the baptism of adult believers only; they do not baptise infants.

The Unestablished Presbyterian Churches

The largest of the presbyterian churches outside the established Church of Scotland is the Presbyterian Church in Ireland; in Northern Ireland, there are 26 presbyteries (five of which are situated partly in the Irish Republic) and the membership is in the region of 410,000. The Presbyterian (or Calvinistic Methodist) Church of Wales, which arose from the revivalist movement led by Howell Harris in 1735, now embraces a considerable proportion of the Welsh-speaking population; its members number some 147,000. The Presbyterian Church of England is organised in 14 presbyteries; its highest court is the General Assembly; women are admitted to the eldership and ministry.

Other presbyterian churches in Britain include: 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 (which consists of 38 congregations and preaching stations, all but five of which are in Northern Ireland); and the Non-Subscribing Presbyterian Church of Ireland, comprising three presbyteries (two of which are in Northern Ireland), with 30 congregations.

Other Denominations

Among other Christian denominations in the United Kingdom are: the Unitarian and Free Christian Churches, which number about 330, with a membership of some 80,000, and are united by loyalty to the principle of freedom of thought in religion; the Churches of Christ (known also in the United States of America as Disciples of Christ) which have been an organised community in Great Britain since early in the nineteenth century, and have a membership of about 8,500; 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; the Society of Friends; and the Salvation Army.

The Society of Friends, or Quakers, was founded in the middle of the seventeenth century by George Fox. It has no ordained ministry and does not observe the sacraments. One of the chief characteristics of the Quakers is their belief in pacifism and their firm adherence to pacifist methods. Their influence in many parts of the world, especially in social reform and in the relief of suffering, is very wide in relation to their numbers. There are about 21,500 Quakers in Britain; they have 436 places of worship.

The Salvation Army, founded by William Booth, a Methodist, in 1878, is a religious movement, composed of men and women who seek the spiritual and social betterment of their fellows, primarily by preaching the gospel to those hitherto untouched by religious effort. The movement, in which military rather than ecclesiastical terminology is used, has branches all over the world, and its social work (particularly that connected with the welfare of members of the British armed forces serving overseas) is well supported.

The Christian Scientists, who are in no way connected with any other church, have over 340 branch churches and societies in Britain.

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, while the Irish hierarchy never became completely extinct. The normal government of the Church, namely by territorial archbishops and bishops, is once again the rule in the whole of the United Kingdom.

The central territorial unit of the Roman Catholic hierarchical organisation is the province or archdiocese under the metropolitan, who is always an archbishop. The chairman of the bench of bishops in England and Wales is the Archbishop of Westminster. A province normally comprises several dioceses, each under a bishop aided by a chapter of canons and others, and by priests in charge of the parishes into which the diocese is sub-divided. In England and Wales, in 1958, there were four provinces and archdioceses: Westminster, Liverpool, Birmingham and Cardiff; 14 dioceses; and 2,156 parishes. In Scotland, there were two provinces and archdioceses: St. Andrews and Edinburgh, and Glasgow; six dioceses; and 380 parishes. In Northern Ireland, there were five dioceses (several of which, since there is one hierarchy for the whole of Ireland, have territory partly in the Republic of Ireland and partly in Northern Ireland) all of these are in the Province of Armagh; and about 172 parishes. In the whole of the United Kingdom, there are over four and a half million adherents, including children, to the Roman Catholic faith.

The Roman Catholic Church attaches great importance to the education of Roman Catholic children in their own faith, and requires that the children of marriages between Roman Catholics and members of any other Church should be

brought up as Roman Catholics. Many schools for Roman Catholic children in the United Kingdom are staffed by members of the great Religious Orders for men and women, who also undertake other social work such as nursing, child care, and the conduct of homes for the aged.

Jewry

Jews first settled in England at the time of the Norman conquest, but were expelled at the beginning of the thirteenth century by an edict of Edward I. The present Anglo-Jewish community dates from 1656, the earliest arrivals being the Sephardi (from Spain and Portugal). At the end of the seventeenth century an Ashkenazi community (from Germany and East Europe) was established, which increased rapidly and spread to the principal provincial cities. By 1956, as a result of the virtual destruction of whole Jewish communities on the Continent during the second world war, the Anglo-Jewish community of some 400,000 had become the largest group of Jews in Europe.

The Anglo-Jewish community is divided into two schools of thought, each of which has its own form of worship and its own services: the Orthodox (the original groups) and the Reform. The Reform Movement, which attaches less religious importance to some of the ancient rituals and practices of the Jewish faith, began in 1840. It was followed in 1901 by the establishment of the Liberal Jewish Movement which, in addition, lays emphasis on the reinterpretation of traditional Judaism in the light of modern thought and custom. Of the Jews in Great Britain who belong to any kind of synagogue, about 80 per cent are Orthodox. The Chief Rabbi is the head of the largest group (Ashkenazi) within Orthodox Jewry; the Haham is the head of the Sephardi group.

Synagogues in Britain of all sections of Jewry number approximately 445, including 17 Liberal and 15 Reform congregations. There are a few schools which cater exclusively for Jewish children, but the vast majority attend the ordinary State or independent schools, and receive extra-curricular instruction in the Jewish faith.

Other Religious Communities

Among other non-Christian communities in Britain, the Moslems are the most widely represented. The principal mosque is the Shah Jehan Mosque at Woking, and there are also mosques in London, Birmingham, Manchester, Cardiff and Glasgow.

A Buddhist temple was ceremonially opened in South Kensington, London, in May 1954; and other premises were opened in 1956 as a meeting place and discussion centre for adherents of Buddhism.

Co-operation between the Churches

An outstanding feature of recent years has been the growth of co-operation between the Churches. The British Council of Churches was founded in 1942 and includes official representatives from almost all the churches of the British Isles, with the notable exception of the Roman Catholic Church. The Council facilitates common action between the churches and seeks to further the cause of Christian unity. The Archbishop of Canterbury is president. In addition, most though not all of the Free Churches in England and Wales are members of the Free Church Federal Council (formed in 1940 by the amalgamation of the Federal Council of Evangelical Free Churches with the National Free Church Council), the aims of which are to promote unity and joint action between the Free Churches, and to provide a channel through which the Free Churches can communicate and negotiate

with central and local government organs as a united body. Exploratory discussions on changes in organisation to allow of closer relations between the Church of England, the Church of Scotland, the Episcopal Church in Scotland, and the Presbyterian Church of England have been taking place for the last few years, and a report containing a number of proposals was issued in 1957. Conversations on the same subject are also being held between representatives of the Church of England and the Methodist Church.

The Anglican, Presbyterian and Free Churches in the four countries which make up the British Isles also participate in the World Council of Churches, which was constituted at Amsterdam, Netherlands, in 1948, and is to hold its third assembly in 1961 at the University of Ceylon. The Council links together 168 churches in over 50 nations for co-operation in action and the study of common problems.

Co-operation of other Churches with the Roman Catholic Church takes place on specific issues, but there is no machinery of continuous co-operation. The Council of Christians and Jews works for better understanding between members of the two religions, and deals with problems arising in the social field.

VII. PROMOTION OF THE SCIENCES AND THE ARTS

THE PROMOTION OF THE SCIENCES

While the promotion of the sciences in the United Kingdom is largely the concern of those learned societies and institutions devoted specifically to this end, only a small part of the research which is vital to science is carried out directly by them. Most of the 'pure' or 'fundamental' research is conducted in the universities, which also play an essential part in promoting the sciences by maintaining a steady supply of trained scientists. In practice, it has become impossible to distinguish clearly between science and its extensive applications in everyday life, with the result that scientific research in the widest sense has become the concern also of industry and of various Departments of Government.

In recent years it has become an acknowledged responsibility of the Government not only to undertake research directly but also to keep under review the facilities for the training of scientists, to encourage fundamental research, to finance certain research projects, and to ensure that adequate research is directed to matters of national interest. As a result a system of collaboration has developed between the universities, industry, the learned societies and the Government which is of great value to the community and leaves the greatest possible measure of freedom to individual scientists.

Though scientific research is carried out mainly under three different kinds of administration—university, industry and Government—there is strong liaison and close co-operation between them, while the learned societies remain free to play a most important part in the discussion and publication of the results of research.

Important work is also undertaken by independent organisations—for example, in medical research, by the British Empire Cancer Campaign, the Imperial Cancer Research Fund, the Nuffield Foundation, the Lister Institute of Preventive Medicine, the Wellcome Foundation and Trust, and by some large pharmaceutical firms. The Nuffield Foundation, which was established by Lord Nuffield in 1943, has a wider scope. Its aims are: the advancement of health and the prevention and relief of sickness; the advancement of social well-being; the care and comfort of the aged poor; the advancement of education; and such other charitable purposes as shall be declared by Lord Nuffield in his lifetime and by the trustees after his death. Prominent among the Foundation's many activities are the promotion of medical, scientific and social research and the development of medical services and of technical and commercial education. Its resources consist of a fund of £10 million provided by Lord Nuffield and of gifts and bequests from other persons.

THE LEARNED SOCIETIES

The learned societies have had a profound and lasting influence upon the development and organisation of science in Britain; not only have they provided the background for the continuity of research from the seventeenth century onwards, but they have been a meeting ground where all scientists can foregather for the exchange

of ideas, and a reliable source from which new ideas for the enrichment of knowledge can flow. Although today the bulk of research operations is conducted under auspices other than theirs, the learned societies have retained their traditional function of facilitating the spread of scientific knowledge and the application of new discoveries.

At present there are over 200 learned scientific societies in Britain with approximately 400 scientific publications. There are also numerous technical institutions and professional associations, many of which are playing a distinguished part in promoting their own branches of science and are interested in the education and professional well-being of their members. Prominent examples of these are the British Medical Association, the Institution of Civil Engineers, the Institution of Mechanical Engineers, the Institution of Electrical Engineers, the Institution of Metallurgists, the Royal Institute of Chemistry, the Institute of Physics, and the Institute of Biology.

The Royal Society (or, more fully, the Royal Society of London), founded in 1660, occupies a unique place in the country's scientific affairs, although for two centuries scientists were in a minority among its members, whose interests lay mainly in history, art, archaeology or exploration. The Society has always been independent of State control but its advice on scientific matters has frequently been sought by the Government. Today its influence remains as strong as ever and its Fellows serve on most of the official advisory councils and committees in the scientific field.

Its Fellowship consists of approximately 500 eminent scientists and 50 foreign members. Admission of the former is restricted to 25 a year, and of the latter to four a year; a few eminent non-scientists are also elected to Fellowships. The Society maintains a library (145,000 books of a purely scientific nature), issues a large number of publications, including the *Philosophical Transactions* and the *Proceedings*, and convenes conferences which are attended by scientists from all countries.

In addition, the Society is responsible for the administration of many research funds and special funds derived from various sources and a number of Government grants. These funds and grants are used for the promotion of science through research, publications, congresses, the award of medals, lectures, and in many other ways. The highest honour bestowed by the Society is the Copley medal, for which scientists of all nationalities are eligible.

The Royal Society of Arts (originally the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures and Commerce) was founded in 1754, and as it was the first society of its kind its work was at first very wide, covering scientific, technical, industrial and commercial matters on a world-wide scale. As institutions devoted to the specialised branches of science and industry came to be established, the Society gradually abandoned some of its earlier fields of work, but it is still a recognised forum for the discussion of technical and other subjects.

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 work of Sir Humphry Davy and Michael Faraday who established a tradition of research. Today, the Institution has extensive research laboratories, and lectures are given on the recent developments in science and other

branches of knowledge. Its library of some 70,000 books includes many early scientific works and manuscripts.

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. Its 13 sections cover the whole range of pure and applied science other than medical science, and there is a division for studying the social and international relations of science. In addition to the Annual Meeting and in order to extend its influence, the Association plans continuous activities throughout the year, in particular special lectures, exhibitions and discussions (some designed for young audiences), the publication of pamphlets, the organisation of conferences, the appointment of study groups and liaison with the Press and with sound and television broadcasting services. Collaboration with other scientific organisations has always been an important function of the British Association, and it has an organised relationship with over 150 scientific bodies and learned societies. It has also played an important part in the development of science by taking or recommending action to remove obstacles to the discovery and application of scientific knowledge.

UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES OF TECHNOLOGY

According to a survey carried out by the Ministry of Labour and National Service, the number of qualified scientists and engineers (i.e. holders of degrees or diplomas, or members of certain professional institutions) in employment in Great Britain at the beginning of 1956 was 142,000, including some 7,000 engaged in postgraduate research at universities and on National Service. Starting from these figures the Committee on Scientific Manpower of the Advisory Council on Scientific Policy has estimated that over the next ten to fifteen years the present annual output of some 10,000 qualified scientists and engineers should be raised to 20,000. The Government has accepted this figure as a reasonable goal and will support measures to ensure that the universities and technical colleges together will be able to produce at least this number.

The Universities

The universities carry the main responsibility for the pursuit of fundamental research and for the training of scientists. During recent years there has also been a considerable expansion of technological training and research facilities within the universities, all of which now offer work in one or more technological subjects.

Eighteen of the 22 universities of the United Kingdom have faculties of engineering; chemical and aeronautical engineering have been developed in recent years. Universities in industrial centres have developed studies relating to their local industries, such as metallurgy at Birmingham, Sheffield, Swansea and other centres of the steel industry, and naval architecture and marine engineering at Glasgow, Liverpool, Durham and Southampton. In the textile areas, Manchester offers courses in textile chemistry and engineering and Leeds has specialised in courses and research in connection with the wool textile industry, including colour chemistry and dyeing. Leeds is the only university in Britain to offer courses in the chemistry of leather manufacture, and Manchester in paper technology. Sheffield is unique for its department of glass technology—the pioneer among such departments in the world.

Nearly all universities and university colleges in the United Kingdom have laboratories or research departments. Over 70 per cent of the recurrent income of

the universities and virtually the whole of their money for new building comes from Government sources. There is no direct departmental control and the method of administering the grant—through the University Grants Committee—is designed to ensure academic freedom. Additional funds for the prosecution of research are also secured in some instances by the private endowment of research fellowships generally awarded by the universities to selected persons, or by grants from outside bodies tenable at the universities. Examples are the Leverhulme Fellowships, the Imperial Chemical Industries Fellowships and the research grants of the Nuffield Foundation.

The universities are also assisted by grants from industry and commerce and from the Government Research Councils. An example of the close co-operation that has been achieved between several branches of industry and the research departments of universities is the Glass Delegation of the University of Sheffield. This is responsible for the general direction of the work of the Department of Glass Technology and is composed of members appointed by the Council of the University and representatives of firms and companies who subscribe funds for the furtherance of training and research. Another example of co-operation between a Government Department, an independent organisation and a university is the world's largest steerable pencil-beam radio telescope at Jodrell Bank, Cheshire, financed jointly by the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research, the Nuffield Foundation, and Manchester University, which has been responsible for its development. The telescope is used mainly for the study of stars detectable only from their emission of electromagnetic waves, very distant nebulae and galaxies.

Technical Colleges

The Government's plans for a large-scale and rapid expansion of education in advanced technology (see *Cmd. 9703*, issued in February 1956, and pp. 160-3) include the increase of advanced work at technical colleges as well as at the universities. Certain technical colleges in England and Wales, which concentrate entirely on advanced work, including postgraduate and research work, have been designated as 'colleges of advanced technology'. There are so far eight in number: the Birmingham College of Technology; the Bradford Institute of Technology; the Welsh College of Advanced Technology, Cardiff; Loughborough College of Technology; the Royal Technical College, Salford; and, in London, the Battersea, Chelsea and Northampton Colleges of Advanced Technology. In the south-west of England, Bristol College of Technology has been selected as a potential college of advanced technology, and Rutherford Technical College, Newcastle upon Tyne, has been chosen from those on the north-east coast.

In Scotland, advanced instruction in a wide range of technologies is given at Central Institutions (see p. 162).

Most postgraduate studentships and fellowships awarded by the Government Research Councils may be held at colleges of advanced technology and technical colleges as well as at universities.

RESEARCH IN INDUSTRY

Industrial research in Britain is conducted by individual industrial firms and organisations independently of Government aid, by co-operative Research Associations which are assisted in varying degrees by the Government, by sponsored research institutes, and by universities and some of the major technical colleges. The main nationalised industries have their own research establishments and also give financial support to organisations concerned with research into matters of interest to them.

Research Associations

A scheme to form Research Associations, by which the Government associated itself with groups of firms having similar interests, was started in 1915, on the recommendation of the then newly formed Advisory Council for Scientific and Industrial Research. In 1958 there were 46 such Research Associations with a combined income of £4 million, of which about one-third is contributed by the Government through the Industrial Grants Committee of the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research. The amounts of the Government grants are related to the contributions made by the industries concerned.

The Research Associations are autonomous bodies, governed by their own councils, the large majority of whose members are representatives of industry. The councils are advised by research committees in the preparation of research programmes. The Research Associations make the results of their work known to their industries by a variety of methods, among which are bulletins, publications, lectures, films, training classes, exhibitions and mobile demonstration units.

Sponsored Research Institutes. A number of sponsored research institutes have been established to meet the needs of private firms which are unable to maintain fully equipped research laboratories. In these institutes research can be carried out confidentially so that the results and any patents which may arise are retained as the property of the sponsoring body. The principal institutes of this type are the *Fulmer Research Institute* and the *Sondes Place Research Institute*.

National Research Development Corporation. The National Research Development Corporation (NRDC) was set up by the Board of Trade in 1948. Its primary function is to develop, in the public interest, inventions resulting from research carried out by Government Departments and other public bodies. Under the Development of Inventions Act, 1954, however, NRDC is allowed, on certain conditions, to initiate research as well as to develop inventions resulting from research. It is an independent body, subject only to general direction by the Board of Trade, with powers to borrow from Government funds up to £5 million in the first ten years of its life. Projects selected for development include electronic digital computers, Merton diffraction gratings, a lightweight power unit, a potato harvester, printed electrical circuits, and towed flexible oil barges.

GOVERNMENT RESEARCH ORGANISATION

Early Developments

Although the active participation by the Government in scientific effort is, for the most part, a twentieth century development, its association with science dates from a much earlier time. Interest in navigation led Charles II in 1675 to establish Britain's first State-supported institution—the Royal Observatory at Greenwich, now transferred to Herstmonceux, Sussex—for the purpose of correcting the tables of the positions of the moon and fixed stars 'for the use of his seamen'. The Geological Survey of Great Britain—the first national institution of its kind in the world—originated in 1835. In 1842 the Department of the Government Chemist was founded, and in 1854 the Meteorological Office was established by the Board of Trade 'for the safe-guarding of seamen'. All these Government Departments were using scientific knowledge but there was little organised effort towards the application of the discoveries made in pure science. Government scientific organisation, like many British institutions, evolved gradually in response to the changing social and economic circumstances of the times.

The need for research in physics and engineering, and particularly into methods

of precise measurement, led to the establishment of the National Physical Laboratory under the control of the Royal Society in 1900, with a modest grant from the Treasury towards equipment and a yearly grant towards upkeep.

From 1909, however, the Government assumed a wider responsibility for promoting and encouraging scientific research and since that time its assistance has been adapted to meet the rapidly changing conditions in industry and education.

The Development Commission, appointed in 1909 by the Government, recommended that financial aid should be made available from the Development Fund to 'aid and develop agriculture and rural industries by promoting scientific research'. In 1911 the Development Fund was used to establish a scheme which led to the formation of most of the present-day agricultural research institutes.

In 1913 a Medical Research Committee (the forerunner of the Medical Research Council) was appointed to administer the research funds provided under the National Health Insurance Act of 1911.

Up to the outbreak of the first world war, the Government's contribution to scientific research was made directly through such organisations as these, and indirectly through grants administered on its behalf by such bodies as the Royal Society and the Imperial College of Science and Technology in London.

The recognition of the importance of scientific research and of the application of scientific knowledge to commerce and industry led to the establishment of the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research (DSIR) as a separate Government Department in 1916.

In 1918 financial responsibility for the National Physical Laboratory was transferred from the Royal Society to the DSIR, although the Royal Society continued to advise on the scientific direction of the Laboratory.

The Forestry Commissioners were appointed in 1919 with powers to undertake and aid research for the promotion of forestry.

In 1920 the Government established the Medical Research Council with a grant-in-aid provided directly by Parliament. The Agricultural Research Council was established in 1931. In addition to its duties as adviser to the Development Commissioners and the Agricultural Departments (for England and Wales and for Scotland), the Council was given funds of its own from which grants could be made for special research projects. The Nature Conservancy was set up in 1949.

During the second world war a Scientific Advisory Committee to the War Cabinet was created, with the object of co-ordinating defence research and civil research.

The Lord President of the Council, as the Minister responsible for the Research Councils and as President of the Scientific Advisory Committee, came to be regarded as the member of the Cabinet responsible for the direction of Government scientific organisation.

Post-war Developments

In 1947, the Government established an Advisory Council on Scientific Policy 'to advise the Lord President of the Council in the exercise of his responsibility for the formulation and execution of Government scientific policy'. The 15 members of the Advisory Council, who are appointed by the Lord President, include eminent scientists drawn from the universities, industry and Government service, and senior Government officials.

In the same year the Defence Research Policy Committee was established 'to advise the Minister of Defence and Chiefs of Staff on matters connected with the formulation of scientific policy in the defence field'.

These two bodies replaced the Scientific Advisory Committee to the War Cabinet.

In order to give adequate attention to each of the subjects within its wide range of interest, the Advisory Council has established the following standing committees:

- the Committee on Scientific Manpower;
- the Scientific Library and Technical Information Committee; and
- the Committee on Overseas Scientific Relations.

Government Machinery for Civil Scientific Research

The principles underlying Government scientific organisation are briefly as follows:

1. The Lord President of the Council is responsible for the formulation and execution of Government scientific policy and is advised by the Advisory Council on Scientific Policy on general questions which relate to the whole field of civil science.
2. The Lord President is the Minister responsible to Parliament for the Council for Scientific and Industrial Research, the Medical Research Council, the Agricultural Research Council, and the Nature Conservancy, and is chairman of the four Privy Council Committees to which they report—the Committees for Scientific and Industrial Research, Medical Research, Agricultural Research, and Nature Conservation.
3. The Prime Minister is the Minister responsible to Parliament for general oversight of the development of atomic energy, and appoints the members of the Atomic Energy Authority.
4. Other Ministers are responsible for the scientific establishments within their own Departments.
5. The Research Councils are not subject to departmental control, but their advice is at the disposal of the executive Departments and there is close liaison between them.

Department of Scientific and Industrial Research

The DSIR is responsible to the Committee of the Privy Council for Scientific and Industrial Research of which the Lord President is chairman. Since DSIR was set up in 1916, this Committee has been advised by an Advisory Council for Scientific and Industrial Research, which included in its membership eminent scientists and leading industrialists, two members closely connected with organised labour and assessors appointed by Government Departments. But, in 1955, with the large increase in the Department's work, the Government set up a Committee of Inquiry into its organisation.

The report of this Committee was accepted by the Government and its recommendations embodied in the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research Act, 1956. The first and main purpose of this Act was to replace the existing Advisory Council by an Executive Council for Scientific and Industrial Research; the second, to provide in a specific Act of Parliament for the expenditure of the Department to be met out of funds provided by Parliament.

The Council, which consists of a chairman and 12 members, is charged with the organisation, development and encouragement of scientific and industrial research and with the dissemination of the results of such research. In particular, it may:

- (1) encourage and support scientific research in universities, technical colleges and other institutions;
- (2) establish or develop institutions or departments of institutions for investigation and research relating to the advancement of trade and industry; and

- (3) take steps to further the practical application of the results of scientific and industrial research.

The DSIR discharges these functions through 13 national research organisations under its own control and direction and financed from its own Vote, and one, the Joint Fire Research Organisation, which is maintained by the Department and the Fire Offices' Committee; and also through the autonomous Research Associations.

The Council may also make grants for these purposes and grants for postgraduate instruction in science and technology to individual workers or to institutions.

The close contacts maintained between the DSIR and other Government Departments, Research Associations and other bodies help to ensure that the scientific resources of the Department are applied to the solution of problems which are of most importance to the national economy and are used to make the maximum contribution to improving industrial efficiency.

Under a five-year plan covering the years 1953 to 1958, DSIR's staff is being increased by about 800, and new buildings are being provided. Plans for the period 1959 to 1964 are in preparation.

Medical Research Council

The Medical Research Council (MRC), the successor of the Medical Research Committee, was incorporated under its present title by Royal Charter in 1920.

The MRC is responsible to the Committee of the Privy Council for Medical Research, of which the Lord President is chairman and the Secretaries of State for the Home Department, Scotland, Commonwealth Relations, and the Colonies, and the Ministers of Health and of Labour and National Service are members.

The members of the Council, appointed by the Committee of the Privy Council for a period normally of four years, are twelve in number. Nine members, representing the different branches of medical knowledge and the fundamental sciences on which these are based, are appointed after consultation with the President of the Royal Society and with the Council. On retirement these scientific members are not eligible for immediate reappointment. Of the three lay members of the Council, one must be a member of the House of Lords and one a member of the House of Commons.

The Council's chief function is to promote scientific investigations to obtain new knowledge likely to be of value in the field of curative and preventive medicine. In planning and carrying out its research programme, the Council is often assisted by special committees which it appoints to advise on particular subjects. The arrangements for the support of research fall under three main headings:

- (1) investigations by members of the Council's scientific staff, mostly working in the Council's own research establishments;
- (2) temporary research grants to independent investigators in universities and elsewhere; and
- (3) research fellowships and scholarships for tenure both at home and abroad.

The Council's own research activities are mainly undertaken in the National Institute for Medical Research, at Mill Hill and Hampstead, London, and in some 60 smaller establishments, generally known as Research Units or Groups, which are attached in most cases to universities and hospitals. In 1951, the Council assumed the major financial responsibility for the Institute of Cancer Research, which has continued to receive substantial support from the British Empire Cancer Campaign. The Council also undertakes medical research overseas and, with additional support from Colonial Development and Welfare funds, maintains laboratories in the Gambia and units in Uganda and Jamaica.

The MRC administers the Public Health Laboratory Service on behalf of the Ministry of Health.

Agricultural Research Council

The Agricultural Research Council (ARC) was established by Royal Charter in 1931. It is responsible to the Committee of the Privy Council for Agricultural Research, consisting of the Lord President of the Council, the Minister of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food and the Secretary of State for Scotland.

Under the Agricultural Research Act, 1956, the ARC was charged with the organisation and development of agricultural research, and an Agricultural Research Fund was established, into which are paid the Parliamentary grant-in-aid and other sums received by the Council, and out of which are met all expenses incurred by the Council under the Act or in accordance with the terms of its Charter. The accounts of the Fund are audited by the Comptroller and Auditor General.

The Council consists of not more than 18 nor fewer than 15 members, five of whom are appointed for their general experience of and interest in agriculture. Others are appointed by the Committee of the Privy Council, after consultation with the President of the Royal Society, on account of their qualifications in one or other of the sciences relating to agriculture. Included in the Council's membership are the Chief Scientific Adviser (Agriculture) and the Chief Veterinary Officer of the Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food, also one member appointed by the Minister of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food and one by the Secretary of State for Scotland. The Council has 19 research stations and units under its direct control in Great Britain.

Since 1st April, 1956, when the Agricultural Research Act came into force, responsibility for the administration and financing of the independent research institutes in England and Wales (but not in Scotland) was transferred to the Council from the Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food. The programmes of all these institutes are co-ordinated and approved by the Council and are integrated with those of the independent research institutes in Scotland and of the institutes and units directly controlled and financed by the Council.

The Council makes grants to universities and other recognised research institutions for special investigations, and awards research fellowships and postgraduate studentships in agricultural and veterinary science, agricultural and dairy engineering and statistics.

Nature Conservancy

The Nature Conservancy was established by Royal Charter in 1949 and is directly responsible to the Lord President of the Council as Chairman of the Privy Council Committee for Nature Conservation. Its functions, as summarised in the charter, are 'to provide scientific advice on the conservation and control of the natural flora and fauna of Great Britain; to establish, maintain and manage nature reserves in Great Britain, including the maintenance of physical features of scientific interest; and to organise and develop the research and scientific service related thereto'.

Research stations have been set up by the Conservancy at Merlewood, Grange-over-Sands in Lancashire, and Furzebrook, Wareham in Dorset, and field stations at Moor House, Westmorland, and at Anancaun, Ross-shire, where long-term ecological research is undertaken into such problems as the relation of vegetation to soils and climates, peat growth, effects of grazing and of moor burning, coastal erosion, roadside spraying and the spread of myxomatosis. Grants are made for research, and the Conservancy awards a number of postgraduate studentships annually.

Responsibility for Atomic Energy

Before 1946 the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research was responsible for atomic energy research and development.

From 1946 to the end of 1953 this responsibility rested with the Minister of Supply. By April 1953, however, because of its growing industrial applications, the Government had decided in principle to transfer responsibility for atomic energy from the Minister of Supply to a non-departmental organisation. On 1st January, 1954, ministerial responsibility was transferred to the Lord President of the Council, and, as an interim measure, a Department of Atomic Energy was set up to take over the functions of the Ministry of Supply in respect of atomic energy with the exception of weapons production.

The United Kingdom Atomic Energy Authority (UKAEA), established on 1st August, 1954, under the Atomic Energy Authority Act, 1954, took over responsibility, under the Lord President, for the Department of Atomic Energy. On 1st April, 1957, the Prime Minister assumed, by Order in Council, general responsibility for atomic energy in place of the Lord President.

The present position is that general responsibility for atomic energy research and development lies with the Prime Minister assisted by a small staff constituting the Atomic Energy Office, which is responsible among other things for international aspects of atomic energy in co-operation with the Foreign Office and Commonwealth Relations Office. The Minister of Supply is responsible for the development and production of atomic weapons for the Services in accordance with agreed defence policy; in practice, however, the Atomic Energy Authority produces the explosive nuclear material and the assemblies for atomic weapons under contract and carries out weapon research. The Minister of Power (in Scotland the Secretary of State) has a general responsibility for the civil nuclear programme; the power stations are being built and will be operated by the electricity authorities. The Admiralty is concerned (in close collaboration with the Authority) in the development of nuclear power for naval propulsion, and has a general responsibility for the application of nuclear propulsion in merchant ships; although practical development work is at present undertaken mainly by the Authority.

A number of other Government Departments are concerned with health and safety in the atomic energy field.

The Government is provided with expert advice on radiation hazards by the Medical and Agricultural Research Councils and by the Radioactive Substances Advisory Committee. This Committee advises Ministers on the administration of the Radioactive Substances Act, 1948, which deals with the restrictions necessary on the use of radioactive substances and apparatus producing radiation.

The Atomic Energy Authority

The Atomic Energy Authority, members of which are appointed by the Prime Minister, may consist of not fewer than eight and not more than eleven members, including the chairman.

The Authority, like other statutory public corporations, is free from day-to-day Government control (subject to the power given to the responsible Minister to issue directions to the Authority in matters of over-riding national importance), but differs from them in that the bulk of its revenue is derived from money voted by Parliament and in that its accounts are certified by the Comptroller and Auditor General.

The organisation is divided into three groups (see overleaf) controlling various establishments (see map p. 203), and has a London office which is responsible for

central financial, administrative and establishment matters, and for raw material procurement.

The *Research Group*, centred at Harwell, Berkshire, conducts research into all aspects of atomic energy. Much of its work is of a fundamental nature without direct regard to particular applications. In addition to numerous research reactors, Harwell houses *Hermes*—the largest isotope separator in Europe—and *Zeta* (Zero Energy Thermonuclear Assembly), with which remarkable progress towards the achievement of controlled thermonuclear reactions (the fusion process) was made when, in November 1957, temperatures of 5 million degrees centigrade were registered in the apparatus. Work has been started on designs for an advanced version (*Zeta II*) which the UKAEA hopes will produce much higher temperatures. This might open up the possibility of obtaining almost unlimited supplies of energy from ordinary water. Most of the applied research at Harwell is now devoted to peaceful uses of nuclear energy, although some assistance is given on specific problems relating to weapons.

Construction has started on a second main research centre at Winfrith Heath in Dorset, which will be concerned mainly with research into reactor design and development. It will function as an out-station of Harwell, from which all controlled thermonuclear work will be transferred to it during 1961–63. The Research Group is concerned with preparing and distributing radioisotopes and other radioactive substances; much of this work is done at the Radiochemical Centre, Amersham, Buckinghamshire, which has been enlarged to meet a demand for radioactive products which has more than trebled in the last three years. Harwell also runs an Isotope School, started in April 1951, and a Reactor School, started in September 1954, which provide training for home and overseas students.

The *Industrial Group* conducts the main production activities of the Authority. With headquarters at Risley, Lancashire, it has factories at Springfields, Lancashire (for uranium metal production and the manufacture of reactor fuel elements); Capenhurst, Cheshire (for the production of enriched uranium); Windscale, Cumberland (for the production of plutonium and the chemical processing of used fuel), where, although reactor No. 1 is out of action as a result of an accident in October 1957, the chemical separation plant is being enlarged; and Calder Hall, Cumberland (for the production of plutonium and electricity), where two pairs of reactors were expected to be in operation by the end of 1958. A similar plant to Calder Hall is under construction at Chapelcross, Dumfriesshire. The Industrial Group has a large research and development branch which carries out much of the applied research needed for factory design and operation. It is responsible for experimental stations at Dounreay, housing an experimental fast-breeder reactor, a materials testing reactor, and a prototype, land-based submarine reactor, and for research and development laboratories at Springfields, Windscale, Capenhurst, Culcheth and Dounreay. A Reactor Operation School was established at Calder Hall in 1957.

The *Weapons Group*, centred at Aldermaston, Berkshire, conducts research on and development of nuclear weapons, including the explosion of test weapons, both under Ministry of Supply contract and in its own right. The group also carries out research work on controlled thermonuclear reactions.

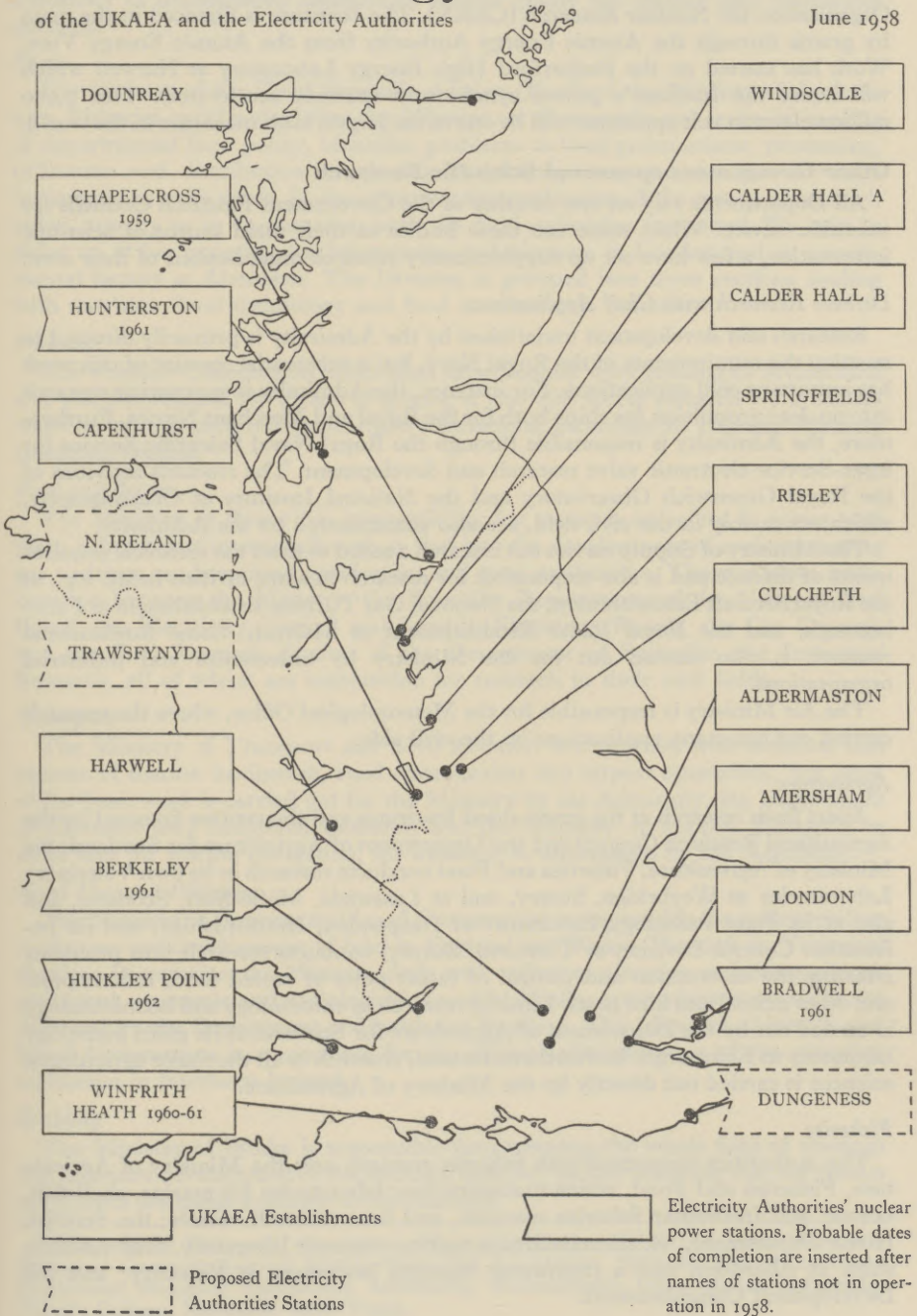
National Institute for Research in Nuclear Science

In February 1957, the Government set up a National Institute for Research in Nuclear Science, which provides, for common use by universities and others, facilities and equipment which are beyond the scope of individual universities and institutions carrying out research in the nuclear field. It does not replace the

Nuclear Energy Establishments

of the UKAEA and the Electricity Authorities

June 1958



research already being done in individual universities with assistance from Government funds; nor does it affect the Government's participation in the international scheme for common facilities set up in Geneva under the auspices of the European Organisation for Nuclear Research (CERN). The Institute is financed in the main by grants through the Atomic Energy Authority from the Atomic Energy Vote. Work has started on the Rutherford High Energy Laboratory at Harwell which will house the Institute's proton synchrotron (particle accelerator). This 7,000 million electron volt apparatus will be one of the largest such machines in the world.

Other Government-sponsored Scientific Research

All Departments rely on one or other of the Government Research Councils for scientific advice. While some use these bodies as their main source of scientific information, a few have set up supplementary research organisations of their own.

Defence Research with Civil Applications

Research and development undertaken by the Admiralty is primarily directed to meeting the requirements of the Royal Navy, but a substantial amount of this work has important civil applications. For instance, the Admiralty is sponsoring research into nuclear propulsion for ships both for the Royal and Merchant Navies. Furthermore, the Admiralty is responsible through the Royal Naval Scientific Service for inter-Service electronic valve research and development. The research activities of the Royal Greenwich Observatory and the National Institute of Oceanography, which are mainly in the civil field, are also administered by the Admiralty.

The Ministry of Supply carries out research needed to meet the technical requirements of defence and is also responsible for research in some civilian fields, e.g., at the Royal Aircraft Establishment, the National Gas Turbine Establishment at Farnborough, and the Royal Radar Establishment at Malvern. Some fundamental research is also carried out for the Ministry by universities and industrial organisations.

The Air Ministry is responsible for the Meteorological Office, where the research carried out has many applications on the civil side.

Agriculture

Apart from research at the grant-aided Institutes and the centres financed by the Agricultural Research Council and the Department of Agriculture for Scotland, the Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food conducts research in its own Veterinary Laboratories at Weybridge, Surrey, and at Lasswade, Midlothian, Scotland, and also at its Plant Pathology Laboratory at Harpenden, Hertfordshire; and its Infestation Control Division at Tolworth, Surrey, conducts research into problems affecting the destruction and control of insect pests of stored food, rodent pests and other animal and bird pests. Limited research in entomology and helminthology is carried out by the Department of Agriculture for Scotland at its plant pathology laboratory in Edinburgh. In Northern Ireland, research in all the major agricultural sciences is carried out directly by the Ministry of Agriculture.

Fisheries

The authorities concerned with fisheries research are: the Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food, which maintains four laboratories for marine, shell-fish, salmon and freshwater fisheries research, and four research vessels; the Scottish Home Department, which maintains a marine research laboratory, four research ships at Aberdeen, and a freshwater research laboratory at Pitlochry; and the Development Commissioners.

The Development Commissioners, through their Advisory Committee on Fishery Research, co-ordinate all fishery research. From the Development Fund a number of independent institutions receive grants for marine and freshwater research.¹

Food

The Division of the Chief Scientific Adviser (Food) of the Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food advises the Minister on all scientific and technical aspects of departmental food policy, identifies problems in food procurement, processing, utilisation and distribution which require investigation, and arranges for such investigations to be made. It also promotes the application of the results of research either directly or in co-operation with the food industries concerned. To help in doing so, it has experimental laboratories and kitchens in London and an experimental factory at Aberdeen. The Division is grouped into three sections dealing with nutrition, food technology and food in relation to defence.

Forestry

The Forestry Commission undertakes experimental work relating to silvicultural and allied problems. By means of grants, it also aids forest research work undertaken by various universities and other institutions, including the Imperial Forestry Institute, Oxford.

Fuel and Power

The Ministry of Power has responsibility for research on safety in mines, and plays a direct part in research such as that into the development of coal-consuming gas turbines, underground gasification and total gasification. There is close collaboration between the Ministry, the Scientific Departments of the National Coal Board, the Electricity Council and Scottish Electricity Boards, the Gas Council, and the Fuel Research Station of the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research, all of which are responsible for research in their own fields.

Transport

The Ministry of Transport and Civil Aviation is concerned with research into aspects of marine navigation, road construction and airport operations, but most of the basic work is carried out for the Ministry by the Admiralty, the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research and the Ministry of Supply. Research on radio aids for marine navigation, for instance, is undertaken by the Admiralty.

Land Use and Planning

The Ministry of Housing and Local Government is responsible for policy relating to the use and development of land in England and Wales. Through its Technical Services Directorate, the Ministry deals with technical planning and geographical, geological, economic and sociological research. Similar arrangements are made for Scotland by the Department of Health for Scotland. The Ministry of Health and Local Government is responsible for the general administration of the planning legislation in Northern Ireland.

Building

The Ministry of Works is responsible for reviewing the whole field of research and technical development of the building industry and for ensuring that the results of research are made available to the industry.

¹The Marine Biological Association, Plymouth; University of Liverpool (Port Erin Biological Station); Scottish Marine Biological Association, Millport, Isle of Cumbrae; Freshwater Biological Association, Ambleside, Westmorland; Dove Marine Laboratory (King's College, Newcastle upon Tyne).

Communications

The Post Office undertakes scientific research on a wide range of subjects relating to telephone, telegraph and radio systems which is carried out by the Research Branch of the Engineering Department. Examples of such research are the gradual introduction of automatic dialling for long-distance telephone calls, starting with the Bristol exchange in 1958, and the progressive mechanisation of postal operations. It also undertakes the experimental development of radio transmitters and receivers for Post Office services and other Government Departments. Development in the application of electronics for the telephone services is being planned in conjunction with industry through the Joint Electronic Research Committee. The Post Office keeps in close touch with the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) and the Independent Television Authority (ITA) in connection with the development of broadcasting techniques.

Analytical Chemistry

The Department of the Government Chemist is responsible for providing analytical services to all Government Departments that may require them. It carries out special investigations, e.g., in connection with nutritional and physiological surveys, and conducts fundamental research in infra-red spectrography, chromatography and X-ray study of crystals.

Medicine and Health

In addition to the work carried on under the aegis of the Medical Research Council, the Ministry of Health may conduct and promote research into the cause, prevention and treatment of illness or mental defectiveness.

The Department of Health for Scotland has similar responsibilities, in the discharge of which it is advised by its Advisory Committee on Medical Research; liaison with the Medical Research Council is also maintained.

In Northern Ireland, the Hospitals Authority (a statutory body set up by the Minister of Health and Local Government) has power to conduct or assist medical research. In addition, it has a statutory duty to provide adequate bacteriological and pathological services.

The General Register Office carries out research in four main fields: (1) analysis and interpretation of statistics of causes of death; (2) statistical inquiry into the treatment of cancer and its results; (3) morbidity as revealed in hospital statistics; and (4) mental health.

Colonial Research

The bulk of the research work relating to Colonial development is done in the Colonial territories, but much of it requires close collaboration with research institutes and laboratories in Britain. It is the function of the Colonial Research Council to co-ordinate the work of the specialist committees and to advise on general questions relating to policy. The specialist bodies concerned deal with research into such subjects as agriculture, animal health, forestry, medicine, social science and colonial products.

Anti-Locust Research

Since 1929, the Government has financed an Anti-Locust Research Centre in London which, since 1931, has been internationally adopted as the world centre for locust research. This organisation has during the past twenty years received and co-ordinated information on locust movements and breeding from some 40 countries, undertaken scientific research into the life-history and habits of the different species, and investigated and developed methods for their control and destruction.

Other Research Work

There are a number of scientific institutions administered by Government Departments which undertake a certain amount of research work in addition to their other scientific activities. These include the Royal Botanic Gardens (Kew) and the Ordnance Survey Department, both now administered by the Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food. The main library at Kew Gardens, attached to the Herbarium, one of the amenities offered to research workers, was founded in 1853 and consists of more than 50,000 botanical books, including a section of books on botanical exploration. The library is classified both by subject and geographically, and contains a valuable collection of prints and drawings of plants. Two branch libraries at Kew comprise books on gardening and on economic botany respectively. The Ordnance Survey was founded in 1791 to prepare a map of Great Britain mainly for defence purposes. The present work of the Survey is chiefly civil in character (see p. 47).

Scientific Museums

The British Museum (Natural History)—an independent section of the British Museum—contains one of the world's largest collections of natural history material and is recognised as a leading research institution.

The Science Museum illustrates the development of pure and applied science in all countries, but chiefly in Great Britain which has always held a leading place in engineering, agriculture, navigation, mining, aeronautics, and in the development of industrial machinery and processes, all of which are represented in the Museum's collections. The geology of Britain is known in more exact detail than that of any other country in the world, and the Geological Survey (since 1919 an establishment of DSIR), responsible for this work, has an outstanding collection of exhibits in its Geological Museum. These three museums are in South Kensington, London.

Important collections outside London are the Museum of Science and Industry, Birmingham, and the Museum of the History of Science, Oxford.

The Parliamentary and Scientific Committee

The Parliamentary and Scientific Committee was founded at the end of 1939 by members of the House of Commons and replaced the former Parliamentary Science Committee. It is one of a number of informal, unofficial, all-party parliamentary groups which have grown up spontaneously and have a varying degree of influence. Membership is open to members of Parliament of any party and in both Houses, and also to nominated representatives of such non-profit-making scientific and technological organisations in Britain as may be affiliated under its constitution. Membership in 1957 comprised 180 members of Parliament and representatives of 103 scientific and technological institutions.

Broadly speaking, the activities of the committee are to provide, as far as possible, for a regular exchange of information between members of Parliament and scientists, and to endeavour to ensure that action is taken to correct matters seen to be wrong in the light of such information.

Scientific Liaison Overseas

The history of scientific progress is essentially a story involving many nations; the organisation of a country's scientific research would be incomplete without provision for adequate liaison with other countries.

Before the second world war, international scientific collaboration took place through the exchange of university staffs, the awards of scholarships and fellowships, the close relations existing between the learned societies in Britain and their equivalent bodies abroad, and through international conferences and congresses.

The war and the post-war period saw the emergence of a number of new developments in overseas scientific collaboration, including the exchange of scientific information. Well-known examples are the specialised agencies of the United Nations Organisation, e.g., the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation, the World Health Organisation, the Food and Agriculture Organisation, and those concerned with nuclear energy, e.g., the International Atomic Energy Agency, the European Organisation for Nuclear Research (CERN) and the European Nuclear Energy Agency, in all of which the United Kingdom is playing a full part.

Among the various channels through which scientific liaison is conducted are:

1. *The British Commonwealth Scientific Offices.* A feature of the war-time pattern of scientific collaboration was the establishment of Scientific Missions, in London by the United States and the Commonwealth countries, and in Washington by the United Kingdom and the other Commonwealth countries; the latter subsequently joined together as the British Commonwealth Scientific Office in Washington. Since 1948 the Scientific Offices in London of the Commonwealth countries, set up after the war, have been located in the same building, and are closely associated with the Overseas Liaison Division of the DSIR.

2. *The Standing Committee on Overseas Scientific Relations.* This is a committee of the Advisory Council on Scientific Policy which was set up after the war to consider and advise on United Kingdom Government policy on matters of overseas scientific relations. The chairman of the Advisory Council on Scientific Policy acts as its chairman, and its secretariat is provided jointly by the Office of the Lord President of the Council and the Overseas Liaison Division of the DSIR.

3. *The Overseas Liaison Division of the DSIR.* This Division, in addition to its executive work for the Committee on Overseas Scientific Relations, is also responsible for the administration of the United Kingdom Scientific Missions in Washington and Bonn, the Offices of the Scientific Attachés in Paris and Stockholm, and any further posts which may be created, and for ensuring that information collected by them is effectively disseminated in the United Kingdom. Both the Missions and Attachés and the Overseas Liaison Division itself have interdepartmental responsibilities, although the Overseas Liaison Division is placed within the DSIR for convenience of organisation.

4. *Commonwealth Agricultural Bureaux.* Machinery exists in the Commonwealth Agricultural Bureaux for liaison in the field of agricultural science between countries of the Commonwealth. In the United Kingdom there are ten Bureaux, specialising in various branches of agricultural science, and two Institutes—the Commonwealth Mycological Institute and the Commonwealth Institute of Entomology. A third Institute, the Commonwealth Institute of Biological Control, has its headquarters in Ottawa, Canada. The Bureaux collect, collate and disseminate information resulting from agricultural research.

5. *The British Council.* The aims of the British Council in the pure and applied sciences are to foster closer co-operation between British scientists and scientists of other countries, and to promote a better understanding of Britain among overseas specialists by disseminating a knowledge of British activities and achievements. Under the first objective the exchange of visits between scientists in the United Kingdom and other countries is of prime importance. Besides arranging lecture or advisory tours overseas by eminent British scientists, the British Council, among many activities of a similar nature, brings to the United Kingdom every year a

number of senior overseas specialists, postgraduate students and technicians on visits of varying duration, for the purpose of study in British universities and other institutions, or for discussion with British experts. In addition to publishing the *British Medical Bulletin*, intended primarily to keep overseas specialists informed of progress in medical research in Britain, the Council maintains an extensive and much used specialist information service. In the 66 countries in which the British Council is represented, libraries are maintained and in many instances these have strong sections of scientific and technological literature.

The British Council maintains at its headquarters specialist departments for medicine and science (including agriculture and engineering), while in some countries scientists are attached to its overseas representatives. The Council is advised by eminent scientists who serve on its Science Advisory Committee and on specialist panels for the different subjects.

Contribution to the International Geophysical Year

The United Kingdom has taken a leading part in the International Geophysical Year (IGY), which started on 1st July, 1957, and continued for eighteen months until the end of 1958. During this period, scientists of some 60 nations participated in an internationally planned and co-ordinated attempt to extend and intensify observation of the physical phenomena of the Earth.

A number of important posts connected with this project, including that of president of the special committee controlling all IGY operations, were held by United Kingdom scientists.

The Royal Society of London planned a co-ordinated research effort by Government Departments, universities and other institutions. It obtained Government grants, totalling about £650,000, to cover costs of additional expenditure on IGY. Nearly half the United Kingdom contribution was spent on the IGY Antarctic Expedition, and other work included studies of the upper atmosphere from stations in the United Kingdom and its dependent territories. A Commonwealth Trans-Antarctic Expedition, financed partly by the various Commonwealth Governments and partly privately, was planned independently of the IGY but coincided with it and contributed to it. On 2nd March, 1958, the expedition reached Scott Base, Ross Island, after a journey of 99 days—the first occasion on which Antarctica had been crossed by land. British-built instruments were used all over the world during the IGY; and in Britain itself, the Jodrell Bank radio telescope, among many other instruments, was used to provide data.

Expenditure on Research and Development

A review of the pattern of the research and development effort in Great Britain, published in the Annual Report of the Advisory Council on Scientific Policy for 1956–57, *Cmnd.* 278, indicated that in the year 1955–56 Britain spent about £300 million on research and development (though this figure is subject to a margin of error). Of the total expenditure, some £185 million was spent by private industry, mainly by aircraft, electrical engineering and chemical firms, which together spent about 75 per cent.

Further details are shown in Table 8.

The survey also showed that, according to the most reliable estimates available, about 46,600 professionally qualified scientists and engineers were engaged on research and development in the United Kingdom, including about 2,200 research workers in agriculture and medicine. About half of these are employed by private industry and slightly more than one-tenth by the defence Departments.

Gross expenditure on nuclear energy authorised by Parliament for the five years up to 31st March, 1958, totalled some £340 million, excluding certain sums not disclosed for security reasons. Also excluded from this figure is expenditure on their own account by industry and the universities, and expenditure on the civil nuclear power programme, which up to 31st March, 1958, was about £25 million.

TABLE 8
RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT IN GREAT BRITAIN 1955-56
ESTIMATES OF EXPENDITURE

Major Sectors	Expenditure (a)		Sources of Funds	
	£ million	Percentage	£ million	Percentage
Government (b)				
Defence	65½	22	177½	59
Civil:				
Departments ..	12½	4	34½	12
Research Councils ..	10 (c)	3	12 (c)	4
Industry				
Nationalised	4	1	4	1
Private	185	62	68½	23
Research Associations ..	5	2	—	—
Universities	14½	5	½	—
Other Organisations ..	3½	1	3	1
TOTALS ..	300	100	300	100

Source: *Cmnd.* 278.

(a) The figures in these columns show the cost of research and development actually carried out in the sector concerned.

(b) Including the Atomic Energy Authority.

(c) Includes £1 million for Agricultural Research Council and Medical Research Council units attached to universities.

THE PROMOTION OF THE ARTS

The preservation of Britain's cultural heritage and the promotion of literature and the arts are the active concern of a number of official and unofficial bodies. There is no Ministry of Fine Arts or equivalent organisation to formulate or administer policy in the arts, though bodies such as the Standing Commission on Museums and Galleries (appointed 1931) and the Royal Fine Art Commissions for England and for Scotland (appointed in 1924 and 1927, respectively) act in an advisory capacity. Government interest in the arts is expressed mainly through the provision of grants to such bodies as the Arts Council, the British Council (see p. 164), the British Film Institute (see p. 221), and the Council of Industrial Design

(see p. 214), and also to the national museums and art galleries. For the year 1958-59 Government expenditure on the arts (which, in 1938-39, amounted to a little more than £900,000) is estimated at over £6.8 million. Of this total, nearly £3 million is the cost of the national art collections, over £1 million the amount of the grant to the Arts Council, and more than £1 million is expenditure on preserving historic houses and their contents. In addition, under the Local Government Act, 1948, local authorities may use part of the revenue from the rates for the encouragement of the arts. Local education authorities also make grants to some schools of art, music and drama.

The Arts Council of Great Britain was established under a Royal Charter in 1946. It consists of not more than 16 honorary members appointed by the Chancellor of the Exchequer in consultation with the Minister of Education and the Secretary of State for Scotland. Its main duties are to increase the accessibility of the fine arts to the public, to improve the standard of execution in the fine arts, and to advise and to co-operate with Government Departments, local authorities and other organisations on any matter connected directly or indirectly with these objects. The corresponding body in Northern Ireland is the Council for the Encouragement of Music and the Arts (CEMA).

Unofficial institutions concerned with the promotion of the arts include many charitable trusts and foundations, e.g., the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust, the Pilgrim Trust, the United Kingdom branch of the Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation and a large number of societies, associations and other organisations concerned with separate aspects of the arts, some of which are mentioned later in this chapter.

The Carnegie United Kingdom Trust was founded in 1913 by the late Andrew Carnegie. It was incorporated under Royal Charter in 1917. The Trust, which was initially founded for 'the improvement of the well-being of the masses of the people of Great Britain and Ireland', consists of 25 life trustees, 6 trustees nominated by the Corporation of Dunfermline and 3 trustees nominated by the Fife County Council. Its cultural policies include the support of adult amateur activities in music, drama and the visual arts. It also supports non-national museums. Grants totalling approximately £20,864 were made for these purposes during the year ended 31st December, 1957.

The Pilgrim Trust was founded in 1930 by the late Edward Stephen Harkness, an American citizen. The Trust, which has an income of about £150,000 a year, is administered by a body of trustees who are empowered to make grants towards any legally charitable object within the United Kingdom. In fact, the greater part of the Trust's income is at present being used to help to preserve the nation's heritage of architecture and history, and for the advancement of learning and the arts. The grants made for these objects during 1957 amounted to £132,185.

The Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation of Lisbon was established under the will of the late Calouste Gulbenkian who died in 1955. The Foundation has a branch in the United Kingdom, which is responsible for the Foundation's activities in Britain and in other Commonwealth countries. During 1957, grants totalling £296,655 were made in the United Kingdom, of which £172,325 represented grants for the arts. The Foundation has asked a small private committee, under the chairmanship of Lord Bridges, to examine the needs of the arts in Britain and report to the trustees.

It was announced in June 1958 that the Independent Television programme companies (see Chapter XIV) are to spend £100,000 a year on the encouragement of the arts. A co-ordinating committee is being set up to ensure that the donations of the individual companies do not overlap.

VISUAL ARTS

There are at present a number of British painters and sculptors of international repute as well as younger artists of great promise; and interest in their work and that of their contemporaries overseas, as well as in that of British and foreign artists of the past, is most marked in all sections of the community. This wider interest in visual art has not stopped at appreciation. There is evidence of this fact in the large numbers attending evening art classes, the growth of local art groups and local exhibitions, and the support given to holiday painting schools.

The fine arts of painting and sculpture in Britain receive State support by grants to national institutions and, indirectly, through grants made to the Arts Council, to municipal art galleries and museums, and to local education authorities for art schools and other means of promoting education in art.

In the year April 1957 to the end of March 1958 the Arts Council arranged 81 separate art exhibitions in Great Britain; 336 showings of these exhibitions were given in 172 different centres. Knowledge of Britain's fine arts is fostered overseas by the British Council by means of exhibitions, the dissemination of reproductions and photographs, lectures, and the provision of information and advice to inquirers abroad and to visitors in Britain. In the year ended March 1958, 29 fine art exhibitions organised by the Council were shown in 40 countries. The Council was also responsible for British participation in seven international exhibitions. Since 1948, twenty international awards have been won by British artists.

Museums and Art Galleries

There are in all about 800 museums and art galleries open to the public in the United Kingdom, though many are only small collections or merely a few rooms set aside in a public building for the display of local treasures.

The national museums and art galleries in London probably contain between them the most comprehensive collection of objects of artistic, archaeological, scientific, historical and general interest ever to exist within one city. The British Museum, which celebrated its bicentenary in 1953, has unparalleled collections of archaeological and ethnographical material from every part of the world, in addition to housing the national library of printed books, manuscripts, newspapers and periodicals; its Department of Prints and Drawings also possesses collections of the widest extent and richness. The Victoria and Albert Museum contains works of fine and applied art of all countries and periods, arranged mainly according to material, though since the war primary collections have been arranged to bring together, by style, period or nationality, masterpieces of all the arts. The National Gallery presents paintings by almost all the greatest European masters. The Tate Gallery embodies two collections: the British school from the eighteenth century onwards, with a few earlier works, and modern foreign schools since 1850. Both sections include modern sculpture. Frequent loan exhibitions are held in the gallery.

Other important collections in London are at the National Portrait Gallery, the Imperial War Museum, the National Maritime Museum at Greenwich, the London Museum (reopened in Kensington Palace in 1951), which illustrates the history of the capital, and Hertford House, where the Wallace Collection (furniture, armour, *objets d'art* and paintings, mainly French of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries) is housed.

The Ministry of Education is responsible for the administration of the Victoria and Albert Museum and the Science Museum.¹ The other national institutions have their own Boards of Trustees, but all receive Treasury grants.

¹ For information on the scientific museums, see p. 207.

There are five national museums and art galleries in Edinburgh: the National Museum of Antiquities of Scotland, the National Gallery of Scotland, the Royal Scottish Museum, the National Portrait Gallery of Scotland, and the Scottish United Services Museum; and in Cardiff is the National Museum of Wales with its branch at St. Fagan's Castle where the Welsh Folk Museum is housed. A Northern Irish Folk Museum is being established in Belfast. The Belfast Museum and Art Gallery is municipally owned, but serves unofficially as a national institution for the whole of Northern Ireland.

Almost every city and large town has a museum devoted to art, archaeology and natural history, usually owned by the municipal authority but sometimes by a local learned society or privately by individuals or trustees to whom some rich collector in the past has bequeathed his treasures. Both Oxford and Cambridge are rich in museums—the Ashmolean Museum in Oxford, founded in 1683, is the oldest in the country and the Fitzwilliam Museum in Cambridge has fine art galleries and a notable collection of engravings, manuscripts and books bequeathed by its founder on his death in 1861. Other universities have important collections, primarily for teaching purposes but also open to the public. Other cities with important museums and art galleries are Birmingham, Bristol, Glasgow, Leeds, Leicester, Liverpool, Manchester, Norwich, Southampton, and York where the Castle Museum, with its complete reconstruction of an eighteenth-century street of shops, offers a most interesting historical display. In recent years there has been a notable development of 'period-house museums', in which outstanding examples of the private residences of former times have been taken over by national and municipal authorities for this purpose, as at Temple Newsam, Leeds; Aston Hall, Birmingham; and the Royal Pavilion, Brighton. Private art collections are to be seen in the historic family mansions (including many in the ownership of the National Trust) which are now open to the public at certain times.

Temporary exhibitions produced by the Arts Council, the Art Exhibitions Bureau, and the Circulation Department of the Victoria and Albert Museum, are a regular feature of many museums.

The Museums Association, founded in 1889, is an independent organisation to which museums and art galleries and members of their staffs throughout the country belong; there are also many overseas members. The Association serves as the central body for the collection of information and the discussion of matters relating to museum administration and practice, and as a training and examining body for professional qualifications. It also produces directories, a monthly journal, and other publications.

Financial assistance for improving the displays of the smaller museums is among the functions of the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust, which has done much to encourage the growth of the museum movement during the past thirty years, and at present expends an average of £10,000 a year in this field.

The various national art exhibiting societies include the Royal Academy, which, in summer, holds exhibitions of works by members and non-members and, in winter, exhibitions usually devoted to national schools of painting; the Royal Society of British Artists; the Royal Institute of Oil Painters; the Royal Society of Painters in Water Colours; the Royal Society of Portrait Painters; the Women's International Art Club; and the London Group (all the foregoing are associations of professional painters); and the Institute of Contemporary Arts. Some of these societies, notably the Royal Academy at Burlington House, have their own galleries in London. There are also an increasing number of amateur art societies throughout the United Kingdom which hold local exhibitions and encourage local interest in the fine arts in a variety of ways. The Contemporary Art

Society uses its members' subscriptions to buy modern works which it presents to the public galleries.

Exhibitions of works by old masters and living artists are held throughout the year in the galleries of the art dealers of Bond Street and other parts of the West End of London. The Whitechapel Art Gallery shows a series of exhibitions in the East End of London; and the London County Council has shown an exhibition of modern sculpture in one of its parks every third year since the second world war. There are also exhibitions of children's art, including the Children's Royal Academy Exhibition (which, in 1958, was held at the Guildhall in London).

Art Education

There are 15 colleges of art in the United Kingdom, each serving a region, all of which offer courses in most branches of art and a varying range of crafts; and there are schools of art in nearly all the larger towns. In London, the most notable of these schools and colleges are the Royal College of Art (a national college) and the Central School of Arts and Crafts of the London County Council, in both of which the emphasis is on industrial design, and the Slade School of Fine Arts in the University of London. At the Royal Academy Schools, founded in 1768, all instruction is provided free by Royal Academicians.

The leading academic institutions for the teaching and study of the history of art are the Courtauld Institute of the University of London, the Department of Classical Art and Archaeology in University College, London, and the Warburg Institute (also a part of London University) which provides facilities for research on the character and history of the classical tradition.

Art has a place in the curriculum of every type of school and the Society for Education through Art encourages the purchase by schools of original works of art.

Industrial Design

The Council of Industrial Design was set up in 1944 by the President of the Board of Trade as a grant-aided body with the purpose of promoting the improvement of design in the products of British industry. The Council has 24 members, a majority being prominent industrialists, and there is a separate Scottish Committee.

The Council runs a permanent exhibition, at The Design Centre, in the Haymarket, London. This is a selective, changing display of well-designed British consumer goods in current production. To supplement this display, an illustrated record of good design, known as *Design Index*, is also maintained at the Centre. In addition, the Council organises conferences and courses, and maintains a record of designers and a photographic and reference library on industrial design. It has an education section and a retail section and publishes a monthly magazine, *Design*.

Other bodies concerned with industrial design include the Royal Society of Arts (see p. 193), the Society of Industrial Artists, which is the representative professional body in Great Britain of designers engaged in industry and commerce, and the Design and Industries Association (DIA), founded in 1914. The DIA is a voluntary association of industrial companies, designers, and other bodies and individuals interested in the promotion of good design in industry.

Architecture

The Government's responsibility towards the nation's architecture is exercised on the one hand in encouraging the best and seeking to prevent the worst in new building and, on the other, in preserving the best that has been inherited from the past.

The Government Departments chiefly concerned with domestic architecture are the Ministry of Housing and Local Government, the Department of Health for

Scotland, and the Northern Ireland Ministry of Health and Local Government, which are responsible in their respective countries for approving the layout and design of local authority housing schemes, and which issue reports and circulars setting standards for local authority housing. The Ministry of Housing and Local Government also encourages high standards by offering, each year, medals for the best-designed houses. The Education Departments are responsible for the supervision of building for the public education service. The Ministry of Works is the Department concerned with the construction and maintenance of Government buildings and also with the preservation of historic buildings and ancient monuments in Great Britain. In Northern Ireland, responsibility for the preservation of ancient buildings is vested in the Ministry of Finance. All these Departments have architects on their staffs.

A number of professional, advisory and other societies and institutions exist to further the interests of architecture and the preservation of buildings of aesthetic value or historic interest.

Several State-sponsored organisations are concerned with special aspects of architecture. The Royal Fine Art Commission and the Royal Fine Art Commission for Scotland, both bodies of experts appointed by Royal Warrant, advise Government Departments and other public and quasi-public bodies on questions of public amenity or artistic importance. The National Buildings Record maintains a library (open to the public for consultation) of photographs of English and Welsh architecture and an index of architectural records in public and private possession. The Royal Commissions on Ancient and Historical Monuments for England, for Wales and Monmouthshire, and for Scotland, record in detail all ancient and historical remains in their countries and publish a series of surveys, designed ultimately to cover the whole of Great Britain. The Ancient Monuments Boards for England, Scotland, and Wales, set up under the Ancient Monuments Acts, consider which monuments should be listed in accordance with those Acts and advise the Minister of Works on any questions concerning ancient monuments. The Historic Buildings Councils for England, Scotland, and Wales, which were constituted under the Historic Buildings and Ancient Monuments Act, 1953, advise the Minister on the provision of grants towards the repair and maintenance of such buildings and their contents. An Historic Buildings Bureau finds new uses for unoccupied historic buildings of outstanding interest.

The leading professional architectural institution in the United Kingdom is the Royal Institute of British Architects (RIBA), which holds meetings at which papers are read and discussed, publishes a Journal, holds exhibitions, promotes and controls the training of architects through its Board of Architectural Education, and has one of the largest and most important architectural libraries in the world, housing over 65,000 books, periodicals and drawings. There are also the Incorporated Association of Architects and Surveyors, the Institute of Registered Architects and the Royal Incorporation of Architects in Scotland. Other societies include the Architectural Association, the Architecture Club, and a number of societies interested in particular aspects of architecture, such as the Modular Society.

Among the preservation societies are the Georgian Group, which is a society designed to awaken interest in Georgian architecture and to save Georgian buildings from destruction; the Society for the Protection of Ancient Buildings; the National Trust in England, Wales and Northern Ireland and the National Trust for Scotland, which together own more than a hundred houses of historic or architectural interest, many of which contain pictures and other works of art which are on view to the public; and the Historic Churches Preservation Trust, formed in 1952, under

the chairmanship of the Archbishop of Canterbury. The Trust aims to raise £4 million to supplement the efforts of parishes to put their churches into good repair, and by the end of 1957 had made grants totalling over £327,000 to 727 churches and chapels.

Education in architecture is given at 21 schools of architecture recognised for exemption from the RIBA Intermediate and Final Examinations and 5 schools of architecture recognised for exemption from the Intermediate Examination only. There are also 45 schools of art and technical institutions (9 full-time) with facilities for the instruction of intending architects, which prepare students for taking externally the examinations of the RIBA. It is against the law for any person to practise or carry out work under any name, style or title containing the word 'architect' unless he or she is registered. The statutory body which regulates registration is the Architects' Registration Council of the United Kingdom.

LITERATURE

A knowledge of literature is fostered in the United Kingdom by the schools, colleges and universities of the country, in all of which English literature is taught either as part of a general course or as a specialist subject. Interest in the subject is thereafter maintained by the libraries, by the very large number of private literary societies (both national and local), by book reviews in the press, and on the radio, and by the numerous periodicals concerned in whole or in part with literature, of which the best-known critical weekly is *The Times Literary Supplement*. State support for literature is given through the Arts Council, which assists poetry—especially poetry readings—in Great Britain. The British Council is active in encouraging a knowledge of English literature abroad. Recognition of outstanding literary merit is given in the form of literary prizes, a number of which are awarded annually, e.g., the two James Tait Black Memorial prizes for biography and literature, the John Llewellyn Rhys Memorial prize for young writers of promise, the Hawthornden prize for imaginative writing, the Library Association Carnegie Medal for an outstanding book for children, the Kate Greenaway Medal for the best children's book illustration and the Somerset Maugham award for young writers.

Libraries

The largest library in Britain is that of the British Museum in London (more than 5 million volumes). The National Library of Scotland (nearly 2 million volumes) is in Edinburgh, and that of Wales in Aberystwyth (more than 1½ million volumes). Together with the Bodleian Library in Oxford (over 2 million volumes) and the Cambridge University Library (some 2 million volumes) these comprise the 'copyright' libraries of the country and are entitled to receive a copy of each new book published in Britain: the British Museum Library must receive a copy, the other libraries may claim one.

Other great libraries include¹: the University of London Central Library², the libraries of the universities of Edinburgh, Glasgow and St. Andrews, and Queen's University Library, Belfast; London Library (the largest public subscription library) and the John Rylands Library, Manchester; the Science Museum Library,

¹ This list provides only an arbitrary selection of some of the largest libraries. Unless otherwise stated these libraries are in London where there are more than 500 libraries; and see also pp. 193-4.

² The total holding of all the libraries (college and special) of London University is over 2½ million volumes.

the Victoria and Albert Museum Art Library and the British Museum (Natural History) Library; the Patent Office Library, the India Office Library and the Public Record Office Library (which contains the National Archives and the National Register of Archives, a register and summary of local and private collections of records); the libraries of the Royal Institute of International Affairs, the Royal Commonwealth Society, the Commonwealth Institute, the Royal Geographical Society, the British Drama League, the Royal Institute of British Architects, the Royal College of Music and the Royal Academy of Music; the Central Music Library; and the National Library for the Blind. The Arts Council has founded a reference library of modern English poetry, which is housed with the National Book League.

An important feature of library services in Britain is the co-operation within the closely knit network of libraries which greatly increases the value of the service. Library co-operation is organised regionally in the first instance, through Regional Library Bureaux, and is finally centralised in the National Central Library with its widespread system of outlier libraries (public, university and special) giving access to a total stock of some 21 million books.

The public libraries of Britain maintain a service throughout the country, administered by 597 public library authorities (county councils, county borough councils, municipal borough councils and urban district councils). Together these authorities provide more than 32,160 service points; they hold over 66 million books and make more than 419 million loans a year. A feature of the service in rural areas is the travelling van, which is an itinerant library.

In addition to lending books, music scores and gramophone records, and providing special libraries for, among others, children, patients in hospitals and prisoners, public libraries engage in many kinds of extension activities, such as play readings, lectures, film shows, music circles and co-operation in University Extension adult education.

In 1957, the Minister of Education set up a committee, on which local authorities, national, special and university libraries are represented, to consider the structure of the public library in England and Wales and to advise 'what changes should be made in administrative arrangements, regard being had to the relation of public libraries to other libraries'.

The two principal organisations to which librarians belong are the Library Association and the Association of Special Libraries and Information Bureaux (ASLIB). The Library Association endeavours to unite librarians and governors of libraries throughout the world and, through its many meetings, conferences, personal service and publications, including its official journal *The Library Association Record*, to provide for their general and specialised professional interests.

ASLIB, which is a documentation centre and is financed by the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research, operates in a more specialised field. One of its activities, for example, is the maintenance of an index of translations, especially from Russian and German, which have been or are being made in Britain.

Books

New books constitute the large majority of all books published annually in Britain—in 1957, for example, British publishers issued a total of 20,719 separate titles, of which only 5,921 were reprints or new editions. In that year, the annual figures for new titles under literary subject headings were: bibliography and literary history, 358; biography, 563; essays, 114; fiction, 3,737; poetry and drama, 568.

Some classes of books are produced as Government publications by Her Majesty's Stationery Office, which is the largest publishing organisation in Britain; the great

majority of books, however, are produced by some 350 commercial publishers, including the university presses, notably the Cambridge University Press and the Clarendon Press (Oxford), which publish many outstanding learned works. The Clarendon Press is part of the Oxford University Press, which also has a publishing department in London.

Leading organisations representing the interests of those concerned with book production and distribution are the Publishers' Association, the Booksellers' Association, and the Society of Authors.

Literary and Philological Societies and Institutions

Societies and institutions concerned with the promotion of literature in its various forms include: the National Book League, which encourages the reading of and an interest in books, and which holds exhibitions, including the widely popular annual exhibitions of book design; the English Association, which aims at upholding the standard of English writing and speech; and the Royal Society of Literature, which is concerned with the advancement of literature. Both the Royal Society of Edinburgh, which promotes science and literature, and the British Academy, which is an organisation concerned with humanistic studies and has a section dealing with literature and philology, receive grants from the Treasury.

Interest in poetry is encouraged by the Poetry Society; by the annual National Eisteddfod—the bardic festival held in Wales, the origins of which date back to the seventh century; and by the Apollo Society, which, supported by the Arts Council, presents a number of poetry readings in which music as well as poetry forms part of the programme.

Among the specialist societies are the Early English Text Society, the Bibliographical Society, the Harleian Society, the Saltire Society, and several societies devoted to particular authors, of which the largest is the Dickens Fellowship.

There are also a number of clubs and societies, such as the Book Society, which exist to distribute selected new books to their members. The most recently established is the Poetry Book Society, which was set up in 1954 under the auspices of the Arts Council.

DRAMA

State patronage of the drama is expressed through the Arts Council, which grants subsidies to certain theatrical managements operating on a non-profit-making basis (i.e. using profits to finance future productions), provided that such managements have given evidence of serious aims and of consistently high standards of practical competence; and through the British Council, which is responsible for making the British theatre better known abroad by organising and sponsoring international tours by important companies, including the Old Vic Theatre Company and the Shakespeare Memorial Theatre Company, and by sending overseas exhibitions of theatrical design and lecturers on drama. The Treasury is empowered, under the National Theatre Act, 1949, to support the scheme for a national theatre by contributing £1 million to the cost of building and equipping a theatre, in London, which would operate under public auspices.

Professional Theatre

The centre of the professional theatre is in London, where there are some 40 principal theatres and a number of suburban and 'little' theatres. These are let to producing managements on a commercial basis for every type of theatrical entertainment. There are also theatres in Scotland, Northern Ireland and in the provinces of England and Wales, which are served by productions touring either before

or after London presentation, by companies specially formed for touring, and by local repertory companies. In 1958, the first full scale theatre to be built by a civic authority was opened in Coventry; this was also the first new public theatre to be built in Great Britain since 1939.

In addition to managements which rent theatres for limited or long runs, there are a few companies which produce plays in theatres of their own. Among the older and better known of these organisations are the Old Vic Theatre Company in London and the Shakespeare Memorial Theatre Company at Stratford-upon-Avon. In 1956, the English Stage Company was established at the Royal Court Theatre in Sloane Square, London, where it presents a series of contemporary plays. Local repertory companies (some of which are assisted financially and otherwise by the Arts Council or, in Northern Ireland, by CEMA) may have the use of their own established repertory theatres, e.g., the Bristol Old Vic Company at the historic Theatre Royal in Bristol, or they may tour the various towns and villages in the locality, playing from one to several nights in each place and using any building which can be made suitable for the purpose. The English Children's Theatre, a non-profit-making organisation, presents children's plays in London and the provinces. The Open Air Theatre in Regent's Park, London, has been used for many summer seasons of repertory, mainly of Shakespeare and other poetic drama. The Ulster Group Theatre in Belfast specialises in Irish drama. Inevitably, the work of repertory companies varies in quality but, generally speaking, the standard of both production and acting is high; many of the leading dramatists, producers, actors and actresses in the United Kingdom started their careers in repertory.

Theatre clubs for regular patrons are run in connection with some of these company-owned theatres. Where seats are sold only to theatre club members (e.g., the Arts Theatre, London, and the New Shakespeare Theatre, Liverpool) the plays are not subject to the normal requirement that they must be passed by the Lord Chamberlain¹ before presentation.

The Theatres Act, 1843, which deals with the licensing of theatres and plays, requires all new plays to be approved by the Lord Chamberlain, who may forbid the presentation of any play 'for the preservation of good manners, decorum, or of the public peace'. The number of plays for which a licence is refused amounts to little over one per cent.

Both in London and in the provinces, most managers and artists are members of one or another of the professional organisations which exist to maintain the standards of the professional theatre, to regulate the industry and to promote and safeguard the welfare of those who work in it. Organisations of this kind include the London Theatre Council, the Provincial Theatre Council, the Society of West End Managers, the Theatrical Managers' Association, the Council of Repertory Theatres, British Actors' Equity (the actors' trade union), and the League of Dramatists. The trade union of theatre staffs is the National Association of Theatrical and Kine Employees.

The Society for Theatre Research brings together those interested in the history and technique of the British theatre.

Amateur Theatre

The amateur dramatic movement is widespread throughout the United Kingdom; there are thousands of amateur dramatic societies. The movement is sponsored and fostered by local education authorities, by other public bodies, and by four special

¹ The Lord Chamberlain, whose office dates from the fourteenth century, is the senior officer of the Royal Household. His functions include the licensing of theatres in London and certain towns, and the licensing of plays for public performance.

organisations—the British Drama League, the Standing Conference of Drama Associations, the Scottish Community Drama Association, and the Ulster Drama League.

The British Drama League, which was founded in 1919, operates on a basis of affiliation and individual membership. Its many services to its members include the arrangement of courses, lectures and competitions in dramatic work; the provision of an information bureau; and advice on many matters connected with the stage, e.g., play-writing, production, stage management and the organisation of drama festivals. The work of the Standing Conference is mainly that of co-ordination between the various bodies concerned in the amateur dramatic movement; while the Scottish Community Drama Association fulfils, in Scotland, the functions of both the League and the Conference and is supported by the Scottish Education Department.

The Universities of Oxford and Cambridge have famous dramatic societies, and there are drama clubs and societies in many other universities and colleges.

Dramatic Training

Dramatic training is provided mainly in the large number of dramatic schools and institutions of all kinds which have been established throughout the United Kingdom. Among the most important of such institutions are the Royal Academy of Dramatic Art (which was founded in 1904 and is now grant-aided, and which provides a two-year course in all branches of stage work), the Central School of Speech Training and Dramatic Art, the Rose Bruford School and the London Academy of Music and Dramatic Art, all of which are in or near London; and there are also the Old Vic School in Bristol and the Northern Theatre School in Bradford.

Some form of education in drama is also provided in many of the schools and youth clubs of Britain, and a varying degree of recognition is given to the subject in the universities. Bristol University leads in this direction in that it has created a Department of Drama offering a course which an Arts student may take as part of a general degree course.

FILMS

The British public possibly visits the cinema more frequently than any other people in the world. Although cinema attendance has been declining in recent years (in 1957, the annual average of 18 attendances per head of population was 17 per cent below the 1956 level) and the net figure of closures of cinemas in Great Britain in the two years 1956 and 1957 was 367, there were, in 1958, about 4,100 cinemas in Great Britain (with a total of over 3½ million seats) and another 130 cinemas in Northern Ireland.

The first cinematograph exhibition in Britain was given in 1896 and within ten years Britain was in the forefront of film production. This early ascendancy did not survive the impact of the first world war and since 1914 British films have had to contend with keen American competition. Legislation, first introduced in 1927 and continued by the Cinematograph Films Acts of 1938 and 1948, has given some assistance by means of the quota system, under which a certain proportion of British films must be shown in British cinemas each year. The proportion is fixed annually by Board of Trade Order, after consultation with the Cinematograph Films Council, and is subject to confirmation by Parliament. For first feature films it has stood at 30 per cent since 1950. The Cinematograph Films Act, 1957, renewed the quota provisions for a further ten years.

During the second world war the British cinema re-emerged with new vitality and began again to exert an important influence on film development by the production of many notable feature films depicting Britain's ordeals and achievements in the war. These films were based on the documentary technique which had been developed since 1929 for the making of factual informative films sponsored by the Government or by commercial organisations. British feature films in the post-war years have been influenced by this trend, and realistic treatment is now a characteristic of British feature production, both in dramatic films and in the light-hearted satirical comedies that have won acclaim in recent years.

The development of the film as an art is promoted by the British Film Institute, founded in 1933, which is financed partly by an Exchequer grant and is responsible to the Privy Council. The Institute encourages the making and showing of good films and helps the public to appreciate good films. It administers the National Film Theatre in London and the National Film Archive, runs an annual summer school, and maintains a film distribution library from which films may be hired, a library of books on the film and an Information Service. The Institute also makes grants to the Scottish Film Council, the Scientific Film Association, the University Film Council and the Society of Film Teachers, and administers a fund for the production of experimental films.

The National Film Archive contains over 7,000 films, besides scripts, art designs, posters and 120,000 photographic stills, selected to illustrate the history and the art of the film and as significant social and historical records.

The National Film Theatre shows films of outstanding historical, artistic or technical interest; it holds a unique position as a cinema offering regular programmes which are unrestricted by commercial considerations or by the age or nationality of the films shown. Its new building, erected in 1957, is the first permanent national film theatre in the world.

The British Film Academy, founded in 1947, is a private organisation, representative of senior film-makers, which exists to foster the making of creative films. It provides a meeting ground for artists and technicians and gives annual awards for films, for technical achievements and for film acting.

Financial Aid for Film Production

The art of film production is a costly one which depends upon a commercially prosperous industry for its development and well-being, and needs adequate financial backing combined with freedom for the film-maker to experiment and to express his own ideas. There is no State-owned film production unit in Britain, but the National Film Finance Corporation, a statutory body set up in 1949, is empowered to lend money for film production. Its members—a chairman, a managing director, and three to five others—are appointed by the Board of Trade. Its funds (limited by statute to £8 million) are provided, up to £6 million, by advances from the Board of Trade; the remaining £2 million may be borrowed from non-Governmental sources. The Corporation is financially concerned with about half the films being made in British studios.

There is a levy on cinema admissions to provide a film production fund. This levy is quite separate from the Entertainments Duty which is a tax charged on cinema admissions (the rate of Entertainments Duty was reduced in 1957 and again reduced, by one-half, in 1958). The money raised by the levy is paid out as a percentage of a film's takings, so that the more successful a film is at the box office, the more it receives from the fund. The fund was started in September 1950 on a non-statutory basis as the British Film Production Fund, known as the Eady Fund. It was based on a renewable agreement between the various trade associations, subject

to Board of Trade approval. When this agreement lapsed in October 1957, the voluntary scheme was replaced by a statutory scheme with the same purpose. The Cinematograph Films Act, 1957, gave the President of the Board of Trade powers to make regulations governing the collection, by the Customs and Excise Department, of a levy from exhibitors, and the distribution of the proceeds for the benefit of British film production. A new body, the British Film Fund Agency, undertakes the distribution.

Some 25 per cent of British first feature films are produced by the two large amalgams, the Rank Organisation and the Associated British Picture Corporation, which have companies for production, distribution and exhibition. There are numerous companies (many of them only small) which produce short films. Most producers who are independent of either group make films in association with other film distributors.

Cinema Licensing and Film Censorship

The State takes no part in the censorship of films in Britain, but, by virtue of their power to grant licences, the local licensing authorities act as the final arbiters of films proposed for showing in their areas. There are over 700 licensing authorities; they are local authorities or, in some areas, magistrates. The Cinematograph Act of 1909 required, for reasons of safety, that inflammable films should be shown only on premises licensed for the purpose; it was subsequently established that licensing authorities had the right to supervise the character of the films exhibited. In judging the suitability of films for public showing, licensing authorities rely on the judgment of an independent body, the British Board of Film Censors, to which are submitted all films (other than newsreels) intended for public showing.

The British Board of Film Censors was set up in 1912 on the initiative of the cinema industry, which wished to ensure that a proper standard was maintained in the films offered to the public. It consists of a president, a secretary, and seven examiners; the latter, who include three women, are appointed by the president. The president is elected by a trade committee and is usually a man prominent in public life.

The Board, which does not use any written code of censorship, may require cuts to be made before it will grant a certificate to a film; more rarely, it will refuse a certificate. Films passed by the Board are placed in one of three categories: 'U' (suitable for universal showing); 'A' (more suitable for adults than children) and 'X' (suitable only for adults). A child or young person under 16 years of age may be admitted to a cinema showing an 'A' film only if accompanied by a responsible adult, and may not be admitted on any condition if an 'X' film is being shown.

Children and the Cinema

The Cinematograph Act, 1952, which came into force in January 1956, extended the scope of the 1909 Act and provided for the making of regulations by the Home Secretary to protect the health and welfare of children in relation to their attendance at film shows. Cinemas which give children's shows require a special licence from the licensing authority and the authority is able to impose special conditions on such cinemas. The British Board of Film Censors publishes at intervals a list of films particularly suitable for children and for exhibition at children's matinées. One of the women examiners is appointed for her special knowledge of children's needs.

Children's cinema clubs, providing special children's programmes on Saturday mornings, are widely organised by the cinema groups and have become very popular. An important contribution to these programmes is made by the Children's

Film Foundation, which produces and distributes entertainment films specially designed for children. The Foundation is a non-profit-making body set up by the British film industry in 1951 and provision is made in the Cinematograph Act, 1957, for the Foundation to receive grants from the British Film Fund Agency.

MUSIC, OPERA AND BALLET

In Britain today, music in all its forms is drawing large audiences; and orchestral concerts, choral singing, music festivals, opera and ballet are important features of British cultural life.

The British Council has done much to make British music and ballet companies more widely known throughout the world. Tours of British orchestras, soloists and opera and ballet companies are arranged, recordings of works by British composers are sponsored, and libraries of British music (recorded and in printed score) are maintained in 59 countries overseas. At the Council's headquarters in London, a central music reference library of music literature, scores and recorded music is maintained for the use of visitors. Distinguished musicians from overseas are invited to Britain as guests of the Council to gain some first-hand experience of British music and musicians, and extensive arrangements are made to cover each individual interest.

Music

Seasons of orchestral concerts are promoted every year in all the large towns and cities of Britain, some of which have well-known concert halls. In London, the principal concert halls are the Royal Festival Hall on the South Bank of the Thames, which was opened in 1951 in connection with the Festival of Britain; the Royal Albert Hall, Kensington; and the Wigmore Hall, which is the principal recital centre.

Among the leading British orchestras are the London Symphony, the BBC Symphony, the London Philharmonic, the Royal Philharmonic, the Philharmonia, the Hallé (Manchester), the Royal Liverpool Philharmonic, the City of Birmingham, the Bournemouth Symphony, the Scottish National and the BBC Scottish. There are also the specialised string and chamber orchestras such as the Philomusica of London (formerly known as the Boyd Neel Orchestra), the Jacques Orchestra and the London Mozart Players; and a number of new orchestras which have been formed during the past few years. Many of these receive financial aid from the Arts Council and local authorities to help with the cost of maintaining ensembles, of presenting new or unfamiliar works, and of improving standards generally. The City of Belfast Orchestra is financed jointly by the Belfast Corporation and CEMA.

The principal choral societies in Britain are the Royal Choral, the BBC Choral, the Huddersfield Choral, the Hallé Choir, the Liverpool Philharmonic Choir, the London Philharmonic Choir, and the Bach Choir. These and many other choral societies are associated with famous orchestras in major choral works; most of them, together with hundreds of similar choral and orchestral societies and music clubs, are affiliated to the National Federation of Music Societies, through which they are supported with funds provided by the Arts Council. Membership of the National Federation has risen to 784 societies.

Music festivals in Britain, originating with the Three Choirs Festival held annually in Gloucester, Worcester or Hereford in rotation, have been in existence for over 200 years. The festival idea has developed considerably in recent years, and festivals of music and other arts are now held annually in many cities and towns

throughout the United Kingdom. They range from the famous Edinburgh International Festival of Music and Drama, which lasts three weeks and attracts many thousands of visitors, to those, such as the Aldeburgh Festival, lasting a week or less. Among the better known are the Llangollen International Eisteddfod; the National Eisteddfod of Wales, which in 1958 formed part of the first Festival of Wales; the National Gaelic Mod, held at a different place in Scotland each year; the Cheltenham Festival, devoted to contemporary British music; the York Mystery Plays and Festival; and the Leeds and Norwich Festivals of choral music, which are held on a triennial basis. An annual international festival of folk song and dancing is held by the English Folk Dance and Song Society.

Interest in amateur music-making is increasing. It is encouraged by the work of County Music Committees,¹ which are aided by the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust and united in the Standing Conference of Music Committees. The Rural Music Schools Association is concerned with music-making by amateurs in country districts; it brings together professional musicians, teachers, administrators and amateurs.

Professional organisations, which look after the interests of music and musicians, include the Musicians' Union, the Incorporated Society of Musicians, the Composers' Guild, and the Songwriters' Guild.

Specialised education in music is given at Colleges of Music, of which the most prominent are the Royal Academy of Music and the Royal College of Music in London, the Royal Manchester College, and the Royal Scottish Academy in Glasgow, all of which receive grants-in-aid. There are also the Trinity College of Music, the Guildhall School of Music and Drama in London and the School of Music in Birmingham. Youth orchestras are strongly encouraged, and children's concerts, given by symphony orchestras directed by prominent conductors, are a regular feature of the country's musical activities and have helped to develop among the youth of the community an appreciation of the world's greatest music. The National Youth Orchestra, made up of the most promising members of school orchestras, is noted for its high standard of performance, as is the Students' Orchestra of Great Britain, formed in July 1958, which consists of music students.

In schools, more children are learning to play musical instruments; and some 110,000 candidates a year (children and other students) take the examinations of the Associated Board of the Royal Schools of Music, the largest proportion (nearly 80,000) choosing the piano as their instrument.

The increase in musical appreciation among the general public during recent years is shown not only by the size of the audiences for concerts and for the BBC's music programmes, but also by the number of gramophone records of classical music sold, which rose to some 11 million in 1957. The National Federation of Gramophone Societies has 350 affiliated societies.

Opera and Ballet

Regular seasons of opera and ballet are given at the Royal Opera House, Covent Garden, which is leased by the Government² to the Covent Garden Opera Trust, which was formed in 1944 to make the famous opera house the home of a national opera and ballet, and which receives a Government grant through the Arts Council. The Royal Opera House has its own resident opera company and ballet company

¹ Some of these are voluntary committees and some are local education authority sub-committees.

² The Ministry of Works acquired a 42-year lease from Covent Garden Properties Limited in 1949.

which give performances both in London and elsewhere. The opera company, which numbers about 200 and has a permanent orchestra, makes an annual tour of provincial centres. The ballet company, which in January 1957 was incorporated with the Sadler's Wells Theatre Ballet and the Sadler's Wells School to form the Royal Ballet, has a high international reputation gained as the Sadler's Wells Ballet during its visits in recent years to Canada and the United States and its European tours, arranged by the British Council.

Seasons of opera and ballet are also given at the Sadler's Wells Theatre in London; and at Glyndebourne in Sussex, an opera season, for which a company is specially assembled, is held every year. Other opera companies include the Carl Rosa, one of the oldest opera organisations in Britain; the English Opera Group, formed in 1947, and noted for its performances of operas by Benjamin Britten; Intimate Opera, which performs eighteenth and twentieth century works for small casts in any hall available, and the Welsh National Opera Company. The Arts Council manages a small operatic group (Opera for All) which specialises in introducing opera to audiences who hitherto have been unfamiliar with it. There are also a number of amateur opera clubs both in London and in the provinces. Among the ballet companies are the Ballet Rambert, Britain's oldest ballet company, which has discovered many distinguished dancers and choreographers, and the Festival Ballet.

The Royal (formerly Sadler's Wells), the Arts Educational, and the Rambert Ballet Training Schools and the Royal Academy of Dancing are among the teaching institutions which have played an important part in raising British ballet to its present high standard.

VIII. THE NATIONAL ECONOMY

BACKGROUND

The United Kingdom ranks about 75th in size among the countries of the world, with about 0·18 per cent of the world's land area. In population, with about 2 per cent of the world's inhabitants, it ranks ninth. In density of population it is fourth: of the major countries, only Japan, Belgium and the Netherlands are more crowded; and there are eleven times as many people to the square mile in the United Kingdom as in the United States. In world trade, it ranks second, accounting for more than 10 per cent of the total. It takes about a fifth of the world's exports of primary products, and provides about a fifth of the world's exports of manufactured goods.

The United Kingdom, from its own soil, provides only half of the food it needs; and—apart from coal and some low-grade iron ore—it has few natural resources; thus it is the world's largest importer of such products as wheat, meat, butter, fodder grains, citrus fruits, tea, tobacco, wool, and hard timber. In return, it is one of the world's largest exporters of ships, aircraft, locomotives, motor vehicles, electrical equipment, chemicals, textiles and most types of machinery. Few countries in the world have such a high proportion of the population living in towns (80 per cent) or such a small proportion of the working population engaged in agriculture (only about 4 per cent).

The United Kingdom is also the central banker of the Sterling Area, an area with a quarter of the world's population. Many countries outside the sterling area use sterling in their international transactions; nearly half the world's trade is conducted in sterling. By its membership of the European Payments Union of the Organisation for European Economic Co-operation, the United Kingdom provides a payments link between the sterling area and the countries of Western Europe.

The Economy before 1939

During the nineteenth century Britain secured a leading position as world manufacturer, merchant, carrier, banker, and investor and so was able to support a rapidly increasing population at a rising standard of living. It was Britain's commerce in cotton goods, above all, which gave it the leading position in world trade; cotton cloth provided 40 per cent of its exports in 1851. It was in this period also that the country became so largely dependent on imports: it has been estimated¹ that retained imports, which were only 12 per cent of net national income at factor cost (i.e. cost after discounting the effect of indirect taxes and subsidies), in 1820, rose to 28 per cent in 1870. (The 1957 figure was 23 per cent.)

The period from 1870 to 1890 was the high-water mark of British industrial expansion as compared with that of other countries. Between 1890 and 1914 growing industrial competition from Europe and North America began to make itself felt, but its effects on Britain's staple export industries, particularly cotton textiles and coal, were offset by the general rise in world trade, by the continued demand

¹ Prof. E. A. G. Robinson, *Economic Journal*, September 1954, p. 458.

for British textiles from India and other eastern countries, and by the continued high level of overseas investment.

The new problems confronting British industry and trade in the twentieth century became apparent after the first world war. Textiles from India and Japan, where labour costs were lower, established themselves firmly in the large eastern markets, to a great extent replacing the higher-priced and often higher quality British product. The extension of the world demand for coal was slowed down by the increasing use of oil, while coal from the new European mines competed severely with British coal.

In the old-established branches of the vehicles and engineering group of industries (e.g., locomotives, ships and textile machinery) world demand fell away after a brief post-war boom, and Britain failed at first to gain a compensating share of the expanding world trade in the new types of engineering products (e.g., cars and electrical goods). Most countries were tending towards self-sufficiency, and some sought deliberately to protect nascent and even established industries by sheltering them behind tariffs and (later) quotas and exchange restrictions.

Income from overseas investments and a substantial improvement in the terms of trade (the price of exports relative to the price of imports) cushioned the effect of a fall in the volume of exports, and imports remained high. The loss of export markets led, however, to a contraction of Britain's staple industries—coal, cotton, iron and steel, and the older branches of engineering. The result was heavy unemployment, the general rate of which averaged 14 per cent in the years 1921–39, reaching a peak of 22 per cent in 1932, when the slump in world trade was at its worst. In districts relying mainly on one of the staple industries, the rate was much higher.

After 1932 an improvement in the levels of production and employment took place, stimulated by an increase in home investment, by some revival in world trade and, after 1935, by the armament programme.

Effects of the Second World War

The second world war is estimated to have run down British domestic capital by about £3,000 million, through shipping losses, bomb damage, and arrears of industrial maintenance and replacements. It also resulted in a considerable alteration in Britain's financial and trading position, which may be summarised thus:

1. *Loss of overseas assets.* Over £1,000 million worth of overseas investments—including £428 million in North America—were sold to pay for war supplies. The income from these assets had paid for a substantial part of pre-war imports into the United Kingdom.
2. *New overseas debts.* New external debts, totalling £3,000 million, were accumulated.
3. *Terms of trade.* The price of imported raw materials rose sharply after the war, and by 1948 about one-fifth more goods had to be exported than in 1938 to bring in the same quantity of imports.
4. *Reduced exports.* By 1944, exports, curtailed as part of the war effort, had fallen to less than one-third of their 1938 volume.
5. *Smaller reserves.* The real value of the gold and dollar reserves was reduced to about half the pre-war level.
6. *World dollar shortage.* The physical destruction of the war led to an increased dependence on the part of Britain, the rest of the sterling area and many other countries, on supplies of all kinds from North America. Dollar earnings by non-dollar countries were inadequate to pay for these supplies.

Post-war Developments

Since the war, the economy of the United Kingdom has experienced a period of almost uninterrupted prosperity with a constantly increasing supply of goods and services and a virtual absence of unemployment. Invention and technological advance have combined with adaptation to world demands to produce some radical changes in the British industrial scene. Industries built on new techniques, notably in the electrical engineering, aircraft, motor and chemicals industries, are now contributing a significantly larger share of output—itsself much expanded—and providing wider employment opportunities for an increasingly skilled labour force and a growing contribution to the expanding export trade.

At the same time, the United Kingdom has had to deal with some persistent economic problems; in particular, to fulfil its overseas obligations and to maintain its traditional role in world commerce and finance it has needed to achieve and maintain a substantial balance of payments surplus, and to halt the almost continuous rise in internal prices. In the initial post-war years Marshall Aid and loans from the United States and Canada helped to overcome the serious deficit in the balance of payments pending the full recovery of exports. The strong expansion in exports in recent years has resulted in a substantial surplus in the balance of payments, but it was not until the first half of 1958 that this reached a level fully commensurate with Britain's overseas commitments.

The trend in prices is in part a reflection of rapid economic expansion and the consequent pressure upon resources in the form of a large increase in exports, the re-equipment and expansion of productive capacity, the raising of living standards at home, the supply of investment funds for the development of countries in the Commonwealth and elsewhere, and also a substantial contribution to the defence effort of the Western World. The Government has made the stability of prices a cardinal aim of its economic policy and has introduced to this end a series of corrective measures.

THE STRUCTURE OF THE ECONOMY

The following sections sketch briefly the salient features of the national income and expenditure of the United Kingdom, with particular reference to two factors—the balance of payments problems and the prevention of inflation. The sources of Tables 9 to 13 are *National Income and Expenditure, 1957*, and *Economic Survey, 1958*, Cmnd. 394.

National Income and Employment

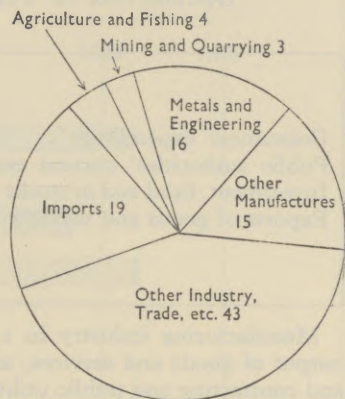
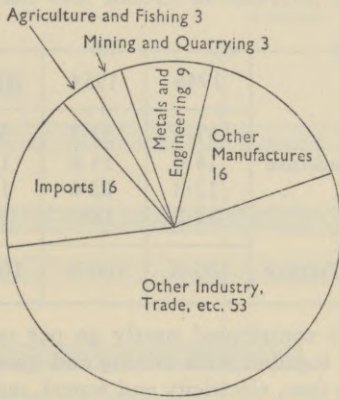
Between 1948 and 1957, the United Kingdom gross national product (the measure of total goods and services produced at home plus net income from abroad) is estimated to have risen by 85 per cent, from £10,368 million to £19,188 million. In real terms, that is after allowing for price changes, the increase has amounted to 30 per cent over the same period; this is equivalent to an average annual advance of about 3 per cent. In comparison with other countries, the United Kingdom's national income per head is below that of the United States and Canada and ranks roughly on a par with that of Australia, New Zealand, the Scandinavian countries and Switzerland.

Table 9, and the diagram on p. 229, show the distribution of total supplies of goods and services in 1935 and 1956, by use, divided between consumers, public authorities, investment and exports.

SUPPLY OF GOODS AND SERVICES IN 1935 AND 1956

Percentage composition at current factor cost

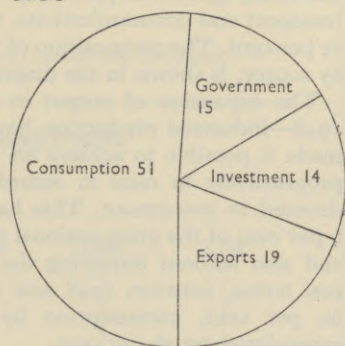
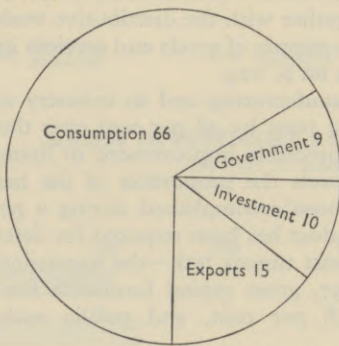
BY SOURCE



1935

1956

BY USE



NOTE. At the time of going to press data for 1957 were not available

INDEX OF PRODUCTION

PRODUCTION AND NATIONAL INCOME TRENDS 1900 - 57

INDEX OF NATIONAL INCOME

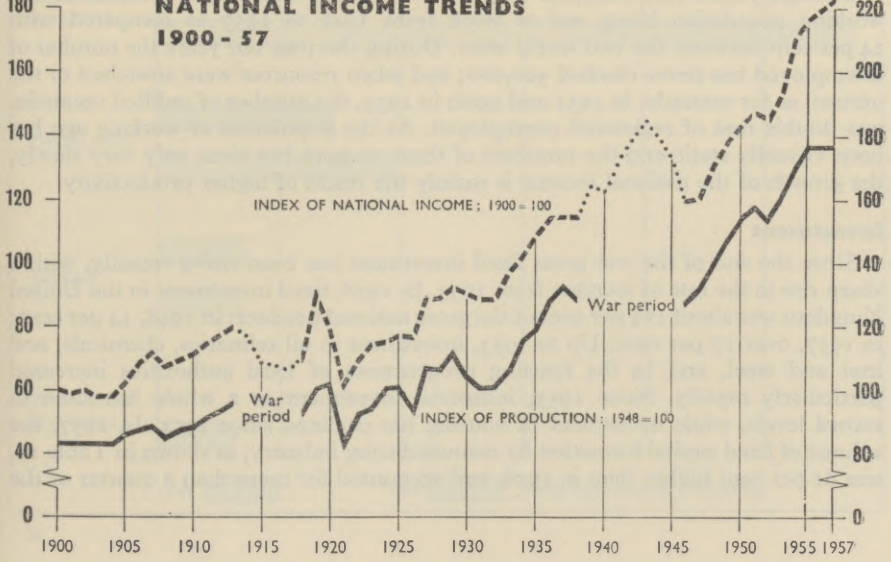


TABLE 9

DISTRIBUTION OF TOTAL SUPPLIES OF GOODS AND SERVICES

Percentages

	1948	1954	1956	1957
Consumers' expenditure	57.9	53.3	51.3	51.3
Public authorities' current expenditure	14.0	15.8	15.2	14.4
Investment, fixed and in stocks	12.3	12.6	14.2	15.3
Exports of goods and services	15.8	18.3	19.3	19.0
TOTALS	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Manufacturing industry in 1957 contributed nearly 40 per cent to the total output of goods and services, and together with mining and quarrying, building and contracting and public utilities (gas, electricity and water), made up over half the total; agriculture, forestry and fisheries accounted for less than 5 per cent, transport and communications, together with the distributive trades, for a further 21 per cent. The composition of the supply of goods and services in 1935 and 1956, by source, is shown in the diagram on p. 229.

The expansion of output in manufacturing and in industry as a whole since 1948—industrial production having risen by 38 per cent over the ten years—has made it possible to achieve an appreciable improvement in living standards and progressively to raise to record levels the proportion of the national resources devoted to investment. This has been accomplished during a period when over 9 per cent of the gross national product has been required for defence expenditure and also without impairing the most urgent task—the expansion of exports. In real terms, between 1948 and 1957, gross capital formation has risen by about 62 per cent, consumption by 18 per cent, and public authorities' current expenditure by 26 per cent.

The diagram on p. 229 shows production and national income trends from 1900 to 1957.

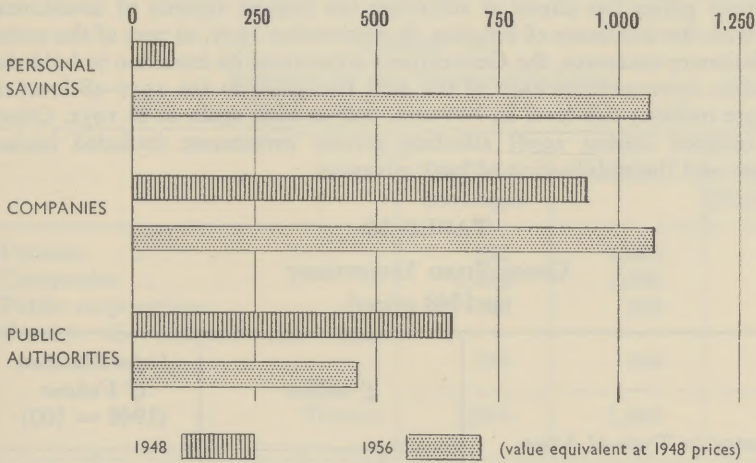
Unemployment has remained very low, on average less than 2 per cent of the working population being out of work from 1948 to 1957 as compared with 14 per cent between the two world wars. During the past ten years the number of unemployed has never reached 500,000; and when resources were stretched to the utmost, as for example, in 1951 and again in 1955, the number of unfilled vacancies was double that of registered unemployed. As the population of working age has been virtually static and the numbers of those at work has risen only very slowly, the growth of the national income is mainly the result of higher productivity.

Investment

Since the end of the war gross fixed investment has been rising steadily, with a sharp rise in the rate of increase from 1953. In 1938, fixed investment in the United Kingdom was about 12½ per cent of the gross national product; in 1948, 14 per cent; in 1957, over 17 per cent. Up to 1953, investment in oil refineries, chemicals, and iron and steel, and in the housing programmes of local authorities increased particularly rapidly. Since 1953, industrial investment as a whole has risen to record levels, while investment in housing has declined since 1954. In 1957, the volume of fixed capital formation by manufacturing industry, as shown in Table 10, was 81 per cent higher than in 1948, and accounted for more than a quarter of the

SOURCES OF SAVINGS

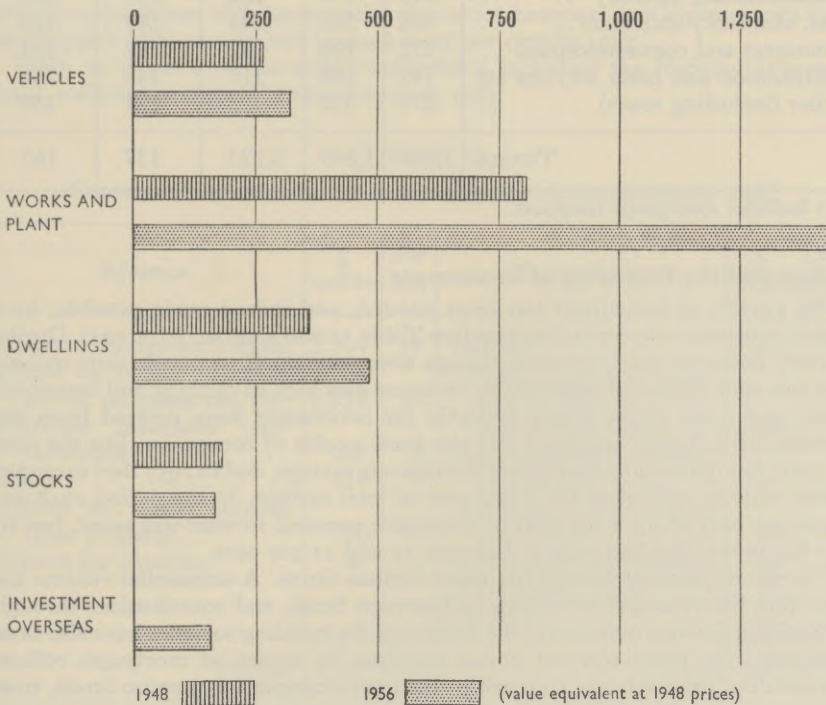
£ million



GROSS INVESTMENT EXPENDITURE

(by type of asset)

£ million



total; in the fuel and power industries the rate of increase has been similar. The general pattern of gross investment expenditure between 1948 and 1956 is shown in the diagram on p. 231.

Government policy has aimed at achieving the highest volume of investment consistent with the avoidance of inflation. In September 1957, as part of the series of anti-inflationary measures, the Government announced its intention to hold the total of public investment in each of the next two years to the 1957-58 level of about £1,500 million; this level is, however, half as high again as in 1951. Other measures (relaxed during 1958) affecting private investment included higher interest rates and the stabilisation of bank advances.

TABLE 10
GROSS FIXED INVESTMENT
(at 1948 prices)

Industry or Type of Asset	£ million			Index Numbers of Volume (1948 = 100)	
	1948	1955	1957 (Preliminary)	1953	1957
Dwellings	337	493	439	147	130
Manufacturing industry	349	454	632	130	181
Gas, electricity and water	138	205	243	149	176
Transport and communications	212	196	282	92	133
Distribution and other services (a)	119	169	315	142	265
Other (including roads)	275	332	412	121	150
TOTALS	1,430	1,849	2,323	137	162

(a) Includes road goods transport.

Savings and the Financing of Investment

The growth of investment has been assisted, and indeed made possible, by a marked expansion of personal savings (see Table 11 and diagram on p. 231). During the early post-war years, personal savings were very small, as people were making good war-time arrears of expenditure on necessities such as clothing and household goods, and most of the funds available for investment were derived from the Government's Budget surpluses and the gross profits of companies. But the next few years brought a remarkable growth in private savings, and in 1957 they exceeded £1,600 million, equivalent to 40 per cent of total savings. In the period 1948-51, on average only about 2 per cent of disposable personal income was saved, but by 1957 the proportion had risen to between 10 and 11 per cent.

The rise in personal savings has taken various forms. A substantial volume has come from life assurance premiums and pension funds, and contributions through the National Savings movement, the banks and the building societies have also been significant; the trend towards house purchase by means of mortgages reflects the growth of private house ownership. Insurance companies, pension funds, trust

funds and similar institutions have become progressively more important as sources of new capital for United Kingdom trade and industry and also for Commonwealth Governments and private companies raising loans on the London market.

TABLE 11
SAVINGS IN THE UNITED KINGDOM

£ million

	1953-55 (Average)	1956	1957 (Preliminary)
Persons	892	1,476	1,639
Companies	1,422	1,740	1,763
Public corporations	186	203	173
Central Government and local authorities	394	484	712
TOTALS	2,894	3,903	4,287

Public Authorities

Expenditure by the central Government, local authorities and the National Insurance Fund has expanded appreciably in comparison with pre-war years. The main factors in this trend are the growth of the social services, the housing programmes of the local authorities, and, since 1950, a high level of defence expenditure. As a percentage of the gross national product, however, the Government's share has dropped from 30 per cent in 1948 to 25 per cent in 1957.

Table 12 shows how the public authorities, including the National Insurance Fund, collected and spent their revenue in 1957.

TABLE 12
COMBINED REVENUE ACCOUNTS OF PUBLIC AUTHORITIES IN 1957

Revenue	£ million	Per cent	Expenditure	£ million	Per cent
Taxes on income and capital	2,764	39	Defence	1,529	22
Taxes on outlay—alcohol, petrol, purchase tax, etc.	2,339	33	Grants to persons—pen- sions, subsidies, Na- tional Insurance, etc.	1,665	23
National Insurance con- tributions	657	9	Local authorities current expenditure	1,042	15
Rates	614	9	Interest on national and local debt	928	13
Profits and other income from property	710	10	National Health Service	587	8
Grants for overseas	21	—	Other expenditure	547	8
			Surplus	807	11
TOTALS	7,105	100	TOTALS	7,105	100

Personal Incomes and Consumer Expenditure

The narrowing of earned income differentials and the re-distribution of incomes by taxation have resulted in the concentration of personal incomes after tax in the range of £250 to £1,000 a year. In contrast, less than one per cent of the total number of incomes after tax lie in the range of £2,000 and upwards and this proportion accounts for less than 5 per cent of aggregate personal income. There has at the same time been a marked change in the distribution of personal income by source. Incomes from employment in 1957 totalled £12,920 million (as compared with £9,105 million in 1952), and accounted for about 72 per cent of total personal incomes as against 60 per cent in 1938; for rent, dividends and interest the corresponding percentages are 22 and 11.

Consumer expenditure has been rising in real terms, i.e. after discounting the effect of price changes. In 1957, the volume of consumer expenditure was 11 per cent higher than in 1953 (as shown in Table 13) and 30 per cent higher than in 1948. The principal long-term trend is the rise in expenditure on durable goods and motoring; in 1957, these two groups accounted for nearly one-eighth of consumer expenditure. The amount spent on food, where the trend is towards greater consumption of higher quality foodstuffs, was about one-third of the total when calculated at current market prices. Using 1948 market prices, however, the proportion spent on food was only about 26 per cent, the difference in part arising from the reduction in food subsidies. The distribution of personal expenditure is also influenced by the incidence of indirect taxes, particularly the heavy taxes on drink and tobacco. If the effects of taxes and subsidies (mainly to agriculture) are excluded, the proportion spent on food would be about 40 per cent, and that spent on drink and tobacco about 6 per cent.

TABLE 13
CONSUMER EXPENDITURE IN THE UNITED KINGDOM
(At 1948 Market Prices)

Category	Expenditure		Increase	
	£ million		£ million	Per cent
	1953	1957	1953-57	1953-57
Food	2,492	2,669	177	7
Alcoholic drink	838	921	83	10
Tobacco	794	865	71	9
Housing, fuel and light ..	1,145	1,207	62	5
Durable household goods ..	624	801	177	28
Clothing and footwear ..	912	1,074	162	18
Private motoring and cycling ..	272	369	97	36
Other goods	638	744	106	17
Other services	1,354	1,365	11	1
TOTALS	9,069	10,015	946	11

Incomes and Prices

Between 1945 and the end of 1957, the cost of living in the United Kingdom rose almost without interruption, though at varying rates of increase. The most rapid

rise, roughly 10 per cent, was between 1950 and 1951; the lowest, about 2 per cent, between 1953 and 1954. Over the period 1948 to 1957 the rise was between 50 and 60 per cent, while wages and salaries increased by 90 per cent, and rents, dividends and interest by 70 per cent.

In the six years after the war, the general upward movement of costs and prices was in part the result of the rapid increase in import prices, no less than 50 per cent between 1948 and 1951. This upward trend continued, however, after 1951, although import prices fell. Over the whole period since the war, it is clear that the main immediate cause of the rise in prices has been the tendency of incomes to rise faster than production. The underlying causes of this trend are less easy to identify.

Steps have been taken by the United Kingdom Government throughout the period to counter this gradual inflation. The main weapons consistently used have been Budget surpluses and appeals for voluntary restraint in increases in wages and profits. Up to 1950 a number of physical controls were also employed, and latterly increased use has been made of monetary policy, the pruning of Government expenditure and the restriction of credit. Nevertheless, the over-rapid growth of money incomes continued until 1957 and has contributed on occasions to lack of confidence in, and occasional speculation against, sterling.

Speculation of this type was a factor in the heavy loss of gold and dollar reserves in the third quarter of 1957. Counter measures were therefore taken to stop the upward drift in costs and prices, including a ceiling on public investment, a ceiling on bank advances and a sharp increase in the Bank Rate. Restoration of confidence in sterling followed quickly and a strong recovery in the gold and dollar reserves took place over the next nine months. Since the spring of 1958, the Bank Rate has been reduced by stages, and progressive relaxations have been made in other restrictions on borrowing and investment.

In August 1957, the Government set up an independent body, the Council on Prices, Productivity and Incomes (the Cohen Council), to make periodic reports to the public (not to the Government), on changes in prices, productivity and the level of incomes. Its first report, published in February 1958, aroused widespread discussion. One of its conclusions was that an abnormal pressure of monetary demand for goods and services of all types had been the main cause of rising prices and money incomes. A second report was issued in August 1958.

Overseas Trade and Payments

The overseas trade of the United Kingdom has undergone a radical transformation since 1945. Exports have expanded rapidly: the pre-war volume was almost regained in 1946; since then it has doubled. At the same time both the commodity composition of exports and their geographical distribution has changed. Metals, engineering and vehicles industries, in which there has been a rapid development of new processes and products, in 1957 provided 52 per cent of total exports as compared with 38 per cent in 1938. The dollar area now receives 16 per cent of exports as compared with 11 per cent in 1938.

Between 1954 and 1957 the volume of imports rose by 15 per cent and that of exports by 16 per cent, while the terms of trade (the relation of export prices to import prices), which had become much more adverse than before the war, became more favourable, without, however, restoring the 1938 relationship. Invisible earnings from shipping, commerce, tourism, investment income and other sources have also improved greatly and the net surpluses on current account in 1956 and 1957 were the highest for several years, averaging about £250 million despite the disturbances resulting from the Suez crisis.

The United Kingdom Government, however, considers surpluses of this order insufficient. Its ultimate aim is an average annual surplus of at least £350 million in order to meet all its overseas commitments and obligations (e.g., the repayment of the United States and Canadian post-war loans and the drawing upon sterling balances by overseas Commonwealth countries for development purposes), and to maintain and increase long-term investment overseas, particularly in the Commonwealth. Traditionally, Britain has been a heavy exporter of capital and, since 1945, despite severe burdens on resources strained by war, the outflow has been maintained at a high level. In the years 1954-57, net overseas investment has averaged about £200 million a year, or some 1½ per cent of the national income. A second objective is a strengthening of the gold and foreign currency reserves, to a level commensurate with the importance of sterling in financing world trade. In addition, the repayment of short-term and medium-term borrowing from the International Monetary Fund and the United States Export-Import Bank, undertaken in 1956 and 1957 to reinforce the reserves, will make additional calls upon the United Kingdom's foreign exchange resources. Rapid progress was made in the first half of 1958 towards building up the gold and dollar reserves, and by the end of June the reserves had reached their highest level since the end of the war, apart from a brief period in 1951 when commodity prices were at their peak as a result of the war in Korea.

IX. INDUSTRY

ORGANISATION AND PRODUCTION

The United Kingdom was the first country in the world to become highly industrialised. Eleven people work in mining, manufacturing and building for every one in agriculture. The United Kingdom is one of the world's largest exporters of manufactured goods per head of population and the range of its industrial manufactures reflects its position as an outstanding workshop of the world.

Location

The factors that have influenced the location of industry in Britain are many and various. During the rapid industrialisation of the nineteenth century, one of the most important influences was the proximity of coal, the major source of power, particularly when it was associated with ease of access to other raw materials such as iron ore in the West Midlands and salt (for chemicals) in Cheshire, and to the coast which in turn offered easy access to imported raw materials and a quick outlet for exports. In the course of the past hundred years, the pull exercised by coal has been progressively weakened as improved means of communication and an alternative source of power in electricity have been developed and have enabled advantage to be taken of other sites—e.g., those near to big consumer markets and plentiful supplies of labour. During the inter-war period there was a tendency for the 'new' industries such as those manufacturing motor vehicles, electrical goods and rubber products to develop rapidly in the South (especially in and around Greater London) and the Midlands. On the other hand, this period was one of acute depression and mass unemployment for the older industrial areas which specialised in the great staple industries—coalmining, steel, shipbuilding, marine engineering and cotton manufacture. These conditions prompted official action (which has been intensified since the second world war) aimed at encouraging new industrial development and diversification in the areas concerned (known as Development Areas, see pp. 241–2) where labour and other resources are to be found, and discouraging further industrialisation in congested areas such as Greater London and Greater Birmingham. A considerable expansion and diversification of industry has, in fact, taken place in the Development Areas as a result of these policies, allied to the war-time dispersal of industry and the widespread demand for new factory premises over the past decade.






Although industry is today widely dispersed, the main areas of industrial concentration are still, with one exception (London), the areas which saw the beginning of Britain's industrial greatness and which, with two exceptions (London and Belfast), are on or near coalfields. These areas and their main industries are listed below (see also map, pp. 238–9). Four of them—Lancashire, South Wales, Tyneside, and Central Scotland—contain Development Areas where, as in Northern Ireland, considerable success has been achieved by Government action to diversify the industrial structure.

Greater London. London is the main centre in Britain of the clothing and food and drink industries, of printing, of film production, and of the manufacture of furniture, materials for the arts, precision instruments and many other specialised








Location of Industry

KEY TO MAP




NATURAL RESOURCES

- Hydro-electric Stations 
- Coal 
- Iron Ore 
- Tin 
- China Clay 


METALS & ENGINEERING

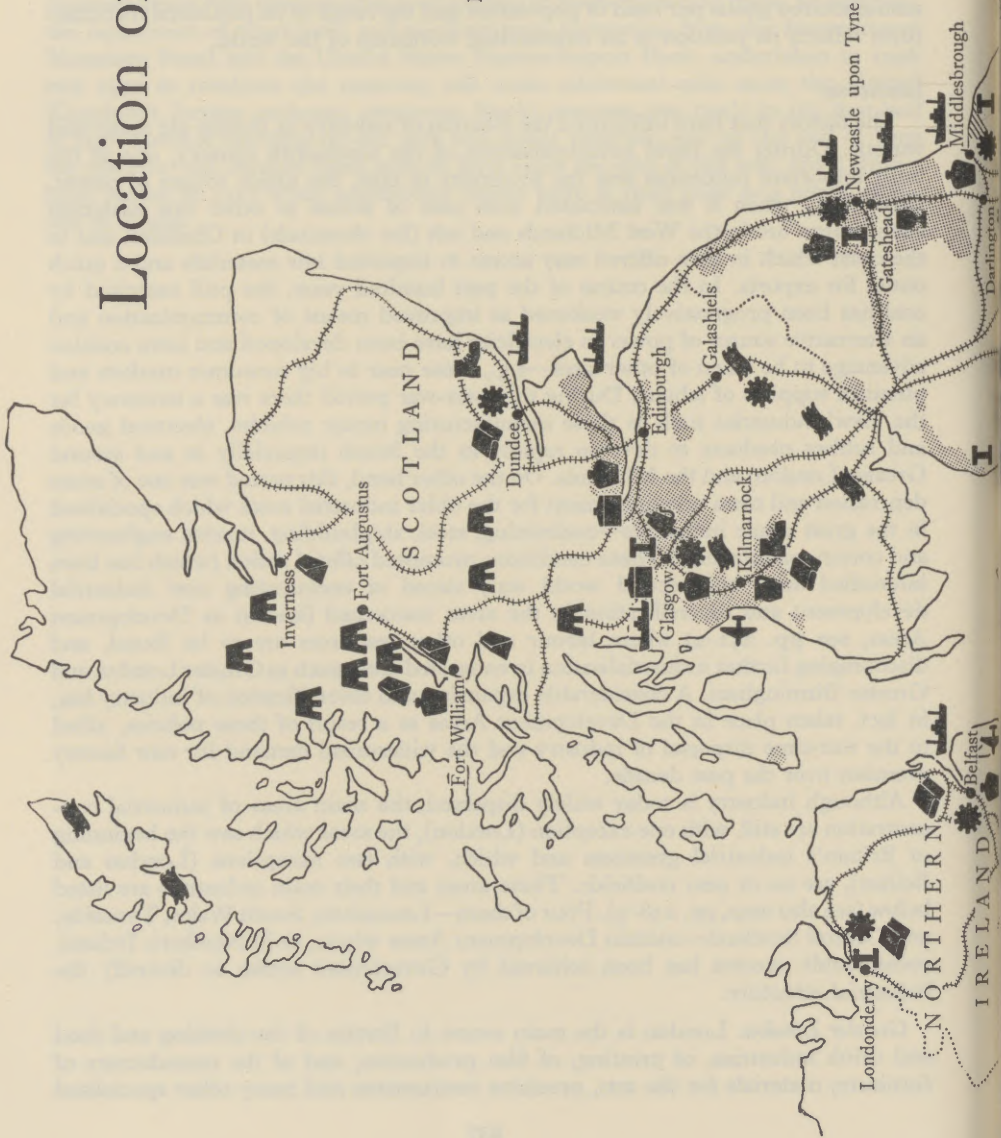
- Iron & Steel 
- Aluminium 
- Heavy Engineering 
- Light Engineering 
- Aircraft 
- Vehicles 
- Shipbuilding 

TEXTILES

- Cotton 
- Woollen 
- Other (jute, linen, and man-made fibres) 

OTHER INDUSTRIES

- Chemicals 



goods. Small firms predominate in all these industries, and the average size of manufacturing firms in London is well below the national average. London is also an important centre for light engineering and chemicals, and has some heavy engineering plants. Indeed, London is so large and its industries so diverse that it is a main centre for many of the broad groups of manufacturing industries, with the notable exception of textiles and metal manufacture.

Midlands. The main Midland industrial area consists of the great conurbation centred on Birmingham and Wolverhampton (which includes portions of Staffordshire, Worcestershire and Warwickshire) where there is a wide variety of industry, including notably the manufacture of metals, electrical and engineering goods and vehicles, and also jewellery, rubber products and domestic metalware. The smaller adjacent conurbation of North Staffordshire, centred on Stoke-on-Trent, may be considered as a separate industrial area and is devoted chiefly to the manufacture of pottery and china and to the mining of coal. Leicester, Coventry, Rugby, Derby and Nottingham are the principal industrial towns in the rest of the Midland area. One of the richest coalfields in the country is situated in the north-east of the area and continues into Yorkshire.

Yorkshire. The West Riding of Yorkshire still contains much the biggest section of the British woollen and worsted industry, the principal towns being Bradford, Halifax (which also specialises in carpets) and Huddersfield. Leeds, the largest city, is more concerned with clothing and engineering products. York is an important centre for chocolate and sugar confectionery. The city of Sheffield, in the extreme south of Yorkshire, is famous for its high-quality steel, its cutlery, plate and tool industry and its heavy engineering. There are extensive coalfields in the West Riding of Yorkshire. Hull is one of the world's largest fishing ports.

South-east Lancashire. Manchester is the commercial centre of the cotton textile industry. Most cotton yarn is spun in towns within a ten-mile radius of Manchester, but weaving is mainly carried on somewhat farther to the north, in the Preston, Burnley, Nelson, Blackburn and Colne areas. Manchester itself, besides having the variety of industry typical of a large city, is one of Britain's chief centres of electrical and heavy engineering and dyestuffs. There are also coalfields in the Manchester area. The Manchester Ship Canal, which carries a substantial volume of overseas trade, links Manchester with Merseyside. It passes through important industrial towns such as Warrington with its metal industries, Widnes with its chemicals, and Ellesmere Port with its oil refinery installations, before reaching the Mersey estuary. Liverpool is one of Britain's main ports and commercial centres and, after London, the greatest centre for food processing. Among its older industries is ship repairing; shipbuilding is a major industry across the river at Birkenhead. In recent years many new industries, including electrical engineering and the manufacture of other heavy industrial equipment, have been rapidly assuming a place of importance in the Liverpool area.

South Wales. Coalmining, including the production of such special coals as steam coal and anthracite, has been and remains the chief industry of South Wales. The other basic industry is steel, including tinplate, in which extensive modernisation is in progress. Since 1934, new manufacturing industries have been introduced into Wales to ensure diversity of employment, and these now provide capital and consumer goods on an extensive scale. The new industries include the manufacture of plastics, chemicals, textiles, aircraft and a variety of light engineering and electrical products.

Tyneside and Tees-side. In Northumberland and Durham, but not in north Yorkshire, coalmining is the principal industry. The region is also a centre for the iron and steel industry, the chemical and engineering industries and is of increasing importance for lighter industries; it is second only to Clydeside as a shipbuilding and ship-repairing area. Most of the shipyards are on the lower reaches of the rivers Tyne, Wear and Tees.

Central Scotland. The largest shipbuilding centre in Britain is on Clydeside. It has a marine engineering industry and important neighbouring coalfields in the Lothians, Fife and Lanark, although activity in this last-named field is now declining as the seams become worked out. There is also a flourishing iron and steel industry. The commercial importance of Glasgow and the size and varied appointments of the great ships built on Clydeside have assured for this area a variety of manufactures. The whole of the central lowlands of Scotland from the Clyde to the Forth is industrialised.

Northern Ireland. One of the largest shipyards in the United Kingdom is located at Belfast, where there is also a large aircraft construction establishment. Northern Ireland has, in addition to marine engineering, a range of other engineering industries, and traditional industries of the area include linen, shirt-making, ropes, cigarettes and tobacco.

Other Centres. A number of towns and cities outside the main industrial areas are also important manufacturing centres. Scunthorpe, in Lincolnshire, and Corby, in Northamptonshire, are two of the largest steel-making centres. Peterborough, also in Northamptonshire, has several important engineering plants. Bristol, the largest city in south-west England and a leading port, is noted for the building of aircraft, the tobacco industry and the manufacture of confectionery. Barrow, in north-west Lancashire, is known for shipbuilding and marine engineering, and the jute industry is concentrated at Dundee, in Scotland.

Distribution of Industry Policy

Government policy is particularly concerned with the distribution of industry. The Government cannot direct a firm to go to any particular area or site, but the Board of Trade has statutory powers under the Town and Country Planning Acts, 1947, to ensure that new industrial development throughout Great Britain is carried out consistently with the proper distribution of industry. A certificate to this effect from the Board of Trade is necessary before planning consent may be given by a local planning authority for a new industrial building or extension with an area exceeding 5,000 square feet. One use of these powers has been to discourage the expansion of industry in congested areas such as Greater London or Birmingham.

Moreover, areas in Great Britain where there is likely to be a special danger of unemployment may be scheduled by the Board of Trade as Development Areas under the Distribution of Industry Act, 1945. The purpose of this Act, and of the Distribution of Industry Act, 1950, is to promote the growth of new industry and the expansion of existing industry in the Development Areas. The main advantages which these Acts give to Development Areas are that the Board of Trade may build factories for letting to suitable industries and the Treasury may help by making loans or grants to undertakings which are unable to secure finance through normal channels. The Board of Trade factories are built and managed by Industrial Estate Companies. The directors of these companies are unpaid and are appointed by the Board of Trade, and their capital is provided from Government sources. The companies include North-Western Industrial Estates Ltd., North-Eastern Trading Estates Ltd., Scottish Industrial Estates Ltd., Wales and Monmouthshire Industrial Estates Ltd., and the West Cumberland Industrial Development Company Ltd.

There are Development Areas in the following parts of England and Wales: the mining and coastal areas of Northumberland and Durham; West Cumberland; South Wales and Monmouthshire; Wrexham; South Lancashire; Merseyside; and North-East Lancashire. In Scotland, the industrial area in and around the Clyde Valley, the Dundee area, and part of the Highlands have been scheduled as the Scottish Development Area.

New industrial buildings and extensions to existing buildings, both of over 5,000 square feet, completed in Great Britain between the beginning of 1945 and the end of 1957 totalled over 350 million square feet. Of this total, rather less than 30 per cent was in the Development Areas which have, by contrast, some 18 per cent of the country's insured workers in manufacturing industry.

Government assistance is not limited to Development Areas: the Board of Trade gives attention to the needs of other areas of persistent unemployment and tries to steer suitable new industry to them. In some of these places, and in new towns or expanded towns (intended to receive population and industry moving from London, Glasgow and other congested centres) factories may be built by local authorities. In rural and fishing areas (for example, the Buckie-Peterhead Area in north-east Scotland) which need a small amount of manufacturing industry, the Development Commission has financed the building of several factories for industrialists prepared to go there. The Government has recently acquired new powers, under the Distribution of Industry (Industrial Finance) Act, 1958, to enable financial assistance to be given to undertakings which will provide employment in places, whether within or outside the Development Areas, where there is a high rate of unemployment.

The Distribution of Industry Acts do not apply to Northern Ireland because, under the Northern Ireland constitution, the matters they deal with are the concern of the Northern Ireland Parliament, which has passed its own legislation to encourage industrial expansion and diversification. The Northern Ireland Government builds factories for renting or purchasing on favourable terms and provides grants and loans for new industrial undertakings, and the Board of Trade gives Northern Ireland priority as if it were a Development Area for the purposes of encouraging and guiding new or expanding industrial development. As a result, since 1945, more than 130 firms have started production for the first time in Northern Ireland and 90 schemes of expansion have been put into effect. These new firms and expansion schemes are already providing employment for 32,000 people. The United Kingdom Government also gives manufacturers in Northern Ireland, as in Development Areas in Great Britain, some preference in placing Government contracts.

Development Councils

In Scotland, the *Scottish Council (Development and Industry)*, with a wide membership including local authorities, trade associations, trade unions, Chambers of Commerce, co-operative societies and banks, is concerned with the economic development of Scotland. It assists the expansion of existing industry, fosters the growth of new industries especially in areas requiring development, encourages exports, organises exhibitions and publicises Scottish trade and industry.

In Wales, a body corresponding to the Scottish Council in aims and constitution is the *National Industrial Development Council of Wales and Monmouthshire*.

The *Northern Ireland Development Council* was established in 1955 to promote the creation of new industries and to reduce unemployment. The Council makes more widely known in Great Britain, the United States and elsewhere, the facilities

offered by Northern Ireland to new undertakings. It also advises the Northern Ireland Government on matters connected with industrial development.

The Structure of Industry

The pattern of ownership and organisation in industry is varied. Personal, corporate, co-operative and public enterprise all assume a number of different forms, and all are important in the economy. Industrial enterprises vary from the many small workshops to vast organisations such as the National Coal Board, a public corporation with some 700,000 employees; Imperial Chemical Industries Ltd., a limited liability company which, with its subsidiaries, employs some 115,000 persons in the United Kingdom; and the Co-operative Wholesale Society Ltd., a co-operative society with some 50,000 employees.

Role of Public Enterprise

Throughout the first half of the twentieth century, the growth of the social services, especially health, education and housing, led to the progressively greater influence of the public sector of the economy. There was also an increase in the State's direct participation in productive economic activities, particularly in the decade 1940-50. Since 1951, however, most of the steel industry and the road haulage services of the British Transport Commission have been returned from public to private ownership. State participation is effected mainly through special statutory bodies set up to deal with a particular activity. Such bodies, though not part of a Government Department, are under a considerable but varying degree of public control (see pp. 248-9). The most important of these statutory bodies are the public corporations which operate major industries and services in the public interest.

The public corporation in its twentieth-century form is, generally speaking, a public body having a clearly defined and specific task. Its board of directors and its staff are chosen for their experience and competence in a particular field; they are not civil servants, and although they are accountable to Parliament for their actions in a variety of ways, it is they and not the Ministers of the sponsoring Departments who are responsible for the management of the corporations. Certain of the corporations are self-supporting; others receive Exchequer grants to help them in carrying out the duties with which they have been charged.

Before the second world war, a number of public corporations were established¹ in those industries and services where it was considered that the national interest required co-ordination or control by a public authority. Their constitutions had no standard pattern and their governing bodies differed in the method of appointment and in composition.

Immediately after the second world war, the Nationalisation Acts set up public corporations to run certain major industries and services, including coalmining,

¹ The principal corporations appointed before the second world war were: (1) the Central Electricity Board, established by the Electricity Supply Act, 1926, to rationalise electricity generation and build and operate a main transmission system; (2) the British Broadcasting Corporation, established in 1927 by Royal Charter to provide a national broadcasting service; (3) the Electricity Board for Northern Ireland, established by the Electricity (Supply) Act (Northern Ireland), 1931, to develop electricity supplies in Northern Ireland outside the two County Boroughs, Belfast and Londonderry; (4) the London Passenger Transport Board, established by Act of Parliament in 1933, to operate the public transport system of the London Metropolitan area; (5) the Northern Ireland Road Transport Board, established by the Road and Rail Transport Act (Northern Ireland), 1935, to acquire public road transport services in Northern Ireland outside the County Boroughs; (6) the British Overseas Airways Corporation, established by the British Overseas Airways Act, 1939, to take over the operation of the two main existing air transport companies—Imperial Airways and British Airways.

inland transport, gas supply, electricity generation and supply, and civil air transport. These post-war corporations are less varied in the structure of their governing bodies, which are appointed by the responsible Minister, who has full powers of dismissal.

The following corporations, the organisation and functions of which are described in later chapters, are now operating or controlling industries or services:

- The Bank of England.
- The British Broadcasting Corporation.
- Cable & Wireless Limited.
- The British Transport Commission.
- The Ulster Transport Authority.
- The British Overseas Airways Corporation.
- British European Airways.
- The National Coal Board.
- The Gas Council and Area Gas Boards.
- The Electricity Council and the Central Electricity Generating Board.
- The Electricity Board for Northern Ireland.
- The North of Scotland Hydro-Electric Board.
- The South of Scotland Electricity Board.
- The United Kingdom Atomic Energy Authority.

Mining and Quarrying

Much the most important of the British extractive industries is coalmining. The coalmining industry of Great Britain is operated as a single co-ordinated enterprise under the direction of the National Coal Board. For an account of the coal industry see pp. 285-90.

All other mining and quarrying (e.g., iron ore, sand, gravel, chalk, limestone, salt, tin, slate, oil shale and china clay) is undertaken by private enterprise, usually owned and operated by limited liability companies. About 80,000 workers are employed in the mining industries other than coalmining.

Manufacturing

Most manufacturing is in the hands of private enterprise. Some exceptions are locomotives and rolling-stock for use on British Railways, built in workshops owned and operated by the British Transport Commission, a considerable quantity of arms and military equipment made in Royal Ordnance factories and other factories operated by the Ministry of Supply, and some fighting ships built in naval dockyards operated by the Admiralty. Printing and bookbinding is undertaken by staffs of the Stationery Office, while the repair, and to a limited extent the construction, of Post Office equipment is carried on in factories run by the Post Office.

Surveys of the size of all manufacturing establishments employing more than 10 persons are made periodically by the Ministry of Labour and National Service; the results of the most recent of these surveys, based on returns rendered by employers in December 1955, show that about a third of all employees in manufacturing industries are in establishments employing from 100 to 500 persons. A high proportion of the biggest establishments are in the heavy industries, while the average size of establishments in industries making consumer goods is smaller than in manufacturing industries as a whole. Comparisons with results obtained in earlier surveys on similar lines suggest that there is a slow but significant trend towards an increase in the average size of manufacturing establishments: in 1955, establishments with 1,000 or more employees were found to employ 2,640,000 persons, over ten per cent more than two years previously and more than twice as many as in 1935.

The size of establishments is not in itself an indication of the size of manufacturing firms, as a single firm may own several establishments. There are no general surveys of the size of manufacturing firms comparable with the survey of establishments. It is known, however, that in a few industries a small number of big companies are responsible for most of the total production. Shares in these companies are usually distributed among a great number of holders and it is unusual for a few large holders to have a controlling interest.

The way in which the work of production is divided within and between different firms varies from industry to industry. In the cotton industry, for example, it is usual for different firms to undertake the various main processes of production (spinning, weaving, finishing), while in the woollen section of the wool textile industry all these processes are commonly undertaken within the same firm. Some of the leading establishments in the vehicles group of industries are primarily engaged on the assembly of parts, many of which have been built for them under contract by specialist firms.

An account of some of the principal manufacturing industries is given on pp. 308-34.

Building and Civil Engineering

In building and civil engineering large-scale work is usually carried out by private contractors. Since the end of the second world war, most new houses have been built by firms under contract to local authorities, but an increasing number are now built under contract to persons or companies, or for sale.

Building firms may be divided into those undertaking general building and civil engineering work and those concerned with highly specialised work, many of which operate outside as well as inside the building industry. Building is an industry of small firms; more than half of the firms employ fewer than twenty employees. For a fuller account of the building and civil engineering industries see pp. 305-8.

Industrial Association

From the middle of the nineteenth century, private industrial undertakings have increasingly entered into voluntary association for a number of different purposes. Some of the more important of these purposes may be classified as follows:

1. The provision of common services, the exchange of information, liaison with Government, and representation of their members' point of view.
2. The regulation of trading practices.
3. Negotiation with trade unions on wages and conditions of work.

Associations for the first and third of these purposes cover, with varying completeness, most of British industry but there are wide sectors of industry where there is no collective agreement to regulate trading practices. Associations which deal with labour matters usually consist of firms engaged in the same type of operation or manufacturing process. Organisations mainly concerned with representations to the Government, provision of common services or the regulation of prices are built up round a product or an allied group of products. In an industrial sector concerned wholly with an allied group of products, a single association may undertake all the required functions.

There are about 270 national federations and probably about 1,600 other employers' organisations (mostly regional or local, and members or branches of the national federations) all concerned with negotiation of wages and conditions of work. Most of the national federations are in turn affiliated to the *British Employers' Confederation*, the national body representing employers on labour questions affecting industry generally (see Chapter XI).

The number of manufacturers' associations concerned with providing common services and regulating prices and trading methods is not known precisely, but according to a survey carried out by Political and Economic Planning between 1953 and 1956, some 1,300 are in existence, varying greatly in importance, structure and activities. Membership of the *Federation of British Industries* (FBI), the national body recognised as the spokesman for British industry on economic, commercial and production (as distinct from labour) matters, consists of more than 7,600 individual firms and nearly 300 national trade organisations, with a total affiliated membership of some 40,000 to 45,000 firms. The FBI has offices in the main industrial centres in the United Kingdom and is widely represented abroad. It has a wholly owned subsidiary company, British Overseas Fairs Limited, which is responsible for the organisation of British trade fairs overseas.

A number of the organisations affiliated to the FBI also deal with labour matters and are affiliated to the British Employers' Confederation. The two organisations work closely together on matters of common interest.

Other important national associations of employers are the *National Union of Manufacturers* (NUM) and the *Association of British Chambers of Commerce*. The members of NUM are over 5,000 manufacturing firms, mainly small or medium sized, and some 70 trade associations are affiliated to it. Like the FBI it has regional branches. The Association of British Chambers of Commerce is the central organisation to which about 100 local Chambers of Commerce are affiliated. In Scotland, there is also a central organisation, the Council of Scottish Chambers of Commerce. These bodies are open to all kinds of producers and traders and exist for promoting the interests of local industry and commerce. The FBI, the NUM and the Chambers of Commerce often act jointly in matters of common concern.

Relations with Government

The Government is able to influence industry in a number of ways—through fiscal and monetary policy, by means of physical controls and inducements, as well as by providing information and advice.

A system has grown up whereby a particular Government Department acts as the main point of contact, a 'production department' for each major industry.

The Department through which the Government's relations with trade and industry are chiefly conducted is the Board of Trade, and the Board's responsibilities cover a wide range of industries and materials. Certain industries and services, however, are the responsibility of other Departments, as production departments:

Ministry of Supply	Aircraft, radio and light metal industries and explosives. (The primary task of the Ministry is to supply the armed forces.)
Admiralty	Shipbuilding and ship-repairing.
Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food	Farming, horticulture, agricultural machinery, fisheries, and food processing.
Ministry of Power	Coal, oil, gas, electricity (including nuclear power), iron and steel.
Ministry of Transport and Civil Aviation	Transport services (including civil aviation), roadmaking, and certain sections of the quarrying industry.
Ministry of Works	Building, civil engineering and building materials.

Ministry of Housing and Local Government House-building.

Government

Ministry of Health Medical and surgical goods.

The Treasury is responsible for overall economic policy, and specifically for fiscal and monetary policy through which it is able to influence the level of economic activity and the utilisation of the nation's resources, in particular the volume of investment. The Ministry of Labour and National Service is the channel through which manpower policy is conducted.

There are separate Departments of the Northern Ireland Government for matters within the competence of the Northern Ireland Parliament. The Ministry of Commerce deals with industry, including the encouragement of industrial development.

During and after the second world war, many operations of industry and commerce were subject to Government control. Most of these controls have been relaxed, but some remain. Thus, the consent of the Treasury is required for the issue of new capital in excess of £50,000; and that of the Board of Trade for the import or export of certain goods. The powers of the Board of Trade to influence the location of industry have been mentioned earlier in this chapter, and those of the Ministry of Housing and Local Government, acting through local planning authorities, to control the use of land are described on pp. 177-81.

The Central Statistical Office, which is attached to the Cabinet Office, was established in 1940 to provide a comprehensive statistical service to assist the authorities in framing economic and financial policy. Although Departments themselves compile statistics relating to their particular responsibilities, and may publish them in their own standard publications, the comprehensive publications, the *Monthly Digest of Statistics* and the *Annual Abstract of Statistics*, are prepared by the Central Statistical Office. It is also the source of the annual estimates of national income and expenditure published in the annual *Economic Survey* of the United Kingdom, issued before the Budget statement, and in *The National Income and Expenditure* issued later in the year. A *Digest of Scottish Statistics* is published half-yearly by the Scottish Statistical Office.

All Departments which are production authorities, and some others, including the Treasury, the Ministry of Labour and National Service, and the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research (see p. 251) have a responsibility for promoting increased productivity and efficiency in industry. The Board of Trade, besides being the major production department, is responsible for co-ordinating official activities for the promotion of productivity. A fuller account of official and private action for the promotion of productivity is given on pp. 249-52.

To ensure that industry is fully aware of Government policy and also that policy is framed with a full knowledge of industry's needs and difficulties, a number of consultative bodies have been set up representing Government, employers' associations and trade unions. Among the more important of these are the *National Production Advisory Council on Industry* (NPACI) and the *National Joint Advisory Council* (NJAC). The NJAC consists of representatives of private employers, the boards of nationalised industries and trade unionists, under the chairmanship of the Minister of Labour and National Service, and is concerned with matters affecting the relations between employers and workers. The NPACI, which covers the wider problems of industrial production, is under the chairmanship of the Chancellor of the Exchequer and includes representatives of the Regional Boards for Industry (see overleaf) and of certain Government Departments as well as of employers and workers. Northern Ireland has its own Production Council, corresponding to the NPACI, to the meetings of which it sends two representatives as observers.

An important body, which is purely advisory to the Government rather than a channel of communication with industry, is the *Economic Planning Board*. It was established in 1947 to advise on economic policy; its proceedings are confidential. The chairman of the Board is one of the two Permanent Secretaries to the Treasury, and its membership includes representatives of the Treasury, the Board of Trade, the Ministry of Power and the Ministry of Labour and National Service, and nominees of the Trades Union Congress, the Federation of British Industries and the British Employers' Confederation.

These consultative bodies approach the study of problems from a broad national point of view. There are, in addition, consultative bodies concerned with the special problems of Scotland and Wales and of the English regions. The most important of these are the *Regional Boards for Industry* and the corresponding *Scottish and Welsh Boards for Industry*, whose main functions are to keep the Government informed on industrial conditions in the nine English regions and in Wales and Scotland, and to provide a link between central Government and local industry.

Government and the Nationalised Industries

The extent to which the responsible Minister has power over the working of the Boards which have been set up to run the nationalised industries varies from industry to industry, but two features are common to almost all of them. First, the Minister appoints the chairman and members of each Board, and secondly, he has power to give general directions as to how the industry should be run, but does not interfere in day-to-day management. It is usually also laid down that the Board shall give to the Minister any information, statistics and financial accounts which he may require. In practice, as the responsible Minister is kept fully informed and major policy decisions are reached in consultation with him, there is very seldom occasion for him to issue a formal directive, and, in fact, only two such directives have been issued.

The Minister also has financial powers and responsibilities. The usual financial arrangement is that the Board is required to conduct its business so that receipts at least balance outgoings over a period of years. The responsible Minister is usually empowered (subject to Treasury approval) to say what shall be done with any surplus should the Boards make a profit. As regards finance of capital expenditure, the present system is that such finance is provided, in the form of interest-earning loans, by the Minister from the Exchequer, bank advances being used only for normal requirements of short-term capital once outstanding loans have been repaid.

The Minister responsible for each nationalised industry must take steps to see that the interests of the industry's customers are protected. This is usually done by the establishment of representative consumers' councils to consider complaints and suggestions made to them, and to advise the Board or the Minister on the changes they think desirable. It is recognised that these arrangements are still to a great extent experimental.

Government policy towards these industries is subject to the approval of Parliament. Opportunities for parliamentary discussion are afforded by debates, including debates on their annual reports and accounts, and by answers to parliamentary questions, which, in principle, are only admissible if concerned with policy rather than details of administration.

In order to ensure that parliamentary discussion of the nationalised industries is informed and effective, a House of Commons Select Committee on the Nationalised Industries was established in March 1957. The terms of reference of the Committee are to examine the reports and accounts of the nationalised industries

established by statute, whose controlling Boards are appointed by Ministers of the Crown and whose annual receipts are not wholly or mainly derived from money provided by Parliament or advanced by the Exchequer. The first report of the Select Committee, published in May 1958, related to the coalmining industry, and was debated in the House of Commons in July 1958, together with the annual report of the National Coal Board.

In most other respects these industries under public ownership have the same relations with the Departments responsible for them as do the private industries; they look to them for sponsorship and advice on productivity, and are subject to the same controls.

Legislation on Monopolies and Restrictive Practices

Competition may be limited either by agreements (whether formal or informal) among several parties or as a result of monopoly or other restrictive trade practices. There are separate legislation and procedures for the two forms of impairment of competition.

The Restrictive Trade Practices Act, 1956, provides for the registration of restrictive trading agreements (including those relating to common prices, approved lists of dealers and restriction of production) by the Registrar of Restrictive Trading Agreements. Agreements relating exclusively to exports are not registrable but have to be notified to the Board of Trade. The Registrar has two main functions. First, he maintains the register of agreements which may be inspected by the public. Secondly, he is responsible for bringing agreements before the Restrictive Practices Court, set up by the Act, which has power to determine whether such agreements are in the public interest. Each division of the Court consists of a High Court judge and two lay members. Agreements are presumed to be against the public interest unless the parties can show that they afford one or more of certain advantages and that the degree of restriction is not unreasonable. If this cannot be shown, such agreements are void and, moreover, the Court can make orders to prevent the agreement, or any other like it, from being continued or enforced. Monopolies and other arrangements which are not within the scope of the Court may be referred by the Board of Trade to the Monopolies Commission for investigation and report. Production Departments take appropriate action on the basis of these reports.

The 1956 Act also makes unlawful the maintenance of resale prices by collective action to withhold supplies or by other collectively enforced discriminatory arrangements; at the same time the Act strengthens the powers of individual suppliers to enforce their retail prices through the civil courts.

Prior to the passing of the 1956 Act, a Monopolies and Restrictive Practices Commission, established under the Monopolies and Restrictive Practices (Inquiry and Control) Act, 1948, had investigated a number of industries. Several industries modified their practices in accordance with its recommendations.

Production and Productivity

Industrial production (mining and quarrying, manufacturing, building and contracting, and gas, electricity and water) which, in 1957, was more than 50 per cent greater than before the war, increased rapidly in the immediate post-war years as industry was turned over from war production and manpower was released from the armed forces. It had regained the pre-war level by 1946 and was 15 per cent greater by 1948. The course of production, employment and productivity since 1948 is shown in Table 14.

TABLE 14
 PRODUCTION, EMPLOYMENT AND OUTPUT PER MAN-YEAR IN INDUSTRY
 (1948 = 100)

	Industrial Production	Employment in Industry	Output per Man-year in Industry
1948	100	100	100
1949	106	102	105
1950	114	103	110
1951	117	106	111
1952	114	105	108
1953	121	106	114
1954	130	108	120
1955	137	111	123
1956	136	112	122
1957	138	112	124

Source: *Economic Survey*.

From 1948 to 1957, industrial production rose by 38 per cent. The numbers employed in industry rose by only 12 per cent, giving an increase in output per man of 24 per cent. This rise in productivity was the result of greater efficiency through the introduction of improved methods and processes. Production showed only a small change in 1955-58, mainly because of measures taken to check inflationary tendencies.

Since the war, the greatest increases in production have been in the engineering, shipbuilding and electrical goods group, the vehicles group, the chemicals group, the paper and printing group, and the gas, electricity and water group, with increases between 1948 and 1957 of approximately 55 per cent, 65 per cent, 92 per cent, 69 per cent and 63 per cent respectively. Consumption of electric power by factories and other industrial establishments doubled between 1948 and 1957.

The increase of productivity has been a constant concern of Government and industry. Production authorities, for example, encourage the establishment, within each industry and within individual undertakings, of joint councils and committees in which representatives of employers and workers discuss together improvements in methods and techniques. They also work with and through various statutory and voluntary bodies concerned with the same ends and make grants to them. Such bodies include employers' associations and trade unions; the British Productivity Council (BPC), a voluntary body representing employers and trade unions; the various management and professional associations, including the British Institute of Management; the Council of Industrial Design; and the Development Councils for the cotton industry (The Cotton Board) and for the furniture industry.

The British Productivity Council was formally established in November 1952, and has continued and developed the work of the Anglo-American Productivity Council which, between 1948 and 1952, helped to promote productivity by sending productivity teams, made up of representatives of management, technicians and operatives from many British industries, to study techniques and methods in the United States. The BPC is an independent body on which the following organisations are represented: the British Employers' Confederation, the Federation of British Industries, the Trades Union Congress, the Association of British Chambers

of Commerce, the National Union of Manufacturers and the nationalised industries. It operates through 74 local productivity committees, 33 local productivity associations and a work study unit, set up in 1954 to stimulate a wider appreciation of work study. Its activities include the publication of a monthly bulletin and a large number of booklets and pamphlets and also the making of productivity films.

The Board of Trade, as the Department co-ordinating productivity promotion, has responsibilities additional to those of other production departments. It conducts information services bearing on the efficiency of British industry and, in particular, on methods of increasing industrial productivity. It is responsible jointly with the Ministry of Labour and National Service for the editorial policy of *Target*, a monthly productivity bulletin circulated to firms and trade unions. During the years 1953-57 it administered, in consultation with other Departments and with the United States International Co-operation Administration, the sterling counterpart funds of United States Conditional Aid, which at that time formed an important part of the public funds used to further higher productivity in trade, industry and agriculture. The funds were used to establish and expand technical information and advisory services, to promote technological studies, to provide films and books, to finance studies on the improvement of efficiency, and to establish revolving funds totalling £1 million to make loans available to small and medium-sized firms in industry and to agricultural interests. The Conditional Aid Scheme is now completed, but many of the activities to which it gave rise are being continued independently.

The Department of Scientific and Industrial Research (DSIR), whose chief purpose is to promote the researches which are the main basis of the long-term growth of efficiency, is also concerned directly with the research into factors immediately affecting productivity and with the provision of a technical advisory service.

Technical advice is also available for those firms which ask for it through such services as the National Agricultural Advisory Service of the Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food, and the Personnel Management Advisory Service of the Ministry of Labour and National Service.

The British Standards Institution, a voluntary non-profit-making body incorporated by Royal Charter, seeks to promote industrial efficiency by voluntary standardisation, i.e. by getting manufacturers to agree to substitute a defined number of sizes and qualities of a product, where there exists an unnecessary variety. It is governed by a General Council, consisting of representatives of the main organisations of employers and workers, professional institutions and the larger Government Departments. It receives a Government grant.

An important contribution to higher productivity lies in the increasing use of automation equipment—the adoption of techniques of greater mechanisation by transfer machines or the linking of machine tools in automatic production lines, the application of automatic control over manufacturing processes and the use of electronic data processing equipment. Most types of automation equipment are already manufactured in the United Kingdom, and over the next five years British firms plan to introduce automation on a large scale.

Management

A factor contributing to the growth of productivity in British industry has been the development of new methods of management. During the present century, and particularly during and since the second world war, there has emerged in the United Kingdom, as elsewhere, a growing awareness of the importance of management as a subject requiring special skills and knowledge; this has been stimulated

partly by the need to raise productivity in order to compete successfully in world markets, and partly by the conditions of full employment and pressure upon supplies of basic commodities such as steel, all combining to require the most effective employment of men, materials and machinery. Thus, there is now in the United Kingdom a considerable body of information about, and interest in, such subjects as production methods (including work study, work simplification, plant layout and planned maintenance), the financial tools of management, such as cost accounting, and the techniques of such matters as production planning and product standardisation. In addition, increased attention is being paid to human relations in industry, and to the importance of communication between management and labour.

A number of specialised management associations have come into being, requiring educational and other qualifications for membership, while, since the first world war, the professional engineering institutions have included industrial administration in the syllabus of their qualifying examinations.

During the second world war, the need was recognised for a central institution to co-ordinate education, information and research in management subjects. Soon after the end of the war, a committee was appointed by the President of the Board of Trade to formulate precise proposals for such an institution, and, following its report, the *British Institute of Management* (BIM) was formed in 1947. Although the Institute has received financial support from the Government and the Conditional Aid Programme, its main source of income is subscriptions from companies who are corporate subscribers.

Interest in scientific management is widespread, and facilities for management training at all levels have been much extended, one of the most recent developments being the growth of work study courses. Education for management is developing mainly in four ways:

- (1) a national scheme operated by the BIM in conjunction with technical and commercial colleges, under which intermediate certificates and final diplomas are granted on the basis of examinations;
- (2) independent courses organised by universities, other educational establishments, and professional organisations;
- (3) training courses organised by employers' associations, trade unions and various voluntary bodies; and
- (4) formal courses and informal training for executives organised within individual firms.

There are probably between 400,000 and 500,000 persons who hold managerial posts in industry and commerce in the United Kingdom, and only a minority of them are as yet members of any management body or have received systematic training in the principles of management.

AGRICULTURE

Although Britain is a densely populated, industrialised country relying on imports for half its food supply, agriculture remains one of its largest and most important industries. It occupies nearly one million people, or over 4 per cent of those in civil employment, and provides about 4 per cent of the gross national product, using 48 million of the 60 million acres of land.

THE LAND AND ITS USES

The land in general is highly fertile, and current agricultural practices, founded upon an age-old tradition of good husbandry improved by the application of modern

scientific methods, result in some of the world's finest pedigree livestock and most successful varieties of seeds. Thus, Britain is the largest exporter of pedigree animals for breeding purposes; of twenty breeds of cattle, sheep, pigs and farm horses of world-wide reputation, all but five or six originated in Britain. United Kingdom seeds have won world championships at the Canadian Royal Agricultural Winter Fairs at Toronto every year but one since first entered in 1952.

The agricultural industry in Britain is less subject to serious dislocation caused by extreme climatic conditions than it is in some other countries; crops and livestock, for example, are seldom subjected to the dangers of drought, or floods, or severe cold. Nevertheless, abnormal climatic conditions do sometimes occur such as, in recent years, the severe winter of 1946-47, the East Coast floods of 1953, and the wet summers of 1954, 1956 and 1958.

Farms: Numbers and Ownership

There are about 523,000 agricultural holdings (excluding holdings consisting entirely of rough grazings) in the United Kingdom: 316,000 in England; 55,000 in Wales; 71,000 in Scotland; and 81,000 in Northern Ireland. About three-fifths of the total holdings are under 50 acres in size (crops and grass, excluding any area of rough grazings), but 97,000 (18 per cent) are over 100 acres and 16,000 (3 per cent) over 300 acres.

Of nearly a million people employed in agriculture, about one-third are farmers, the rest being paid employees or members of the farmers' families.

Many farmers own their own land freehold, but the more usual arrangement is for a tenant farmer (who has a measure of security of tenure) to operate the farm and own the stock, crops and movable equipment, while the landlord owns the land, buildings, and fixed equipment, and is responsible for their maintenance and improvement. Returns made in 1950, for the purpose of the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organisation's World Census, showed that about 36 per cent of holdings in England and Wales were wholly owned by the occupier; 49 per cent were wholly rented and 15 per cent were part-owned and part-rented. The proportion of owner-occupiers was substantially higher in the case of holdings of under five acres, but did not vary appreciably from size group to size group in the case of the larger holdings. In Scotland, about 36 per cent of all holdings are wholly owner-occupied, 60 per cent are wholly rented and 4 per cent are part-owned and part-rented. In Northern Ireland, all farmers either own their holdings or are in the process of becoming owners. In general, farms in Britain are run as businesses, each by a single manager, usually the farmer himself. Most farmers belong to one or more of the various organisations, such as the National Farmers' Unions, which exist to represent their collective interests, and also to agricultural co-operative societies, which provide them with bulk-purchase and bulk-selling facilities.

Types of Farming

Types of farming vary with differences of soil and climate. Most of the better farming land is in the lowland areas of Britain.

In *England and Wales*, out of a total of 29.6 million acres of agricultural land, 24.5 million acres are under crops and grass, the remainder being rough grazings. Most farms are mixed farms, but in general the eastern half of England is devoted predominantly to arable, and the western half of England, together with Wales, to dairy farming. Pasture farming accounts for 37 per cent of agricultural land, arable for 22 per cent and mixed farming for 29 per cent, the remainder being unclassifiable or of little agricultural value. The chief crops are wheat, barley, oats, potatoes, sugar beet and fodder crops. Market gardens are usually found near

towns, but much of the vegetable production is now on arable and mixed farms. Fattening of animals for food is widespread but is carried on particularly in the south-eastern and eastern counties and the Midlands; stock-rearing is prevalent in Wales and in the North of England.

In *Scotland*, out of a total of about 15 million acres of agricultural land, 4½ million acres are under crops and grass, the rest being rough hill grazings. The chief crop is oats; next come root crops for stock-feeding; potatoes, especially seed potatoes, and barley are also important crops. The area under wheat is small. In the south-west, dairying is the chief branch of the industry, while cropping and fattening cattle are carried on mainly in the east. The rearing of stock (especially sheep) is of importance in the hill areas.

In *Northern Ireland*, the total of 2·89 million acres of agricultural land in 1957 included 2·15 million acres under crops and pasture. The land is intensively farmed, the chief crops being oats, potatoes, barley and ryegrass for seed. Between 80 and 85 per cent of Northern Ireland's agricultural income is derived from livestock and livestock products.

The use of agricultural land for the various crops (see also map) and the numbers of livestock on farms in the United Kingdom since 1939 are shown in Tables 15 and 16.

TABLE 15
USE OF AGRICULTURAL LAND IN THE UNITED KINGDOM 1939-57

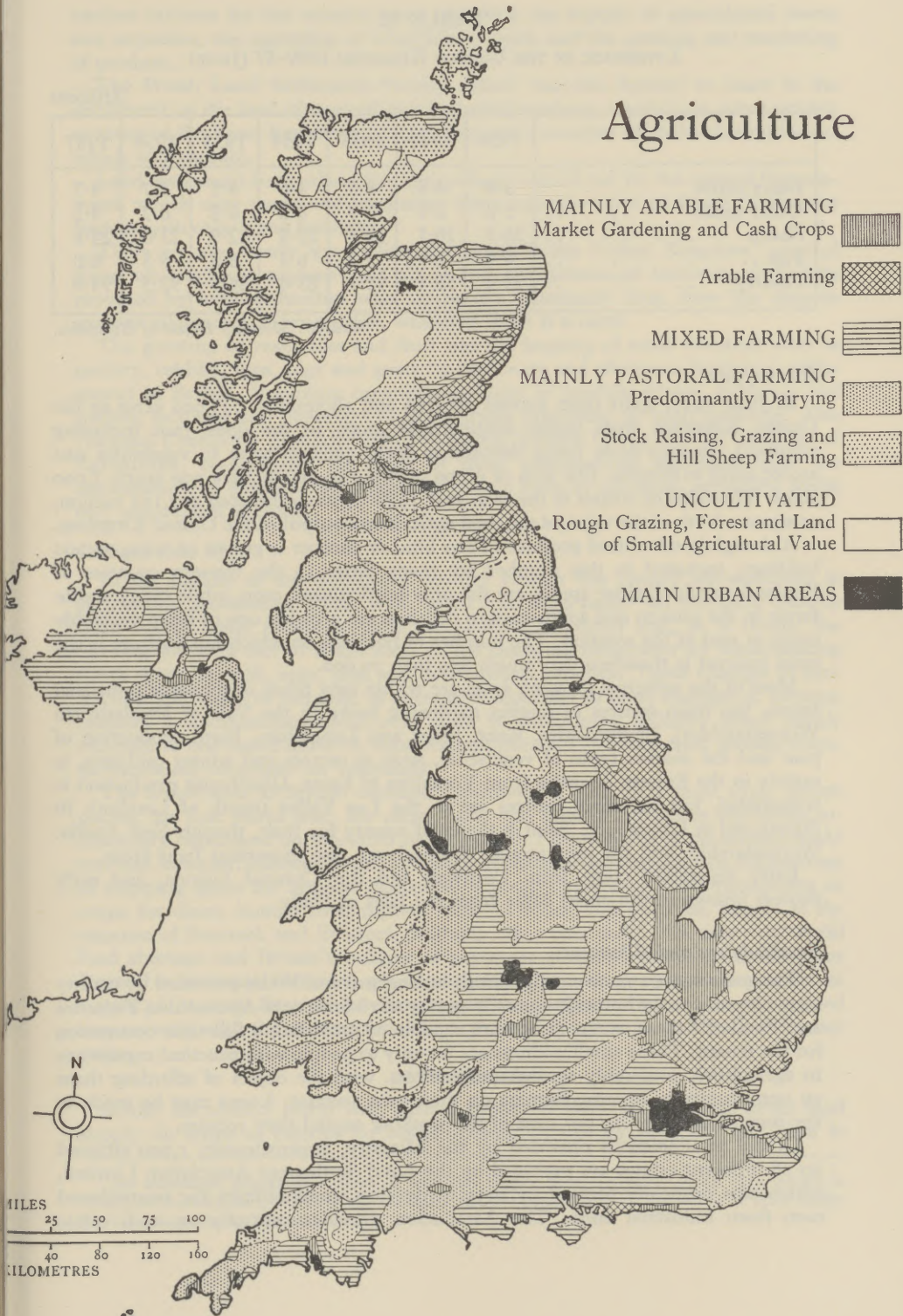
Million acres

	1939	1944	1953	1954	1955	1956	1957
Wheat	1·8	3·2	2·2	2·5	1·9	2·3	2·1
Barley	1·0	2·0	2·2	2·1	2·3	2·3	2·6
Oats	2·4	3·7	2·9	2·6	2·6	2·6	2·4
Mixed corn	0·09	0·4	0·8	0·6	0·5	0·4	0·3
Rye	0·02	0·1	0·1	0·04	0·02	0·03	0·03
All cereals	5·3	9·4	8·2	7·8	7·3	7·6	7·4
Potatoes	0·7	1·4	1·0	0·9	0·9	0·9	0·8
Sugar beet	0·3	0·4	0·4	0·4	0·4	0·4	0·4
Fodder crops	1·3	2·0	1·6	1·5	1·4	1·4	1·3
Fruit	0·3	0·3	0·3	0·3	0·3	0·3	0·3
Vegetables	0·3	0·5	0·4	0·4	0·5	0·5	0·4
Other crops	0·2	0·4	0·3	0·3	0·2	0·2	0·3
Bare fallow	0·4	0·2	0·2	0·3	0·3	0·2	0·3
Total tillage	8·8	14·6	12·4	11·9	11·3	11·5	11·2
Temporary grass(a)	4·1	4·7	5·7	6·0	6·2	6·1	6·3
Total arable land	12·9	19·3	18·1	17·9	17·5	17·6	17·5
Permanent grass	18·8	11·7	13·0	13·2	13·5	13·5	13·5
TOTALS: <i>Crops and Grass</i>	31·7	31·0	31·1	31·1	31·0	31·1	31·0
<i>Rough Grazings</i>	16·5	17·0	16·9	16·9	16·9	16·8	16·8

Source: *Monthly Digest of Statistics*.

(a) Includes lucerne, except in 1939 when it was included in 'other crops'.

Agriculture



MAINLY ARABLE FARMING
Market Gardening and Cash Crops



Arable Farming



MIXED FARMING



MAINLY PASTORAL FARMING
Predominantly Dairying



Stock Raising, Grazing and
Hill Sheep Farming



UNCULTIVATED
Rough Grazing, Forest and Land
of Small Agricultural Value



MAIN URBAN AREAS

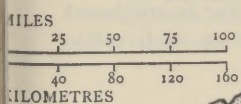


TABLE 16

LIVESTOCK IN THE UNITED KINGDOM 1939-57 (JUNE)

Millions

	1939	1944	1953	1954	1955	1956	1957
Dairy cattle	3.9	4.4	4.5	4.6	4.5	4.7	4.7
Other cattle	5.0	5.1	5.9	6.2	6.2	6.2	6.2
Sheep	26.9	20.1	22.5	22.9	22.9	23.6	24.8
Pigs	4.4	1.9	5.2	6.3	5.8	5.5	6.0
Poultry	74.4	55.1	92.1	83.6	86.9	92.5	94.9

Source: *Monthly Digest of Statistics*.*Horticulture*

In June 1957, apart from private gardens and allotments, 733,000 acres in the United Kingdom were under horticultural crops in the open (not including potatoes), 300,000 acres being devoted to fruit, 399,000 acres to vegetables and 29,000 acres to flowers. The area of crops growing in glasshouses was nearly 5,000 acres. The value of output in the crop year 1956-57 was estimated at £123 million, or about 1/11th of the value of the total agricultural output of the United Kingdom.

Although horticultural produce of one kind or another is grown on some 70,000 holdings, included in this number are many farms in the western counties of England on which cider apples are the only horticultural crop, while many arable farms in the eastern and south-eastern counties are growing one or more vegetable crops as part of the rotation. The number of holdings on which horticulture is the main interest is therefore very much less than 70,000.

Most of the principal growing areas are within easy reach of the large industrial towns, the main centres of market gardening being in the Vale of Evesham (in Worcestershire), Bedfordshire, Kent, Essex and Lancashire. Farm production of peas and the coarser types of vegetables, such as carrots and winter cabbages, is mainly in the Eastern counties from Yorkshire to Essex. Glasshouse production is widespread, but the main centres are in the Lea Valley (north of London), in Sussex and in Lancashire. Kent is the chief county for fruit, though East Anglia, Worcestershire and the area around Wisbech are also important fruit areas.

Early vegetables come from Cornwall and the Channel Islands, and early flowers (grown in the open) come from the Isles of Scilly.

Smallholdings and Allotments

There are some 19,000 smallholdings in England and Wales provided by county councils and county borough councils and by the Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food. Of these, some 11,000 are capable of providing a full-time occupation for the tenant. These smallholdings are let only to people with practical experience in agriculture, preferably agricultural workers, with the object of affording them an opportunity to become farmers on their own account. Loans may be made to the tenants of up to 75 per cent of the working capital they require.

Of the smallholdings provided by the Ministry, approximately 1,000 situated on 18 different estates are managed by the Land Settlement Association Limited, which was originally formed in 1934 to develop smallholdings for unemployed men from industrial areas. The Association provides centrally on each estate

various services for the tenants' use, including the supply of agricultural stores and requisites, the operation of a machinery pool, and the packing and marketing of produce.

The Welsh Land Settlement Society, which was also formed to assist in the settlement on the land of unemployed industrial workers, created one estate similar to those of the Land Settlement Association and a number of profit-sharing farms, which still operate.

Land settlement in Scotland has always been carried out by the central Government, which now owns and maintains some 432,000 acres of Land Settlement Estates with over 4,000 holdings.

There are also nearly one million allotments in the United Kingdom; most of these are allotment gardens¹ and about half are permanent statutory allotments provided by local authorities who, under the Allotments Acts, have the duty to provide allotments, if practicable, wherever there is a need.

The growing of vegetables and fruit and the keeping of small livestock such as poultry, rabbits, bees, pigs and goats by gardeners and allotment-holders is widespread in Britain. Voluntary organisations exist to provide advice, guidance and trading facilities and generally to assist those interested in such activities. The *National Council for Domestic Food Production*, formed in 1951 by the Minister of Agriculture, co-ordinates the work of these organisations and encourages the development of domestic food production as a form of self-help, providing social and recreational benefits.

Changes since 1870

In the middle of the nineteenth century Britain was largely self-sufficient in agricultural production. Then, wool, grain and, later, meat—all produced cheaply from virgin lands overseas—were increasingly imported and, as a result, the farming industry had to adapt itself to the changing conditions by concentrating much more on milk, eggs, pigs and horticultural produce. These changes in production and types of farming, in successive attempts to meet changes of fortune, resulted in a continuous trend away from an agricultural industry based mainly on grain to one based more on livestock and livestock products and, among crops, an increasing emphasis on vegetables.

The arable area in Britain declined continuously from 1872 until 1939, except during the first world war; the meat, dairy and poultry industries becoming increasingly dependent on imported feedingstuffs. The outbreak of the second world war was, however, followed by an immediate reversal of farming practice, for shortage of shipping space for imports demanded a greatly increased home production of crops for direct human consumption, such as wheat and potatoes, largely at the expense of livestock and livestock products other than milk. The post-war world food shortage and Britain's balance of payments problems made it necessary for Britain to maintain increased grain production, but since 1947 an expansion of output of livestock, livestock products and animal feedingstuffs has been encouraged concurrently with the maintenance of a high level of production of grain and other crops.

PRODUCTION

Before the second world war, Britain produced about 31 per cent of its food supply (in terms of calories for human consumption). By 1957 this had risen to

¹ An allotment garden is a piece of land not bigger than a quarter of an acre which is wholly or mainly cultivated by the occupier for the production of vegetable or fruit crops for consumption in his own home.

nearly 40 per cent, and in terms of value represented about one-half compared with a little over one-third before the war. Imports of food and feedingstuffs (including oils and oilseeds) accounted for 45 per cent of total imports pre-war and 38 per cent in 1957. The percentages by weight of total supplies of certain foods provided by home production in post-war years compared with the pre-war average are shown in Table 17.

TABLE 17
PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL U.K. FOOD SUPPLIES PROVIDED BY
HOME AGRICULTURE

	Pre-war average	1945	1951	1956	1957 (prov.)
Wheat and flour for human consumption (as wheat equivalent)	12	32	24	20	21
Oils and fats (crude oil equivalent)	16	7	10	16	16
Sugar (refined value)	18	32	23	22	19
Carcase meat and offal	51	50	64	62	63
Bacon and ham (excluding canned)	29	26	45	42	42
Butter	9	8	4	9	11
Cheese	24	10	18	43	48
Condensed milk	70	59	63	99	99
Dried milk (whole and skimmed)	59	49	43	57	57
Shell eggs	71	87	86	96	99
Milk for human consumption (as liquid)	100	100	100	100	100
Potatoes for human consumption	94	100	97	89	95

Source: Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food.

Production trends since the war for some of the main agricultural products are shown in Table 18. An increase in agricultural production of over 60 per cent since pre-war has been achieved in spite of a slow decline in the agricultural labour force since the war. There has, in fact, been a very large increase in productivity, due to improved crop and livestock varieties, more intensive use of fertilisers, pesticides and fungicides, and greatly increased mechanisation, which has made it possible to work much larger acreages of arable land. Higher agricultural production and productivity has been a major objective of Government policy, and has been fostered by assurances, inducements, advisory services, controls and other measures.

The output per acre of horticultural produce is also considerably higher than it was before the second world war. About 85 per cent of total supplies of vegetables and 50 per cent of fruit are home grown. In 1957, output was estimated at 2,339,000 tons of vegetables and 725,000 tons of fruit.

Mechanisation

The estimated number of tractors (excluding small market-garden types) in the United Kingdom in 1925 was about 21,000, in 1939 about 55,000, and in 1957 about 444,000. Britain and Western Germany have the greatest tractor densities in the world, one tractor per 38 acres of arable land. The increase in some of the

newer types of agricultural machines has been even more notable; thus it is estimated that over 37,000 combined harvester-threshers were in use in the 1957 harvest; in 1939 there were only 150. In a climate such as Britain's, the widespread use of these combines gives rise to the need for extensive drying and storage facilities for grain.

Considerable, but as yet not complete, success has attended intensive efforts to solve the problem of mechanising the cultivation and harvesting of root crops, especially potatoes and sugar beet, with their heavy seasonal labour requirements.

Great strides have been made in the development of a wide range of equipment to assist the production of grass in the various forms—silage, hay and dried grass—upon which British farm livestock very largely depends for winter fodder.

Milking machines have gained rapidly in popularity in recent years and considerable use is made of mechanical handling equipment for milk. About two-thirds of the farms in Great Britain are supplied with electricity.

TABLE 18
AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTION IN THE UNITED KINGDOM
(Years beginning 1st June)

Product	Unit	Pre-war average 1936-38	1946-47	1955-56	1956-57	1957-58 forecast
<i>Crop Production:</i>						
Wheat	'000 tons	1,651	1,967	2,599	2,845	2,683
Rye	"	10	39	19	25	24
Barley	"	765	1,963	2,936	2,800	2,957
Oats	"	1,940	2,903	2,706	2,486	2,145
Mixed corn ..	"	76	350	510	407	325
Potatoes	"	4,873	10,166	6,278	7,533	5,691
Sugar beet ..	"	2,741	4,522	4,556	5,169	4,539
<i>Livestock Products:</i>						
Milk	mill. gals.	1,563	1,665	2,207	2,359	2,390
Eggs(a)	'000 tons	385	322	564	628	661
Beef and veal ..	"	578	537	687	849	855
Mutton and lamb	"	195	141	191	197	212
Pigmeat(a) ..	"	435	208	660	641	708
Wool (clip) ..	"	34	27	32	31	35
<i>Index of net agricultural output</i>						
Agricultural holdings (b) ..	—	100	119	155	160	161
Total (a)	—	100	124	156	161	163

Source: *Cmnd.* 390.

(a) Includes estimated production from units under one acre, e.g., gardens and pig clubs.

(b) In Great Britain holdings of over one acre only; in Northern Ireland one acre and over from 1955-56, for earlier years $\frac{1}{4}$ acre and over.

GOVERNMENT POLICY

The Government has wide functions in relation to agriculture, most of them exercised by the Agricultural Ministers, i.e. the Minister of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food in England and Wales, the Secretary of State for Scotland, and the Minister of Agriculture for Northern Ireland.

The severe agricultural depression which followed the fall in the general price level after 1920 resulted in the introduction of forms of protection and financial assistance for agriculture. Commodity commissions were set up for sugar beet, wheat and livestock, with the responsibility of administering Government subsidies or other forms of direct financial assistance for the production of those commodities. In addition, producer-controlled marketing boards were established with powers to regulate the marketing of milk, pigs and bacon, hops and potatoes and, in 1937, the Government assumed powers to pay acreage subsidies to assist producers of barley and oats.

During the second world war and the immediate post-war years, agricultural production and marketing were closely controlled by the State, and County War Agricultural Executive Committees, composed of local representatives of agricultural interests, acted as the Government's local agents, as did similar committees during the first world war. As a result of Government control, the functions of marketing boards and commodity commissions were largely suspended. Most of these organisations have now had their powers restored to them or their functions have been superseded by other arrangements.

The main objective of United Kingdom agricultural policy continues to be that set out in Section I of the Agriculture Act, 1947, namely—'a stable and efficient agricultural industry capable of producing such part of the nation's food and other agricultural produce as in the national interest it is desirable to produce in the United Kingdom, and of producing it at minimum prices consistent with proper remuneration and living conditions for farmers and workers in agriculture and an adequate return on capital invested in the industry'. To this end, the Government is empowered to provide guaranteed prices for the main agricultural products and to afford a measure of security of tenure to tenant farmers. In return, farmers and landowners are expected to maintain efficiency in husbandry and estate management. The Agricultural Ministers had powers, exercised through the Agricultural Executive Committees, see p. 261 (but repealed in 1958), to enforce minimum standards of efficiency by supervision and direction and eventually by dispossession. The Government promotes efficiency by providing technical advisory services, and also various grants to farmers and landowners in respect of certain operations and requisites designed to improve productivity.

The Agriculture Act, 1947, was introduced at a time of food shortage and was administered at first in conjunction with a system of State purchase of food, far-reaching controls over agricultural production and marketing, and food rationing. Agricultural policy was aimed primarily at increasing output, which in fact by 1952 was 50 per cent above the pre-war level. As world supplies of food and Britain's own agricultural production and trading position improved, the Government gradually restored to private business both the import of food and all domestic trading in food. All consumer rationing of food ended in Britain on 3rd July, 1954.

With the ending of the period of scarcity, policy objectives have undergone a change of emphasis. In recent years stress has been laid on the need for more economic production adapted to market requirements, increased technical efficiency, and economies in the use of imported feedingstuffs, rather than on an indiscriminate expansion of production.

In 1958, after its annual review of the industry the Government's view was that development should proceed in the following directions:

- (1) the maintenance of a large arable acreage of about the current size but with more emphasis on feed crops than on wheat;
- (2) greater reliance on home-produced feed for livestock;
- (3) production of more beef and lamb of the quality wanted by the market; and
- (4) the production of less milk, pigmeat and eggs.

The Government's long-term objective is to achieve a steady improvement in the competitive position of the industry.

County Agricultural Executive Committees

In England and Wales, County Agricultural Executive Committees (CAECs), which superseded the County War Agricultural Executive Committees, were set up under the provision of the Agriculture Act, 1947. In Scotland, 11 similar bodies, now known as Agricultural Executive Committees, were set up, while in Northern Ireland each county has a Committee of Agriculture which acts mainly in an advisory capacity to the Northern Ireland Ministry of Agriculture. An Agricultural Executive Officer, working directly under the Northern Ireland Ministry of Agriculture, is responsible for carrying out the Government's agricultural policy in each county.

Each County Agricultural Executive Committee in England and Wales consists of 12 members. Five are appointed directly by the Minister, and seven from panels nominated by the interests concerned, three being farmers, two landowners and two agricultural workers. The Committees, most of which are represented locally by District Committees, are charged with promoting agricultural development and efficiency. In the past, they were partly concerned with the administration of controls, partly with the administration of trading services, subsidies and routine executive work, and partly with technical advice to farmers. Some of these functions have now lapsed, and the administration of trading services, subsidies and routine executive work is left to officials. Their main tasks are now to assist the technical services of the Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food in promoting technical development; to give advice and assistance on local agricultural problems; and to advise on the administration of certain grant and subsidy schemes and on the development and local application of policy. They also retain certain statutory and executive functions, the chief of which are the registration and licensing of milk producers, and the control of land and bird pests.

The Crofters Commission

In the seven Scottish counties known as crofting counties—Argyll, Caithness, Inverness, Orkney, Ross and Cromarty, Sutherland and Shetland—much of the land is farmed by crofters, tenant farmers whose holdings are either rented at not more than £50 a year or have an area not exceeding 50 acres.

In 1947, there were in these counties nearly 21,000 crofts, which produced about half the total agricultural output of the area. The special problems of the crofting counties, which had for some time been suffering from a declining population and falling agricultural production, led to the setting up, under the Crofters (Scotland) Act, 1955, of a Crofters Commission whose functions are to reorganise, develop and regulate crofting in the crofting counties, to promote the interests of crofters and to keep under review matters relating to crofting. When a croft becomes vacant, the landlord must advise the Crofters Commission of his proposals for letting the

croft; the Commission has power to approve or veto these proposals, to require that a vacant croft be let as an enlargement to another croft, and generally to ensure that all vacant crofts are let in the best interest of the crofting communities. For the same purpose the Commission has power to dispossess absentee tenants who are, however, able to retain their croft houses in certain circumstances. It may authorise the granting of feus (pieces of land held on a perpetual lease at a fixed rent) to aged and infirm crofters who wish to give up their land but to retain their houses. The Commission has power to carry out reorganisation schemes in derelict or decaying 'townships', if a majority of the resident crofters agree, by reallocating the land in a way which, in the Commission's opinion, would lead to the proper and efficient use of the land and the general benefit of the township. The Commission has powers to ensure that crofters work their crofts according to the rules of good husbandry, and it is responsible for approving regulations governing the use of common grazings. It acts as agent for the Secretary of State for Scotland in the administration of schemes of loans and grants for the development of agricultural production on crofts, and collaborates with other bodies in carrying out measures for economic development and social improvement in crofting areas.

The Agricultural Land Commission

The Agricultural Land Commission was set up under the Agriculture Act, 1947, to manage lands vested in the then Minister of Agriculture and Fisheries, or land for which he has become responsible, and to advise and assist the Minister in matters relating to the management of agricultural land. The Commission's functions in Wales are delegated to the Welsh Agricultural Land Sub-Commission. Early in 1954 the Minister decided, after consultation with the Commission, to sell land managed by it wherever that could suitably be done. At 31st March, 1958, 183,237 acres were under the control of the Commission and almost all of this land was let to private farmers. Rather more than half of the land was agricultural land intermixed with other land used by the Forestry Commission. About one-eighth consisted of disused airfields and other land formerly held by various Government Departments; another fifth comprised an estate accepted by the Government in lieu of death duties; and the remainder was mostly land acquired by the Minister to ensure its full and efficient use for agriculture.

In Scotland, the management of lands vested in the Secretary of State and the duty of advising him on management matters are carried out by the Department of Agriculture.

Security of Tenure

Successful farming is a long-term business, and adequate security of tenure helps the good farmer to plan ahead. The effect of the legislation passed after the war was to give the farming tenant a considerable measure of security.

In England and Wales, the Agricultural Holdings Act, 1923, had required that normally at least twelve months' notice should be given to quit an agricultural holding and gave the tenant a right to claim compensation for disturbance, but not to contest the notice to quit. The Agricultural Holdings Act, 1948, gave the tenant the right in most cases to contest a notice to quit, which could then be enforced only with the consent of a County Agricultural Executive Committee (acting for the Minister); there was a right of appeal by either party to an Agricultural Land Tribunal (an independent judicial body appointed by the Lord Chancellor and composed of a chairman and two members representing landowners and farmers respectively). The parallel Scottish Act applied similar provisions to Scotland, with a right of appeal to the Scottish Land Court. The Agriculture Act,

1958, transferred the adjudicatory functions of the County Agricultural Executive Committees to the Agricultural Land Tribunals and the Scottish Land Court, and made amendments to the law on notice to quit, designed to make it less difficult for the landlord to obtain possession of a holding from an indifferent tenant while continuing to give security to the good farmer. At the same time the Act gave tenants, in England and Wales, an important new right by enabling them in most cases to apply to the Agricultural Land Tribunal for a direction to the landlord to provide equipment necessary to enable the tenant to comply with statutory requirements such as the safety, health and welfare regulations.

Rents are normally fixed by agreement between the landlord and tenant; where agreement cannot be reached, the Minister has power, on the application of either party, to appoint an arbitrator, who is required to fix a sum in accordance with the rent at which the holding might reasonably be expected to be let by a willing landlord in the open market to a willing tenant. The arbitrator must, however, ignore any improvements or dilapidations caused by the tenant and any landlord's improvements in so far as grants have been made from public funds.

IMPROVEMENT OF CROPS AND LIVESTOCK

Crops and Grass

Improved varieties, the use of new insecticides, fungicides and herbicides, together with advances in methods of husbandry have led to a steady improvement in the yield of cereals.

New varieties of crops and seeds are tested at the National Institute of Agricultural Botany, Cambridge, maintained by the Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food.

Research at the Grassland Research Institute (Hurley, Berkshire) and elsewhere has directly influenced agricultural practice in the production and use of grass. Improved management of both permanent grass and temporary grass leys and the more effective utilisation of grass by means of ensilage or drying, together with the extended use of fodder crops, such as kale, help to economise in the use of purchased feedingstuffs.

Cattle and Sheep

Britain is noted for its exports of pedigree livestock and since the end of the second world war there has been a marked recovery of the export trade in livestock of high quality.

It is mainly the beef breeds of cattle (particularly Shorthorns, Herefords and Aberdeen Angus) which have made a reputation overseas, but interest in British dairy stock (e.g., Guernsey, Jersey and Ayrshire) is increasing. At home, the rise in milk consumption since 1940 resulted for a time in concentration on dairy breeds, but many breeds have maintained the dual-purpose type of qualifications. In Scotland, while milk production has expanded, an even greater increase in numbers of beef cattle has taken place. In areas of small farms, grants are provided for approved sires, and there are special schemes in the Highlands and Islands for the loan or hire of bulls and rams to communities of smallholders. Cattle and sheep rearing in the United Kingdom is encouraged by subsidies on calves to be reared for beef and on hill cows and sheep.

In order to ensure sound breeding, bulls have to be licensed. Artificial Insemination (AI) Centres, which are also licensed, cover the whole of England and Wales; the majority are operated by the Milk Marketing Board (see p. 267), others by local breeders' associations and a few by the Ministry of Agriculture. One calf in

every two born in England and Wales is the result of AI. Licensed centres also operate in Scotland. In Northern Ireland, AI is carried out at centres under the control of the Northern Ireland Ministry of Agriculture.

Development of the Pig Industry

In September 1957, a Pig Industry Development Authority was set up in Great Britain under the Agriculture Act, 1957, to promote improvements in the production, processing and distribution of pigs and of pigmeat. The Authority consists of 17 members appointed by the Agricultural Ministers, of whom three (including the chairman) are independent, and the remainder are appointed to represent various interests in the industry. The Authority is empowered to promote schemes to improve pig production, including the development of an artificial insemination service for pigs; to sponsor research and development work, including market intelligence; and to encourage the adoption of grading standards for pigs and pig products. To finance its activities, which are expected to cost rather less than £500,000 annually in the early years, the Authority has, with the approval of Parliament, introduced a scheme imposing a levy on the industry. In Northern Ireland, the Ministry of Agriculture (Northern Ireland) in consultation with the Pig Advisory Committee—a statutory body—is responsible for functions similar to those of the Authority in Great Britain.

Poultry Breeding

To raise the standard of poultry stock there is a Poultry Stock Improvement Plan in England and Wales under which breeding stations and hatcheries are accredited and approved. There are three official poultry progeny testing stations in England and Wales, and one in Scotland, which has its own accreditation scheme for breeders and hatcheries. A similar scheme is operated in Northern Ireland.

Control of Animal Diseases

Under a plan introduced in October 1950 for the eradication of bovine tuberculosis on an area basis, many areas have already been cleared. It is expected that by the end of 1959 Scotland and Wales will be fully attested. The whole of Great Britain should be an attested area by 1961, and Northern Ireland, which has had an Attested Herds Scheme in operation since 1949, expects to achieve a similar position soon afterwards.

The Diseases of Animals Act, 1950, gives the Government wide powers for the control of diseases. This control may take the form of regulation of internal movements of stock, or of compulsory slaughter of animals and poultry affected by certain notifiable diseases (e.g., foot-and-mouth disease and fowl pest). Compensation is generally payable for stock slaughtered, although there are exceptions. The Act, and Orders made under it, also restrict the import of certain types of livestock, animal products, and veterinary therapeutic substances. Research into animal diseases is carried on at several centres, including one at Pirbright, Surrey, which has the world's largest collection of foot-and-mouth disease virus.

MARKETING

During the second world war, marketing of nearly all farm crops was closely controlled by the Government. Most of the controls over marketing have been progressively removed and free markets now exist for most agricultural products. Farmers continue the traditional practice of bringing crops and livestock to the weekly market in the local market town, though an increasing amount of business

is also done by telephone and correspondence, or through co-operative marketing societies. Such societies are an appreciable factor in the marketing of grain and potatoes, horticultural produce, eggs, bacon and livestock. There are about 250 agricultural and horticultural co-operatives with a total annual turnover of more than £120 million.

For certain commodities, however, statutory marketing arrangements have been established, for example, through the setting-up of marketing boards, while for all the main agricultural products (but not for horticultural produce) the Government operates a system of price guarantees (see pp. 266-8).

There are many statutory regulations designed to improve marketing methods, to ensure that the producer of the best quality produce gets the best return for his efforts, and to protect the consumer.

Control is exercised in some cases through statutory marketing boards and sometimes by other arrangements.

Marketing Boards

Marketing boards set up under the Agricultural Marketing Acts, 1931 to 1949, are producers' organisations with compulsory powers to regulate the marketing of particular agricultural products by producers. The schemes under which they are constituted and operated must be approved by Parliament and confirmed by poll of the producers concerned. A marketing board must normally consist of from eight to twenty-four members; not fewer than two and not more than one-fifth of the total number must be appointed by the Minister or Ministers concerned.

In general, the Government has declared that it will consider sympathetically proposals for producer marketing boards, although each commodity is considered separately on its merits. In appropriate cases the Government is also prepared to allow the price guarantees to be operated through marketing boards.

The British Wool Marketing Board is responsible for the marketing of all fleece wool (wool shorn from live sheep) produced in the United Kingdom, except Shetland. Marketing powers were restored in 1954 to the Milk Marketing Boards (see p. 267) set up under pre-war schemes, although as long as there remains an element of consumer subsidy the Government will continue to control retail prices and distributors' profit margins for milk. A Potato Marketing Scheme for Great Britain came into force in May 1955; it re-enacts and revises the pre-war scheme. The Hops Marketing Board is responsible (in England only) for the marketing of all hops, while the Tomato and Cucumber Marketing Board has only limited regulatory powers. The pre-war Pigs and Bacon Marketing Schemes, which had been suspended since the outbreak of the second world war, were revoked in December 1957, after the Pig Industry Development Authority had been set up (see p. 264).

The British Egg Marketing Scheme, which came into force in 1957, applies to the whole United Kingdom and covers all producers with more than 50 head of live poultry over the age of six months. Registered producers must sell their eggs to the British Egg Marketing Board through packing stations where the eggs are graded, tested and stamped, but producers who wish to sell eggs direct to consumers or retailers are entitled to a licence authorising them to do so, subject to certain limited conditions which the Board may impose. Only eggs sold to the Board qualify for the price guarantee (see p. 267).

Under Northern Ireland legislation, schemes for the marketing of two products, pigs and milk, are at present in operation.

Statutory Consumers' Committees represent the consumers' interest in regard to the operation of marketing schemes, and Committees of Investigation consider

reports of the Consumers' Committees and complaints from persons other than consumers affected by the operation of marketing schemes.

Regulation of Milk Distribution

Milk distributors in Great Britain must be registered, and regulations lay down conditions under which milk is produced, handled, treated, stored and distributed. Subject to licence, milk may be sold under special designations—'Pasteurised', 'Sterilised', 'Tuberculin Tested' (TT) and also, in Scotland only, 'Certified'.

In areas specified by Orders it is obligatory to retail only specially designated milk, and milk which is not sold as Tuberculin Tested (or, in addition, as Certified in Scotland) must be heat-treated. In Great Britain, 90 per cent of the population now drink tuberculin tested, pasteurised or sterilised milk. The whole of Northern Ireland is now a 'safe milk' area. Retail prices of milk and distributors' profit-margins are controlled by the Government throughout the United Kingdom.

Horticulture

In July 1958, the Minister of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food appointed an interim Horticultural Marketing Advisory Council for England and Wales to advise him on the work of his Department on horticultural marketing, to consider plans for a permanent Horticultural Marketing Council representing all sections of the horticultural industry, and to report annually.

The establishment of such a Council had been recommended in the report of the Committee on Horticultural Marketing (the Runciman Committee) published in January 1957.

Fatstock

Although no statutory scheme has been adopted for fatstock marketing, a Fatstock Marketing Corporation was set up in 1954 under the sponsorship of the farmers' unions, as an alternative to the auction system; the Corporation buys and sells cattle, sheep, pigs and poultry. Besides its London organisation, it has ten area organisations and more than 100 sales centres throughout Britain; its governing body has about 36 members, over 30 of whom are farmers.

PRICE GUARANTEES

In accordance with the provisions of Part I of the Agriculture Act, 1947, the Agricultural Ministers, in consultation with the farmers' representatives, hold annual reviews of the economic condition and prospects of the agricultural industry. In the light of these reviews, guaranteed prices are determined for the major agricultural products, and decisions are taken on any changes to be made in production grants. The Act also provides for a special review to be held at any time if the Ministers concerned consider that it is warranted by a sudden change in the economic conditions of the industry, such as a substantial alteration in production costs. In addition, long-term assurances for agriculture were provided by the Agriculture Act, 1957, following recognition by the Government at the 1956 Annual Review that price guarantees based on annual reviews were too short-term to afford an adequate basis for the forward planning necessary for efficiency.

Price guarantees in various forms are provided for the following farm produce: cereals, fatstock, milk, eggs, potatoes, wool and sugar beet. (There are no price guarantees for horticultural products, for which tariffs are the general form of protection.) Annual reviews are held normally in February and March, and the resulting guarantees apply to livestock and livestock products for the ensuing twelve

months and (since 1957) to crops to be harvested in the current year. The Government's conclusions from each annual review and its decisions on changes in price guarantees and production grants are published in a White Paper (the most recent is *Annual Review and Determination of Guarantees, 1958, Cmnd. 390*).

The long-term assurances provided for in the 1957 Act require that the total value of the price guarantees and relevant production grants in any year shall be maintained at not less than 97·5 per cent of their value in the preceding year, after allowing for changes that have occurred in the cost of review commodities since the last annual review. In addition, the guaranteed price (adjusted for any change in the basis of the guarantee) for each review commodity must be maintained at not less than 96 per cent of that of the previous year, with a provision, in the case of livestock and livestock products, that, in any period of three years, reductions in the guaranteed price for a particular commodity will not total more than 9 per cent.

The general policy of the Government is to avoid direct intervention in the market and therefore to use methods of agricultural support that leave the ordinary channels of trade to operate freely. The form of price guarantee most generally used is the deficiency payments system, under which the Government makes payments to producers, equal to the difference between the average market price realised and the guaranteed (or standard) price, in respect of output eligible for the guarantee. The detailed arrangements vary from commodity to commodity, and in suitable cases the Government uses producers' marketing boards as the instruments for giving effect to the guarantees.

Deficiency payments schemes, administered directly by Government Departments, are in operation for cereals and fatstock. Under the cereals scheme, deficiency payments are made on the quantity of millable wheat or rye sold and delivered by individual growers to authorised merchants; for wheat the guaranteed average standard price varies seasonally. For barley and oats any deficiency between the guaranteed price and the average market price is converted to a rate per acre and payments are made according to individual growers' acreages. Under the fatstock guarantee scheme, standard prices apply to fat cattle (steers and heifers), fat sheep (including lambs) and fat pigs. Guarantee payments are made weekly on individual certified sales of stock, and in the case of cattle and sheep the guaranteed price varies according to a weekly scale.

The guarantee for milk is implemented through the five Milk Marketing Boards in the United Kingdom (one for England and Wales, three for Scotland and one for Northern Ireland). The Government pays each Board any deficit between its net commercial returns and its entitlement under the guarantee, subject to a profit and loss sharing arrangement designed to encourage efficient marketing. The retail price of milk for liquid consumption is controlled by the Government, but for the considerable surplus of milk which is sold for manufacturing purposes (e.g., for butter, cheese and dried milk) the Milk Marketing Boards are left free to secure the best possible return. The price for milk guaranteed to each Board applies only to a standard quantity, and sales in excess of the standard quantity reduce the average return to producers.

For eggs, the guarantee is implemented by means of a flat rate subsidy payable to the British Egg Marketing Board in respect of eggs sold to the Board through packing stations. The rates of subsidy are calculated by subtracting from the guaranteed price (determined after the Annual Review), the average price which it is estimated that the Board will receive from its sales of fresh eggs in the ensuing year. There is also a profit and loss sharing arrangement, under which the subsidy rates are adjusted if the average prices realised by the Board vary by more than 2d. either side of the estimate.

The wool guarantee is operated through the Wool Marketing Board; a guaranteed price to the Board for each pound of wool it handles enables it to fix producers' prices in advance, after making an allowance for its marketing costs. Receipts in excess of the guarantee are paid into a Price Stabilisation Fund and only a part of the excess is retained by the Board.

The guarantee for potatoes is at present implemented through a support price system, under which the Potato Marketing Board in Great Britain (acting for the Government) and the Ministry of Agriculture for Northern Ireland stand ready to buy at the appropriate guaranteed price any potatoes offered to them by producers. Potatoes so bought are re-sold at a loss for processing or stock feed and, except for a small proportion in Great Britain which falls on the Potato Marketing Board, the loss is borne by the Government. For the 1959 potato crop, however, the Government has decided to introduce a new guarantee system. If in any crop year the actual return to the industry from the market for potatoes for human consumption falls below the guaranteed return, the deficiency will be made good from Exchequer funds. In Great Britain the Government proposes that the amount due should be paid to the Potato Marketing Board for the benefit of producers; separate arrangements would be necessary in Northern Ireland where there is no potato marketing board.

Sugar beet is the only commodity for which the Government continues to guarantee a fixed price to the producer. The British Sugar Corporation buys beet according to a scale of fixed prices related to the sugar content.

PRODUCTION GRANTS AND LOAN FACILITIES

In addition to providing financial stability by means of price guarantees to farmers, the State promotes efficiency by various other subsidies and grants for specific operations and farm requisites. The estimated total cost of subsidies and grants for agriculture in 1957-58, including the subsidies and trading deficits wholly attributable to guarantees under the Agriculture Act, 1957, is given in Table 19.

TABLE 19

ESTIMATED SUBSIDIES AND PRODUCTION GRANTS TO AGRICULTURE 1957-58							£ million	£ million
I. <i>Direct Subsidy Payments made under Agricultural Price Guarantees</i>								
Cereals:								
Wheat and rye	22.0		
Barley	17.1		
Oats and mixed corn	12.2		
						—	51.3	
Home produced eggs		47.6	
Fatstock:								
Cattle	36.4		
Sheep	10.4		
Pigs	38.9		
						—	85.7	
Milk (excluding school and welfare milk)		12.8	
Wool		1.5	
Potatoes		6.7	
						—		
TOTAL I						
								205.6

II. <i>Agricultural Production Grants</i>	£ million	£ million
General fertiliser subsidy		23.6
Lime subsidy		10.4
Grants for ploughing up grassland		9.4
Field drainage and water supply grants		2.9
Grants for improvement of livestock rearing land		1.4
Marginal production assistance grants		2.4
Bonus payments under the Tuberculosis (Attested Herds) Scheme		8.2
Livestock, improvement of breeding		0.1
Calf subsidy		12.4
Hill sheep and hill cattle		2.8
Grants for silos		2.1
Grants for farm improvement		0.2
TOTAL II		75.9
Administrative overheads applicable to I and II above		4.7
TOTAL SUBSIDY I AND II		286.2
III. <i>Trading Subsidies in Implementation of Agricultural Guarantees</i>		
Home produced eggs	0.9	
Potatoes	1.5	
	2.4	
IV. <i>Other Services</i>		
Payment to Exchequer of Northern Ireland ..		0.8
TOTAL COST OF AGRICULTURAL SUPPORT		289.4

Drainage and Water Schemes

The State makes substantial contributions towards the cost of land drainage and water supply. In England and Wales, for example, under various Acts, grants for farm drainage may be up to 50 per cent of the approved cost; for main river drainage they can range up to 80 per cent. Farm water supply grants are at the rate of 25 per cent of the approved cost where the connection is to a public main, and 40 per cent where a private source is utilised. Separate legislation provides grants for these services in Scotland and Northern Ireland.

Marginal Production Schemes

Under the Agriculture Act, 1947, and the Scottish Act of 1948, marginal production schemes provide financial assistance to farmers to carry out programmes of land improvement and reclamation which they cannot reasonably meet out of farm income, because, owing to poor soil or other factors beyond their control, they have no margin of profit to invest.

Improvement of Livestock Rearing Land in Upland Areas

The Hill Farming and Livestock Rearing Acts provide for grants for owners and occupiers of livestock rearing land in upland areas who wish to put their farms into sound working order. The Acts also apply to some areas, e.g., Orkney and Caithness, which are not much above sea level. The object is to encourage the breeding

and rearing of store cattle and store sheep (i.e. cattle and sheep for further fattening, not for immediate slaughter). Grants are at the rate of 50 per cent of the cost of work done. The total amount available for grant in the United Kingdom is £25 million and this can be increased by £2 million if necessary.

Grants for Crofters

Special schemes of assistance for developing agricultural production on crofts were announced in July 1956. These are the Crofters Agricultural Grants (Scotland) Scheme, 1956, and the Crofters Livestock Purchase Loans (Scotland) Scheme, 1956, both of which are administered by the Crofters Commission. Under the first scheme, grants ranging up to 85 per cent are available for a wide range of agricultural operations and improvement to land equipment. The second scheme enables loans of from £100 to £500 at an initial interest of $6\frac{1}{4}$ per cent to be given, for the purchase of livestock, to incoming tenants of crofts or to crofters who have enlarged their crofts or their shares in sheep stocks held in common. Other schemes operated by the Department of Agriculture for Scotland provide grants and loans to crofters for erecting and improving houses and farm buildings, and loans to incoming tenants to enable them to take over their crofts.

Farm Improvement Scheme

The Agriculture Act, 1957, provides for a farm improvement scheme, under which, grants towards the cost of farm improvements and amalgamations of uneconomic holdings are available for ten years up to a maximum of £50 million. This period may be extended to twelve years and the amount to £55 million, if Parliament approves. The rate of grant for improvements is $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent, and the grants cover the provision or alteration of farm buildings and fixed equipment, the construction of farm roads, the supply of electricity, and long-term improvements to agricultural land.

Fertilisers and Lime

Schemes under the Agriculture (Fertilisers) Act, 1952, provide grants to assist farmers in the purchase of nitrogenous and phosphatic fertilisers. Farmers can also obtain a refund of more than half their costs of liming land to improve soil fertility.

Crops and Grass

The aim of the Government is to see on each farm the most profitable balance between crop and grass production, with, for the country as a whole, the maintenance of a large arable acreage. Ploughing grants are available for land that has been continuously under grass for three years, to encourage the maintenance of a high tillage area and the regular ploughing up and extended use of leys.

Silo Grants

Grants amounting to about half the cost of approved projects, up to a maximum of £250 a farm, are available under the Agriculture (Silo Subsidies) Act, 1956, for constructing and improving silos.

Premiums for Cattle and Sheep Farmers

Premiums are paid to producers of tuberculin tested (TT) milk and in respect of attested herds. Subsidies are given on calves to be reared for beef, and on hill cows and hill sheep in breeding herds.

Loan Facilities

Short-term finance for farmers and landlords is usually provided by the commercial banks and long-term finance by the raising of mortgages.

In England and Wales, long-term finance for agricultural properties is provided by the *Agricultural Mortgage Corporation Limited*, a company established under the provisions of the Agricultural Credits Acts, 1928 and 1932, principally for the purpose of making loans up to 60 years on first mortgages of agricultural or farming estates, properties or lands, to enable landowners or prospective landowners to purchase or improve agricultural lands and buildings. The Corporation's funds are derived mainly from the proceeds of various issues of debenture stocks which are subscribed by the public and are repaid by the operation of sinking funds. The Corporation's reserves include a guarantee fund for which it receives Exchequer support under the Agricultural Credits Act, 1928, the Agriculture (Miscellaneous Provisions) Act, 1944, and the Agricultural Mortgage Corporation Act, 1956, in the form of interest-free loans up to a total of £3·25 million. It also receives grants to meet operating deficiencies under the Agriculture (Miscellaneous Provisions) Act, 1944.

Landowners in England and Wales also obtain loans for the purpose of carrying out improvements to agricultural land and buildings in accordance with the Improvement of Lands Acts, 1864 and 1899. The amount of the loan is charged on the land improved in the form of a terminable rent charge payable half-yearly for a period not exceeding 40 years. This type of improvement loan requires the sanction of the Minister of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food but the Ministry does not itself provide the necessary funds. These loans are provided by the Agricultural Mortgage Corporation and by the *Lands Improvement Company*, an older institution, whose funds are provided privately either by way of general loans or against the assignment of specific rent charges.

In Scotland, loans on favourable terms for agricultural purposes on the security of agricultural land in Scotland are granted by the *Scottish Agricultural Securities Corporation Limited*, which was set up in accordance with the provisions of the Agricultural Credits (Scotland) Act, 1929. Both the Corporations at present receive grants from the Treasury towards any deficit in their respective annual Profit and Loss Accounts.

In Northern Ireland, loans are available to farmers for a wide range of purposes from the *Agricultural Loans Fund* set up under the Development Loans Act (Northern Ireland), 1945, and administered by the Northern Ireland Ministry of Agriculture. The Fund is financed out of the Consolidated Fund, subject to a statutory limit of £2 million. The bulk of the loans issued are for short-term periods up to five years for such items as agricultural machinery, but in the case of buildings the period may be extended to thirty years. No loans are advanced for land purchased. Any deficiency in the income on the Fund is financed by the Northern Ireland Parliament.

AGRICULTURAL ADVISORY SERVICES

There are a number of agricultural advisory services which operate under Government auspices.

The National Agricultural Advisory Service

Free technical advice on all agricultural and horticultural matters is available to every farmer and grower in England and Wales through the Ministry of Agriculture's National Agricultural Advisory Service (NAAS).

Every county has a County Agricultural Officer in charge of advisory work and is divided into districts in each of which there is a District Officer who can call on an extensive system of specialist advisers. Advisers in livestock husbandry, milk production, farm machinery, poultry husbandry, and horticulture are available in each county; at the 12 provincial centres and sub-centres there are senior advisers in these subjects and also in crop and grassland husbandry, besides specialists in animal nutrition, bacteriology, soil chemistry, plant diseases, and plant pests. These centres are equipped with laboratories for the analysis of soils and feeding-stuffs, and for the diagnosis of crop pests and diseases. The advisers work in close consultation with the Ministry's Plant Pathology Laboratory at Harpenden, Hertfordshire.

In Scotland, the advisory services, similar in scope to the NAAS, are based on the three agricultural colleges. Northern Ireland has its own separate advisory service which is closely linked with the research and experimental divisions.

Facilities are provided at the NAAS Experimental Farms and Horticultural Stations in England and Wales and at Agricultural College Centres in Scotland for field-scale extensions of research work and investigations of local problems. Experiments are also carried out at provincial advisory centres and on commercial farms.

Agricultural Improvement Councils

The *Agricultural Improvement Council* (AIC) for England and Wales and the *Scottish Agricultural Improvement Council* advise the Agricultural Departments on the application of the results of scientific investigation to farming practice and on problems requiring investigation. The AIC is also concerned with the problems of estate management, including buildings and fixed equipment.

The Agricultural Land Service

The main functions of this service, which operates in England and Wales, are:

- (1) to advise owners of agricultural land, whether landlords or owner-occupiers, on estate management matters, including farm buildings and other fixed equipment;
- (2) to provide professional advice and services to the Minister, the Agricultural Land Commission and County Agricultural Executive Committees on all matters relating to agricultural land, including: the purchase and sale of land by the Minister; the management of land owned by or in the possession of the Minister; the exercise of the Minister's powers for securing good estate management and good husbandry and of his functions under the Agricultural Holdings Act, 1948; the provision of grant-aid under the Hill Farming and Livestock Rearing Acts and of marginal production assistance; and the provision and management of smallholdings and allotments by local authorities; and
- (3) to advise the Minister and local planning authorities on the agricultural aspects of planning and the release of agricultural land for other development, including afforestation.

In Scotland, similar duties are carried out by officers of the Department of Agriculture.

Veterinary Services

There is a comprehensive State Veterinary Service which, in Great Britain, is administered by the Animal Health Division of the Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food and the Department of Agriculture for Scotland, and in

Northern Ireland by the Northern Ireland Ministry of Agriculture. It consists of a field staff, research workers, and an investigation service which acts as a link between the field staff, veterinary surgeons in private practice and the research laboratories. The investigation service in Scotland is linked with agricultural teaching institutions and is not part of the Government service.

RESEARCH AND EDUCATION

Agricultural research in Britain is planned and co-ordinated by the Agricultural Research Council and is largely financed by the State. (The composition and functions of the Council are described on page 200.) The Council has 19 research stations and units under its direct control and is responsible for the administration of Government grants to 15 independent research institutions in England and Wales; in Scotland, 8 independent research organisations receive grants through the Department of Agriculture for Scotland. The Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food and the Department of Agriculture for Scotland also have their own research laboratories (see p. 204). Grants are also made by the Agricultural Research Council to a number of universities which have important research establishments and to other recognised research institutions.

Many of the independent research organisations grant-aided by the Council have achieved an international reputation for their contributions to agricultural progress. The Rothamsted Experimental Station at Harpenden, Hertfordshire, founded in 1843, was the first such institute in the world and is still a leading authority for research on soils, fertilisers and crop husbandry. Others of outstanding importance include the Macaulay Institute for Soil Research, Aberdeen; the Rowett Research Institute, Aberdeen, which specialises in problems of livestock breeding; the Research Institute at Pirbright, Surrey, for animal virus diseases; the East Malling Research Station, in Kent, and the Long Ashton Research Station, Bristol University, for fruit research; the John Innes Horticultural Institution, Bayfordbury, Hertfordshire; and the National Institute for Research in Dairying, Reading, Berkshire.

Information on research is exchanged with other Commonwealth countries through the machinery of the Commonwealth Agricultural Bureaux and Institutes (ten Bureaux and two Institutes in the United Kingdom and one Institute in Canada).

In England and Wales, research and advice are combined in the Provincial Agricultural Economics Service, attached to the universities and organised in ten economic advisory centres. In Scotland, agricultural economists are on the staff of the three Agricultural Colleges, and the Department of Agriculture has a Farm Economics Branch.

The Northern Ireland Ministry of Agriculture, which also has its Farm Economics Branch, has, in addition, its own research divisions investigating problems of animal and crop production. The research divisions work in close touch with the Ministry's county advisory staffs and with the Queen's University of Belfast, and also provide technical advisory services for the farmer. The Plant Disease Division controls the disinfection of all flax seed sown in Northern Ireland, and the Dairy Bacteriology Division maintains the hygienic standards laid down for the production and handling of milk. At Hillsborough, in County Down, the Northern Ireland Agricultural Research Institute owns and operates a farm of some 500 acres. The Institute is endowed from public funds, and the officers of the Ministry's research divisions are afforded facilities for carrying out their field experiments. The Ministry of Agriculture maintains a Horticultural Centre at Loughgall, County Armagh, at which problems of special interest to Northern Ireland are investigated.

Industrial concerns manufacturing such products as weed-killers, insecticides and fertilisers undertake research on a considerable scale and have been responsible for developing new and improved products in their particular spheres. There are also other non-governmental research establishments such as the Nuffield Foundation's 'working laboratory' at Great Leigh Farm, Teign Valley, Devonshire.

There are three types of institutions which provide full-time training in agricultural subjects—Universities, Agricultural Colleges and, in England and Wales, County Farm Institutes. Eight universities in England and Wales (Cambridge, Durham, Leeds, London, Nottingham, Oxford, Reading, and the University of Wales), and three in Scotland (Edinburgh, Glasgow, and Aberdeen) provide degree courses in agriculture, which are of particular value for intending research workers, advisory officers, teachers and other specialists. The University of Bristol offers postgraduate diploma courses. In Northern Ireland, a degree course is provided at Queen's University, Belfast.

Two-year diploma courses are given at five Agricultural Colleges and at two of the County Farm Institutes in England and Wales (see below); three Agricultural Colleges in Scotland give two-year to three-year diploma courses. These are intended mainly for farmers and farm managers, and are a preparation for the national diplomas in agriculture, dairying, horticulture, poultry husbandry and agricultural engineering. In Northern Ireland, there are three Agricultural Colleges.

There are 32 County Farm Institutes in England and 5 in Wales run by local education authorities. They provide residential courses in general agriculture, dairying, horticulture and poultry husbandry. These courses, which are usually for one year of about 36 working weeks, are designed for those wishing to become skilled workers in the industry. Local education authorities also provide a wide range of short courses and classes for farmers, farmworkers, horticulturists and domestic producers.

An important means of voluntary informal education in agriculture is provided by *Young Farmers' Clubs*, which flourish in villages and towns throughout the United Kingdom. There are over 1,800 clubs in Britain with well over 80,000 members, mostly under the age of 25. Each club is self-governing but has the support of an advisory committee of farmers and other adults. Clubs are combined in county federations and in National Federations for England and Wales (founded in 1932), Scotland (in 1937), and Northern Ireland (in 1929).

Government assistance is given to develop rural crafts and industries. *The Development Commission*, a non-departmental organisation consisting of eight Commissioners appointed by the Crown, was set up under the Development and Road Improvement Fund Acts of 1909 and 1910 to advise the Treasury on advances from the Development Fund. The purposes of this Fund are now confined to the development of rural industries and amenities, the construction and improvement of fishery harbours and the development and improvement of fisheries. The main agencies helping the Commissioners to carry out this work in regard to rural industries are, in England and Wales, the voluntary Rural Community Councils with their Rural Industries Committees, the Government-financed *Rural Industries Bureau* founded in 1921, and *Rural Industries Loan Fund Ltd.*, started in 1940. On the recommendation of the Rural Community Councils, the Rural Industries Bureau provides technical advice and instruction to assist craftsmen, who may be granted loans from the Loan Fund to help them to increase their efficiency. In Scotland, the body corresponding to the Rural Industries Bureau is the *Scottish Country Industries Development Trust*, founded in 1935, which, in the absence of Rural Community Councils in Scotland, exercises more direct control over rural development.

Since the Government of Ireland Act, 1920, schemes in Northern Ireland are no longer eligible for grants from the Development Fund.

A *Museum of English Rural Life* was established by the University of Reading in 1951 as a national centre for the study of material connected with the history of the countryside. It was opened to the public in April 1955.

A large number of Agricultural Shows held annually throughout Britain focus attention on modern farming methods and equipment. The chief ones are the Royal Show, held since 1839 by the Royal Agricultural Society of England; the Bath and West Show, held since 1780 by the Bath and West and Southern Counties Agricultural Society; the Royal Highland Show, held since 1822 by the Royal Highland and Agricultural Society of Scotland; the Royal Ulster Show, held by the Royal Ulster Agricultural Society; and the Royal Welsh Show, held by the Royal Welsh Agricultural Society. The Smithfield Show, held annually in London, which was originally concerned only with livestock, has now become, in addition, the largest agricultural machinery exhibition in Britain.

FISHERIES

Britain's sea fishing industry falls into two main divisions, concerned respectively with white fish and herring. White fish, such as cod, haddock, plaice, turbot and sole are demersal fish which live on or near the sea-bed. Herring and similar species, such as pilchard, mackerel and sprats, are pelagic fish which live in intermediate waters or near the surface.

The white fish section of the industry is made up of three distinct groups: the distant water, the near and middle water, and the inshore fisheries. The distant waters are those off Iceland, Greenland and the north coast of Norway, and the Barents Sea; the middle water grounds lie around the Faroe Islands; and the near water grounds are those in the North Sea, the Irish Sea and in the coastal areas around Britain. The herring fishing grounds are mainly within 60 miles of land. The inshore waters also yield considerable quantities of shell fish.

Fishing Ports

The principal fishing ports in England and Wales are Hull, Grimsby, Fleetwood, Milford Haven and Lowestoft for white fish, and Great Yarmouth and Lowestoft for herring; in Scotland, the chief centres for white fish are Aberdeen, Leith, the Moray Firth ports, Shetland, the west coast and the Clyde, and for herring they are Fraserburgh, Peterhead, Aberdeen, Inverness, and Stornoway, as well as Shetland, the west coast and the Clyde; those in Northern Ireland are Ardglass, Portavogie and Kilkeel.

Methods of Sea Fishing

The chief methods of catching fish are by trawling, seining, lining, and drift and ring netting. In trawling, a funnel-shaped net of heavy twine is towed along the sea bed. In deep sea seining, a funnel-shaped net with long wings and made of relatively light material is slowly hauled towards the vessel, driving the fish into the path of the net. Deep sea lining can be carried out on grounds too rough for trawling, as well as on smooth grounds. A limited number of Scottish vessels are engaged in this fishery. Lining also provides employment, in autumn, winter and early spring, for a large number of inshore fishermen fishing for cod, whiting and haddock; long lines are made up with baited hooks at regular intervals and are laid over a considerable area. Ring netting, mainly used by Scottish fishermen, is an efficient method of encircling shoals of pelagic fish, such as pilchard or herring.

In drift net fishing, a number of finely meshed nets, attached to each other, form a vertical curtain of netting so that fish swimming against them are caught by the gills. The vessel drifts with the wind and tide for several hours, usually from dusk to dawn, before hauling.

Trawling is carried out in the distant, near and middle waters for all species of demersal fish throughout the year. Seining is also dependent upon demersal fish and is operated all the year round. An increasing number of English, Scottish and Northern Irish vessels depend on seining for a living, the main areas of operation being in the North Sea and the Irish Sea. There are about 800 Scottish and Northern Irish seiners, and about 200 operate from English ports.

The pelagic fisheries are seasonal. There is a summer fishery for herring based on the Shetlands, the east coast ports of Scotland, and the north-east coast ports of England, and an autumn fishery off East Anglia based on Lowestoft and Yarmouth. Other seasonal fisheries take place off the west coast of Scotland and off Southern Ireland. The inshore fisheries comprise a great diversity of types of vessels and methods of capture; trawling, seining, lining, and drift net fishing are employed; in addition, there are extensive fisheries for crabs, lobsters, prawns, cockles and oysters, and, off Scotland and Northern Ireland, there is a fishery for 'Norway lobsters' (nephrops).

The Fishing Fleet

Distant water vessels, which operate mainly from Hull, Grimsby and Fleetwood, numbered 247 at the end of 1957. They are over 140 feet and up to 185 feet in length and make voyages of 17 to 23 days to fishing grounds in the Arctic Circle. At the same date, near water vessels numbered 547; they are under 130 feet long and work near home, making voyages of 8 to 10 days. Middle water vessels numbered 55; they are 130 to 140 feet in length and undertake voyages of about two weeks. Included in the near water group are vessels engaged in drift net fishing, which usually make daily voyages. The inshore group consists mainly of vessels of under 70 feet which are seldom at sea for longer than two days and more usually make daily landings, often fishing within sight of land.

In the United Kingdom fishing industry in 1957 there were 24,418 fishermen in regular employment and 3,385 occasionally employed; 10,472 of the former and 1,151 of the latter were from Scottish ports. In Northern Ireland there were 420 regular fishermen.

Supplies

In the year ended 31st December, 1957, landings of fish, both demersal and pelagic, in the United Kingdom by British fishing vessels totalled 873,000 tons (741,000 tons of demersal fish and 132,000 tons of pelagic), valued at about £47·6 million. Landings at British ports by foreign vessels totalled about 105,000 tons of fresh and frozen fish (including 52,000 tons brought direct from the fishing grounds) to a value of about £9 million. British landings of shellfish yielded £1·71 million. Cod accounted for 40 per cent of the total value of wet fish (i.e. fish other than shellfish) landed by British vessels; haddock (19 per cent) and plaice (9 per cent) were the other most important sources of earnings to the industry.

Net imports of all types of fish (fresh, frozen, salted or canned) into the United Kingdom in 1957 amounted to about 173,000 tons valued at over £33 million, including 20,000 tons of canned salmon to the value of £11 million and other canned fish worth £9 million.

Weekly consumption of fresh, frozen and cured fish (excluding shellfish and imported canned fish) in the United Kingdom averaged 16,500 tons landed weight

in 1957. On an edible (fillet) weight basis, United Kingdom consumption has been estimated provisionally at 18·7 pounds per head in 1957, compared with 28·7 pounds in 1948 and an annual average of 21·8 pounds from 1934-38.

Northern Ireland consumes about one-third of the catch landed there by British vessels (7,139 tons in 1957) and exports the rest to Great Britain and to the Republic of Ireland.

Sea Fish Processing

Processing and packaging of fish—curing, kippering, canning and quick-freezing for consumer packs—are the subject of continuing research and development. For example, the production of quick-frozen fish more than doubled between 1953 and 1955. With the increase in quick-freezing, new export outlets have opened up for white fish and fish products; these accounted for about £2·6 million of the total British exports of fish, valued at £5·5 million in 1957. Markets abroad for quick-frozen fish, mainly in Europe and the Commonwealth, and for salted cod, mainly in Latin America and the West Indies, have continued to expand, but exports of herrings, for which Eastern Europe and the Soviet Union have been large customers, have declined.

By-products

A valuable by-product of the industry is the manufacture of fish meal for animal food and to a much lesser degree for fertilisers. Home production of white fish meal in 1957 fell from 79,300 tons to 76,700 tons; a large percentage of the fish meal is obtained from offal and most of the remainder from unsold catches. Imports of fish meal of all kinds in 1957 totalled 109,326 tons. The preparation of vitamin oils from fish livers is also a source of additional earnings. The extraction of the oil takes place at sea as soon as the fish are caught.

Freshwater Fisheries

The main commercial freshwater catches are salmon, sea-trout and eels. In Scotland and Northern Ireland, fixed nets along the coast and sweep or draught nets in rivers and estuaries are used; in England, drift nets are used for catching salmon in the sea, and draught nets and fixed traps in estuaries. In England and Wales, the value of the salmon catch is approximately £250,000 a year, in Scotland it amounts to about £1 million, and in Northern Ireland to some £200,000. In Northern Ireland, eels worth £80,000 a year are captured by long lines and by eel nets placed in river weirs.

Fishing for sport by rod and line in rivers, lakes, streams and canals is widespread. Salmon, grilse and sea-trout are the most important catches, and the fishing rights command high rentals. There are also extensive fishings for brown trout. Other freshwater fish taken, particularly in England, include roach, rudd, perch and dace. Fishing for freshwater fish other than salmon and trout is of minor importance; figures of catches are not available.

Distribution System

The principal inland wholesale distributing centre for fish is Billingsgate Market in London, which handles about 400 tons a day, but other large cities also have central fish markets. The principal method of distribution is through wholesalers, located at the ports, who buy at the auctions and sell to inland wholesalers; the port wholesalers prepare the fish for onward shipment. Some sixty special express fish trains transport the catch daily from the ports to inland centres, but increasing use is being made of road transport. Retail sales are handled by 17,000 fishmongers and nearly 18,000 fish friers; the latter use more than a third of the landings of white fish.

Promotion and Regulation of the Industry

Laws in Britain relating to fisheries and fish are principally directed to the following purposes: (1) protection of supply by measures against over-fishing, e.g., the Sea Fisheries Regulation Act, 1888, the Sea-Fishing Industry Act, 1933, and the Sea Fish Industry Act, 1938; (2) promotion of the prosperity of the industry, e.g., the Herring Industry Acts, 1935 to 1957, the White Fish Industry Acts, 1951 to 1957, and the Fisheries Act, 1955; (3) protection of the quality of the product, e.g., the Food and Drugs Act, 1955. The Government Departments mainly responsible for the administration of laws in the first two categories and for the development of every branch of the fishing industry are the Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food, the Scottish Home Department, and the Ministry of Commerce for Northern Ireland; the Ministry of Health and the Department of Health for Scotland are concerned with questions of nutrition and hygiene affecting fish and fish products. The safety and welfare of crews of fishing vessels are provided for under the Merchant Shipping Acts, which are administered by the Ministry of Transport and Civil Aviation.

The authorities concerned with fisheries research are the Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food, the Scottish Home Department, the White Fish Authority, the Herring Industry Board, and the Development Commissioners; and, on food investigation, the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research.

A Committee of Inquiry into the Fishing Industry was appointed in November, 1957, to assess, in relation to developments in fishing and the marketing of fish, the size and pattern of an economic fishing industry in the United Kingdom.

The Herring Industry Board

The Herring Industry Board was set up under the Herring Industry Act of 1935 to reorganise, develop and regulate the herring industry; subsequent amending Acts have also been passed. The Board consists of a chairman and two other members, all part-time and independent of the industry, who are appointed jointly by the Minister of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food, the Secretary of State for Scotland and the Home Secretary. The Board, whose activities are financed partly by Government grants and loans and partly by levies and licence fees, is advised by the *Herring Industry Advisory Council*, consisting of representatives of the catching and shore sections of the industry. The functions of the Board include the promotion of sales of herring, both at home and abroad, and the provision of grants and loans for the purchasing of new boats, nets and gear, and the reconditioning of existing boats. The Board is particularly active in developing new and wider markets for herring, and applying the benefits of technical progress to the industry, including the adoption of new fishing methods, and the construction of new processing plants for quick-freezing and kippering. The Board buys all herring not sold for other purposes for reduction to oil and meal, and, with the aid of Government grants, has built a number of processing factories for this purpose.

A Government subsidy has been paid to herring fishermen since May 1957; in the year ended 31st March, 1958, £325,000 was made available.

The White Fish Authority

The White Fish Authority was set up under the Sea Fish Industry Act, 1951, to reorganise, develop and regulate the white fish industry. It is composed of five independent members, appointed jointly by the Minister of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food, the Secretary of State for Scotland and the Home Secretary, and works in consultation with the industry and consumers through the *White Fish Industry Advisory Council*. The authority's activities are financed partly by Government

grants and loans and partly by a levy on first-hand sales and by registration fees. The Authority has powers similar to those of the Herring Board; it makes loans and grants for the purchase of new vessels and engines and for the conversion of coal-fired vessels to oil-firing, and makes loans for the reconditioning of old vessels to further the modernisation of the fishing fleet. Up to 31st March, 1958, nearly £13 million in loans and nearly £5.2 million in grants were approved for this purpose by the Authority.

Since 1950, a subsidy from public funds has been paid to near and middle water vessels and to inshore vessels engaged in the white fish industry in the United Kingdom. In 1957-58, £2.71 million was made available; a large proportion of this sum was used to assist steam vessels.

Whaling

Whaling is mainly conducted by expeditions, each consisting of a large floating factory ship accompanied by its attendant whale catchers and tankers, which operate mainly in the Antarctic Ocean. It is regulated by the *International Whaling Commission*, set up under the International Whaling Convention of 1946, which controls the dates of the season and sets a limit on the Antarctic catch of whales. The offices of the Commission are in London.

The United Kingdom ranks third (after Norway and Japan) in the extent to which it engages in whaling, sending three expeditions to the Antarctic each year. In addition, whaling is also undertaken from land stations on South Georgia, a British island in the South Atlantic. The volume of the whale oil (the most important product) obtained by the British expeditions in the 1956-57 season amounted to about 420,000 barrels. The value of the products of British whaling expeditions landed in the United Kingdom totalled £6.6 million in 1956 and £7.2 million in 1957.

FORESTRY

The total woodland area of Great Britain is nearly 4 million acres, or between 6 and 7 per cent of the total land area. Timber and its products are of great importance to the economy of the country, and large quantities of industrial timber (i.e. wood other than that used for domestic fuel) are needed to meet all demands; but, except for the period of the second world war when, of necessity, much over-felling took place, the home timber industry has not been in a position to make more than a small contribution to the nation's timber requirements. At present, Great Britain imports about 85 per cent of her needs of timber and wood products. The Government is, however, devoting continuous effort through the Forestry Commission to the long-term task of increasing the country's timber resources.

Forest Areas

The last census of woodlands (1947-49) shows that 54 per cent of the total woodland area of Great Britain lies in England, 37 per cent in Scotland, and 9 per cent in Wales. The greatest density of woodland in Great Britain is in the north and east of Scotland—for example, Moray has 21.6 per cent of its land area under woodland and Nairn has 19.1 per cent. Another region of high density lies in the south-east of England—Sussex, Surrey, Hampshire, Kent and Berkshire. Monmouthshire, on the Welsh border, has 10.7 per cent of its land area under woodland.

The classification of forest area showing type and ownership in 1955 is given in Table 20.

TABLE 20
CLASSIFICATION OF FOREST AREA IN GREAT BRITAIN (1955)

Acres

Class of Forest	State Forest	Private Forest(a)	Total	Percentage of Total Forest Area
Softwoods (coniferous) ..	910,080	661,120	1,571,200	40·1
Mixed woods	46,720	256,640	303,360	7·7
Hardwoods (broadleaved) ..	179,840	1,863,680	2,043,520	52·2
TOTALS	1,136,640	2,781,440	3,918,080	100·0
Percentage of Total Forest Area	29	71	100	

Source : Forestry Commission.

(a) Forest owned by private individuals and bodies; in this classification a small area of communal forest is included, i.e. forest owned by public bodies such as local authorities and water supply undertakings.

Woodlands include areas of high forest (consisting of coniferous and broad-leaved trees), coppice, scrub, and devastated and felled areas. Of the broadleaved species, the most common tree is the oak, with beech, ash, birch, sycamore and elm following in that order. Of the coniferous species, Scots pine is the most common, but Norway and Sitka spruces are plentiful.

Volume of Timber

At the end of 1955, the volume of standing timber, excluding hedgerow timber and woods of not more than one acre, was estimated to be 3,460 million cubic feet. This included 1,530 million cubic feet of softwood and 1,930 million cubic feet of hardwood. The net annual increment (the year's growth minus losses due to fire, decay, or similar causes) was 118 million cubic feet. The climate and soil of Great Britain are favourable to the growth of timber; the annual rate of growth which can be obtained in Great Britain under systematic management compares most favourably with that achieved in other European countries.

Forest Policy

From the early Middle Ages there was a continuous process of deforestation in Great Britain. Woodlands were cleared for agriculture, and timber was used for a variety of domestic and industrial purposes, for instance, as charcoal in iron-smelting, for fuel, housebuilding, domestic and agricultural equipment, and ship-building. Occasionally, from the sixteenth century onwards, Governments have encouraged the planting of high forest as an insurance against the blockade of war, but in times of normal trading it was the practice to buy timber from abroad. Following the Industrial Revolution, cheap and easily workable timber began to be required in ever-increasing amounts for a variety of new industrial uses. Home woodlands contained neither the types nor the quantities of timber to meet this demand and the importation of timber, principally of softwoods (timber derived from coniferous tree species), expanded greatly. By 1914 the trade in imported

timber had grown, and the contribution from home woodlands had shrunk, to a point where no more than 7 per cent of the country's total requirements were being met from home sources. The sudden demands of the first world war, however, brought about a realisation of the need for a national forest policy. The Forestry Commission (see below) was established under the Forestry Act, 1919, to give effect to such a policy, but, although some progress was made, the devastation of the country's woodlands caused by extensive felling during the second world war showed clearly that larger scale measures were needed.

In 1943, the Forestry Commissioners recommended, in their Report on Post-War Forest Policy, that the nation should aim at having at least 5 million acres of productive forest, of which 2 million acres would be secured from the rehabilitation of existing woodlands and 3 million acres obtained by the afforestation of bare land. The Government accepted this as a programme to be achieved by the end of the century, by the State and private owners of woodlands working together; although the afforestation of bare land would fall mainly on the State. While it provided for the conservation of existing stocks of standing timber through statutory controls on felling, the programme also called for a marketing policy that would maintain a healthy and efficient home timber trade. The acreage of woodland proposed would, it was estimated, produce ultimately a volume of timber equivalent to about one-third of the country's needs. On this basis, forestry would become a major industry which, in addition to its economic value, would help to arrest the depopulation of rural areas.

Future developments are likely to include the encouragement of still greater integration of forestry and agriculture in the marginal hill areas. A recommendation to this effect, made in the Report on Forestry, Agriculture and Marginal Land, by the Natural Resources (Technical) Committee, published in March 1957, has been accepted by the Government. As an example of such integration, the Committee cites among others the 'Strathoykell' scheme which is proceeding in adjoining sheep farming areas in Ross-shire and Sutherlandshire in Scotland. In this area over 4,000 acres have been planted by the Forestry Commission, houses have been built, grant-aided farm improvements to a value of over £35,000 have been made, and stocks of sheep and cattle have been increased.

The Forestry Commission

The Forestry Commission was established as a national forest authority; it has the general duty of promoting the interests of forestry, the development of afforestation and the production and supply of timber in the United Kingdom. The Commission consists of a chairman and not more than nine commissioners who are appointed by the Crown; they are required, in exercising their functions, to comply with such directions as may be given to them by the Minister of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food and the Secretary of State for Scotland. The Forestry Act, 1951, placed responsibility for the maintenance of an adequate reserve of growing trees in Great Britain on the Forestry Commissioners and gave them powers to regulate the felling of trees by the issue of licences. Besides conducting its own forest operations, the Commission represents the interests of British forestry at inter-governmental meetings, gives encouragement to private forestry and performs a wide range of general forestry duties such as research and education and the publication of technical and other literature on forestry. In the administration of its duties in relation to private forestry there is continual contact between the Commission's staff and private land-owners, and the staff gives advice, free of charge, on silvicultural and management problems; substantial grants for planting and other forestry activities are paid to woodland owners (see overleaf). The Commission has

also played an important part in encouraging the establishment of several new timber-using industries.

During the years 1919-57¹ the Forestry Commission acquired land through the Forestry Fund (see below), under the Forestry (Transfer of Woods) Act, 1923, and by gifts which, after taking account of disposals, totalled 2,253,800 acres. This total comprises 1,443,500 acres classified as 'forest land', of which 1 million acres had been planted by 1956 and the rest would be planted in due course, and 810,300 acres of 'other land' which includes forest nurseries, rough grazing, agricultural land and land unsuitable for planting, such as the tops of mountains. The total number of Commission forests in Great Britain at 30th September, 1957, was 513, of which 221 were in England, 206 in Scotland and 86 in Wales. The peak year for planting was 1954, when the area planted was 70,400 acres. The area planted decreased to 67,900 acres in 1955, in 1956 to 62,400 acres, and in 1957 to 57,900 acres, owing to the continuing difficulty of acquiring sufficient plantable land.

In July 1958, the Government announced its conclusion, reached after a review of forestry policy, that the planting programmes of the Forestry Commission should be fixed for periods of ten years at a time. For the five-year period 1959 to 1963 the programme would be about 300,000 acres. For the period 1964 to 1968 the planting programme would be reduced to about 235,000 acres, when the Forestry Commission's existing plantations would begin to come into full production. The size of the subsequent programme is to be reviewed in 1963. In deciding where planting shall take place, special attention is to be paid to the upland areas, particularly in Scotland and Wales, where expansion of forestry would provide, among other benefits, new opportunities for employment.

All the Commission's forests are covered by management plans, which provide for such work as planting, road construction, thinning and fire protection. Besides forest officers, the Commission employs two groups of specialist officers, estate officers and engineers. During the years 1950-57, the engineers constructed 2,423 miles of new roads, and the estate officers were responsible for the building of 1,694 new houses.

Finance

The Forestry Fund was established by the Forestry Act, 1919; from it is paid all the expenditure of the Forestry Commissioners and into it are paid their receipts from sales of produce, rentals and other sources, together with the amounts voted annually by Parliament. From 1920 to 1957, parliamentary grants totalled £88,620,800 and receipts from other sources £29,073,440. Expenditure during these years totalled £117,275,937. Actual expenditure during the year ended 30th September, 1957, totalled £10,223,000, of which £821,000 represented various grants to private forestry.

Private Forestry

Privately owned woods in 1955 comprised 71 per cent of the total forest area in Great Britain (as shown in Table 20), and contain most of the mature and semi-mature timber. The size of woodlands in individual ownership ranges from a few acres to several thousand acres, and a high proportion of the privately owned woodland area belongs to small owners (i.e. owners of woods of up to about 250 acres).

Impetus has been given to the effective management of private woodlands by the introduction, under the Forestry Act, 1947, of the Dedication of Woodlands Scheme. Under this scheme, owners are invited to put their land permanently to

¹To the end of the Forest Year 1957 (30th September).

timber production and to manage their woods in accordance with a plan agreed with the Forestry Commission, in return for the provision of financial and technical assistance. By September 1957, the total area dedicated was 485,436 acres. It was announced in July 1958 that a graduated scale of grant per acre would be substituted for the former flat rate, increasing considerably the value of the grants to owners; in particular, to those owning smaller woodlands. In addition, there are the woodlands covered by the Approved Woodlands Scheme in which a planting grant, but no management grant, is made; and these bring the total area managed under an agreed plan to over 625,000 acres. This does not take into account other estates that are already working to a plan but have not been put forward for inclusion in either scheme.

The Forestry Commissioners have been much in favour of the development of co-operative forestry schemes and have made loans available. The co-operative societies provide for landowners and farmers the services of skilled staff, centralised purchasing facilities, and a central agency for the disposal of forest produce. The whole of Scotland, much of Wales and several districts in England, are now served by such societies. The Commission also co-operates with the principal forestry societies, such as the Royal Forestry Society of England and Wales and the Royal Scottish Forestry Society, in spreading technical knowledge; many of its technical staff are members of such societies. In 1948, the United Kingdom Forestry Committee was formed, bringing together representatives of the Country Landowners' Association, the Scottish Landowners' Federation and the two Royal Forestry Societies, with additional members possessing experience of land agency, forest economics and timber trade. This committee has been accepted in forestry negotiations as the body which represents the collective interests of owners of private woodlands.

The total area estimated to have been planted annually by private owners has risen from 9,000 acres in 1947 to 31,600 acres in 1957; this compares with a pre-war average of 6,000 to 7,000 acres. The problems restricting planting by private owners are shortages of labour, skilled staff and finance.

Consultative Machinery

The Forestry Act, 1945, established for each country (England, Scotland and Wales) a National Committee, composed partly of Forestry Commissioners and partly of persons outside the Commission. These Committees, working directly under the authority of the Commissioners, supervise certain aspects of the Commission's work, including particularly the acquisition and management of land and the promotion of private forestry; in the latter task they are required to maintain direct contact with the Regional Advisory Committees which have been set up in each of the Commission's Conservancies with the purpose of providing a link with all those in the Conservancy who are interested in forestry. On all proposals for acquisition of land, the Commission consults the Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food and the Department of Agriculture for Scotland. Other consultative bodies have been set up to provide for consultation on the marketing of home grown timber.

Marketing of Home Grown Timber

The Home Grown Timber Advisory Committee, set up by the Forestry Commissioners in 1939, consists of representatives of the Commission, the Board of Trade and associations of landowners and timber merchants; it meets quarterly to discuss various matters affecting the marketing of home grown timber. In 1949, the Commissioners set up the Advisory Committee on Utilisation of Home Grown

Timber to advise landowners and to undertake research into problems connected with the marketing of timber from the Commission's own forests. Among the members of this Committee are representatives of the Forest Products Research Laboratory (see below), the Rural Industries Bureau (see p. 274) and the Timber Development Association.

In May 1954, the Minister of Agriculture and Fisheries and the Secretary of State for Scotland appointed a Committee on Marketing of Woodland Produce to consider what measures might be taken in order to improve the arrangements for marketing produce from privately owned woodlands. The Committee's two main recommendations, contained in its Report published in December 1956, were the establishment of a central consultative body representing all the main interests in the timber industry and of an effective association of private woodlands owners. The Government has accepted this last recommendation, and has made the increase of grants to private owners contingent on the formation of such an association.

Forestry Education and Research

The Commission maintains four Forester Training Schools: in England, at Parkend in the Forest of Dean, Gloucestershire; in Wales, near Bettws-y-Coed in Caernarvonshire; and in Scotland at Benmore, Argyllshire, and Faskally, near Pitlochry in Perthshire. Northerwood House in the New Forest, Hampshire, is the Commission's educational centre, and is used for practical courses for university students, landowners and agents, planning officers, school teachers and others connected with, or interested in, forestry.

Higher education in forestry is provided at several universities; a proportion of suitable graduates are recruited by the Commission as forest officers.

The Commission's Forest Research Station at Alice Holt Lodge, near Farnham, Surrey, was opened in 1946. Expenditure on research work at this station and in experimental areas in many forests in Great Britain amounted to £300,000 in 1957. The Commission takes an active part in the work of the International Union of Forest Research Organisations, whose twelfth congress was held at Oxford in July 1956. The Commission makes grants for special forestry research work to various institutions and to university departments, including the Imperial Forestry Institute at Oxford, which is also financed by the University, the Colonial Office, and Colonial Governments. Research into the qualities of home grown timber is carried out by the Forest Products Research Laboratory at Princes Risborough, which is one of the establishments of the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research, and by other grant-aided research associations.

Forestry in Northern Ireland

When the Government of Northern Ireland was formed in 1922, the new Ministry of Agriculture became the forest authority working with similar powers and duties to those conferred on the Forestry Commission by the Forestry Act, 1919. At that time the Ministry took over some 4,000 acres for afforestation of which 700 acres had been planted by the Forestry Commission.

State forest policy is implemented under the Forestry Act (Northern Ireland), 1953, which has replaced earlier legislation. This Act provides the Ministry with powers to acquire and manage land, and to provide financial and technical assistance for private planting, and it introduces measures for the protection of all woodlands, whether owned by the State or privately owned, against destruction by over-cutting, fire or depredation by animals.

The State forest area has grown steadily and at a greatly accelerated pace since the end of the second world war. By 31st March, 1958, some 92,000 acres had been

acquired, of which over 46,000 acres had been planted. The present afforestation programme provides for the creation as soon as possible of an area of 150,000 acres of productive State forest with a sustained yield roughly equal to the present yearly consumption of timber in Northern Ireland, i.e. some 30,000 standards (one standard is 165 true cubic feet of sawn timber). To reach this objective, a minimum annual planting rate of 3,500 acres, increasing to 4,000 acres within the next two years, has been set.

Financial provision is made by sums voted annually by Parliament and receipts from forest produce, rentals and other sources. From 1922 to 31st March, 1958, expenditure totalled £5,165,000, and receipts, other than parliamentary grants, were £1,691,000. Output and employment are growing steadily. The area of exploitable private woodlands is at present some 20,000 acres, and private planting, which is gaining impetus, is assisted by schemes for the supply, at a low cost, of young trees from the Ministry's nurseries, by grants towards the cost of the establishment of new plantations, and by free technical advice.

FUEL AND POWER

The main primary sources of energy in Britain are coal, petroleum and, to a small extent, water power; secondary sources, produced from these, are electricity and coal gas.

Britain's annual energy requirements are expected to rise from 250 million to 300 million tons coal equivalent by 1965. Coal, mined within the country, supplies some 85 per cent of this energy and it will remain the principal source for many years to come. But it is unlikely that production of coal can be increased sufficiently, even by the very large investments planned, to satisfy the additional needs. For supplies of crude petroleum Britain is almost entirely dependent on imports; water power resources are small. A large-scale programme for the construction of nuclear power stations has, therefore, been inaugurated, and by 1966-67 nuclear energy, it is estimated, may account for about 6 per cent of total energy requirements and some 22 per cent of electricity consumption. The fuel and power industries, with the exception of the petroleum industry, are under public ownership.

The Government's fuel and power policy has two principal objectives. The first is to ensure that power supplies are adequate to meet the rapidly growing demands of industry and of the domestic consumer in a country with an expanding national income. The second is to make the maximum possible use of indigenous resources and so lighten the load on the balance of payments.

The Government also aims to reduce air pollution. The Clean Air Act, 1956, which came fully into force on 1st June, 1958, makes it an offence to emit dark smoke or to fail to provide industrial premises with equipment to arrest grit and dirt, and empowers local authorities, subject to the approval of the Minister of Housing and Local Government, to declare 'smoke control areas', in which the emission of smoke from chimneys will constitute an offence; provision is made for the payment of grants by local authorities and the Exchequer towards the costs incurred by owners and occupiers of premises in these areas in making necessary changes to appliances. A Clean Air Council, to review progress and to advise the Minister, was set up in May 1957.

COAL

Coal has been worked in Britain for over 700 years and an organised coalmining industry has been in existence for over 300 years, some 200 years longer than in any other European country. British coal exports dominated the world coal market

until about 1910. By 1913—the peak production year—the industry was producing 287 million tons of coal, exporting 94 million tons and employing 1,107,000 workers.

The very fact that the British coalmining industry was developed so early has meant that many of the best seams of coal are now worked out; every year coal has to be mined from deeper and thinner seams and productivity can be maintained only by a high level of investment.

The industry declined during the first world war owing to a shortage of manpower and to the shortage of plant and materials necessary for undertaking any mechanical improvement. Moreover, alternative sources of energy and lower prices in Continental countries led to a later decline in exports, which had fallen to 67 million tons in 1925.

Attempts at securing economies through amalgamation date from the Sankey Commission of 1919. In 1930, a Coal Mines Act established commissioners to bring about the formation of larger and more efficient units. The Coal Act of 1938 transferred ownership of mineral coal to the State and made it the statutory responsibility of a Coal Commission to accelerate the integration of the industry by reducing still further the number of separate undertakings. At the outbreak of the second world war in 1939, however, this process was not far advanced.

The National Coal Board

In 1942, the Government assumed full control of the industry's operations, though the colliery undertakings continued to own the coal mines. In May 1946, the Coal Industry Nationalisation Act received the Royal Assent. On 1st January, 1947, the assets of the industry were vested in the National Coal Board, which was appointed by the then Minister of Fuel and Power and became responsible for the industry's management. Under the Act, the Board consisted of a chairman and eight other members, but this provision was amended by the Coal Industry Act, 1949, and the Board now consists of a chairman and not fewer than eight or more than 11 other members; the number of full-time members must not exceed eight and there must be one, and may be two, deputy chairmen.

The Board's main duties are:

- (1) to work and get the coal in Great Britain to the exclusion of any other person;
- (2) to secure the efficient development of the coalmining industry; and
- (3) to make supplies of coal available of such qualities and sizes and in such quantities and at such prices as may seem to it best calculated to further the public interest.

The Board is also charged with securing the safety, health and welfare of its employees. The Board's policies must be directed to ensure that its revenues shall be not less than its outgoings properly chargeable to revenue account, taking one year with another.

There are minor exceptions to the Board's exclusive monopoly to work coal in Britain: for example, it may license private enterprise to work small mines in which the number of underground workers does not greatly exceed 30. Production on opencast sites, which had been the responsibility of the Ministry of Fuel and Power, was transferred to the Board on 1st April, 1952.

The Board is responsible for its own regional organisation. The collieries, numbering about 850, are grouped into 50 Areas which are the basic units for commercial management. The size of the Areas varies according to geological, geographical and other technical considerations. The Areas are grouped into nine Divisions which roughly correspond to the main coal-bearing regions. A Divisional Board for each Division supervises and co-ordinates the work of the Areas within

the Division (except in the small South Eastern Division, which is administered by a General Manager), formulates divisional policy, and is answerable to the National Coal Board, which is responsible for questions of national policy, finance and the co-ordinating of major schemes of development. The day-to-day work of running the collieries is under the direction of colliery managers.

Two Coal Consumers' Councils were set up under the 1946 Act: the *Industrial Coal Consumers' Council*, members of which represent consumers, merchants and suppliers of coal, coke and manufactured fuel for industrial and other purposes, involving supply in bulk; and the *Domestic Coal Consumers' Council*, members of which represent similar groups concerned with coal for domestic use. The most important function of the Councils, which are responsible to the Minister of Power, is the general consideration of the commercial arrangements and activities of the National Coal Board, to ensure that this monopoly undertaking shall have the maximum practical regard for consumers' interests.

At the end of 1947 (its first year), the National Coal Board showed a deficit of £23.3 million, after paying compensation to the former mine-owners and interest on borrowed capital. In the years 1948, 1949 and 1950 there were surpluses of £11.7 million, £9.5 million and £8.3 million respectively. There were deficits of £1.8 million and £8.2 million in 1951 and 1952, a surplus of £0.4 million in 1953, deficits of £3.6 million in 1954 and £19.6 million in 1955, a surplus of £12.8 million in 1956, and a deficit of £5.3 million in 1957.

The National Coal Board raises capital by long-term borrowing direct from the Exchequer, instead of through the issue of stock. There is a statutory limit of £650 million at present on such borrowing and special authorisation is needed for borrowing, in any one year, more than £75 million in excess of the highest level of aggregate advances in the preceding year.

Production

It has been estimated that Britain's workable reserves of coal will last for about 400 to 500 years at current rates of consumption. But certain types such as high quality coking coal will be exhausted long before then unless they are eked out by blending with other types of coal.

The main coal-bearing areas are: (1) the Yorkshire, Derbyshire and Nottinghamshire field, which produces about 45 per cent of the total output, (2) the Durham and Northumberland field, (3) the South Wales field, and (4) the Scottish field. Other important coal-bearing areas are those of Lancashire and the West Midlands (Staffordshire and Warwickshire). There are no coal-bearing areas in Northern Ireland.

In the early years following nationalisation, the National Coal Board was able to secure quick increases in production and productivity by reorganisation, by a wider application of improved working methods and by increased mechanisation of cutting and conveying. As a result, deepmined production increased from 187 million tons in 1947 to 214 million tons in 1954, despite a fall of 4,000 in average manpower. Production has since remained roughly stationary, and in 1957 totalled 210 million tons. Output in tons per man-shift worked at the coal face has increased gradually, and in 1957 reached 3.36 tons as compared with 3.22 tons in 1953 and 3.00 tons in 1938. In addition, output from opencast workings, which are operated by civil engineering contractors on behalf of the Board, totalled 13.6 million tons in 1957, the highest level recorded since this method of exploiting the shallower deposits of coal started in 1942.

Future progress depends on bringing new mines into production, the development of machines for power-loading the coal at the face on to the face-conveyor belt

and the reorganisation of the haulage systems. The National Coal Board has launched a large programme of major reconstruction and new sinkings.

Until 1957 the coal industry suffered from a shortage of manpower. In 1957 manpower averaged 710,000, of whom 285,000 were workers at the coal face.

Marketing

Although the Board, as sole producer, makes the first sales of coal it has no monopoly of distribution. In many cases it acts as a wholesaler and in a few areas makes direct retail sales. Retail distribution is, for the most part, carried on by private firms which, since the end of rationing of domestic coal in July 1958, after nineteen years, have been free to sell in any quantity to any consumer, on a competitive basis without price restriction. Distribution of industrial coal has, for a number of years, also been the subject of an allocation scheme, but this is being brought to an end leaving the trade to operate on normal commercial lines.

Consumption and Overseas Trade

Coal consumption in Britain increased by an average annual rate of 3 million tons between 1947 and 1956, and, to cover requirements, supplies had to be imported from the United States in certain years. In 1957, however, sales declined by 5 million tons, mainly because of exceptional weather conditions, but also reflecting increased efficiency in the use of fuel and the check to industrial production in the early part of the year. Imports fell to 2.9 million tons in 1957 from 11.5 million tons in 1955, and no further contracts for imported coal have been placed.

Table 21 summarises the pattern of coal consumption in Britain in the years 1955-57. The electricity authorities took more than one-fifth of total supplies, much of it in the form of small coal not suitable for other uses. Higher production of pig iron has raised the requirements of coke ovens, which in 1957 absorbed about 15 per cent of total supplies.

TABLE 21
COAL CONSUMPTION IN THE UNITED KINGDOM 1955-57

	<i>Million Tons</i>		
	1955	1956	1957
Gas	27.9	27.8	26.4
Electricity	42.9	45.6	46.5
Railways	12.2	12.1	11.4
Coke ovens	27.0	29.3	30.7
Iron and steel	6.5	6.1	5.6
Engineering and other industries	34.2	33.3	31.9
Domestic and miscellaneous ..	64.5	64.2	60.7
TOTALS	215.2	218.4	213.2

Source: National Coal Board.

Exports have been reduced substantially in relation to pre-war as a result of the large increase in internal consumption. In 1957, they amounted to 6.6 million tons, the principal markets being Denmark, the Irish Republic, France and the Netherlands. Including coke and briquettes, the value of exports in that year was £61.8 million.

Labour Relations

Negotiations on wages and conditions of service in the coal industry are conducted through a Joint National Negotiating Committee, consisting of 16 members appointed by the National Coal Board and not more than 16 members of the National Union of Mineworkers. Disputed issues are referred to a National Reference Tribunal consisting of three permanent independent members and four assessors without voting rights, two representing labour and two management. There are also District Joint Negotiating Committees, which deal with the application of national agreements, settle any difficulties and differences that may arise at district level and refer unresolved differences to the national committee.

The Coal Industry Nationalisation Act requires the Board to enter into joint consultation with its employees to discuss such matters as production, safety, health and welfare. At almost every colliery there is a Consultative Committee in which the workmen's representatives are elected by secret ballot. The colliery manager is chairman, and he nominates three colliery officials to be members of the committee. There are also Consultative Councils at the area, divisional and national levels on which the Board and the four staff organisations in the industry—the National Association of Colliery Managers, the British Association of Colliery Management, the National Association of Colliery Overmen, Deputies and Shot-firers, and the National Union of Mineworkers—are represented.

Safety, Health and Welfare

The safety, health and welfare of miners are safeguarded by comprehensive legislation, which was consolidated and brought up to date by the Mines and Quarries Act, 1954. Responsibility for the enforcement of safety regulations lies with the Mines and Quarries Inspectorate of the Ministry of Power.

The National Coal Board has its own safety organisation and, in accordance with the Nationalisation Act, follows a policy directed towards securing the safety, health and welfare of its employees; examples of voluntary action by the Board to reduce risks are the installation of fire-resistant conveyor belts, the replacement of light alloy supports (which had been found to be liable to produce dangerous sparks) and the widespread introduction of courses of training for various classes of officials and workmen. The Board has also continued to strengthen the medical services which existed before nationalisation. Chief Divisional and Area Medical Officers have been appointed and Assistant Medical Officers are being appointed in areas with a labour force of more than 15,000 men. Medical centres are being set up at the pit head.

The Board is responsible for its employees' welfare at their work-places, for example, by the provision of pit-head baths and canteens, while the social welfare of coalminers and their families has, since 1952, been the responsibility of the Coal Industry Social Welfare Organisation, which is controlled by the Board and the miners' trade unions.

Research into problems of safety and health is carried out also at the Ministry of Power's Safety in Mines Research Establishment, which maintains a close liaison with the Mines Inspectorate and the National Coal Board's research organisation.

Development and Research

Contraction and curtailment of development in the industry since the peak year, 1913, had led to a position in which less than one-third of current output was coming from pits started in the twentieth century. Large-scale development was therefore essential.

In 1950, the National Coal Board announced its long-term plan of development

for the industry, involving the reorganisation and increased mechanisation of existing mines and the sinking of new ones. The plan is not rigid, and a revised version, taking account of changing circumstances and new knowledge, was issued in May 1956. It is expected that annual output will total 240 million tons by 1960, but it is not thought possible to reach 250 million before 1970. Opencast production is expected to continue at a rate of about 10 million tons a year. Actual capital expenditure in the years 1950-55 totalled £387 million, and over the period 1956-65 is expected to amount to £1,000 million, of which some £410 million would be spent between 1961-65. A total of £103 million was invested in 1957, and about £100 million is planned for 1958. In the ten-year period to 1965, it is estimated that £860 million will be required for collieries and associated activities, including work on major schemes to be completed after 1965, and £140 million for ancillary works. Manpower requirements are estimated at 682,000 with an output-per-man-year of 319 tons in 1960, and 672,000 with an output-per-man-year of 342 tons in 1965, when four-fifths of Britain's coal output will be coming from virtually new mines.

The mechanical cutting and conveying of coal are now the general practice: in 1957, 88 per cent of total deep-mined output was mechanically cut and 94 per cent was mechanically conveyed. The loading of coal at the working face offers, at present, the next most important possibility for increased coalface mechanisation. Each man on a power-loaded face produces an average of nearly 6 tons compared with about 3½ tons on conventional faces. In 1957, 54 million tons were power-loaded, compared with 13 million tons in 1953 and 5 million tons in 1947.

In 1947, the National Coal Board took over, with other assets, the Coal Survey, a national organisation for surveying coal resources within Britain, and 70 laboratories in the various coalfields, which it has since extended and modernised.

In 1948, the Board established a central research organisation at Stoke Orchard, near Cheltenham, Gloucestershire, to provide facilities for fundamental research in the coalmining industry, as distinct from the day-to-day scientific control exercised by the divisional and area scientific organisation. This is now known as the Coal Research Establishment. A second central research organisation for the investigation of underground problems, known as the Mining Research Establishment, was formed in 1952 by the Board at Isleworth, Middlesex, and a Central Engineering Establishment is now operating near Bretby, in Derbyshire, for developing new machines and testing equipment.

The Board also subscribes to a number of autonomous research associations in receipt of grants from the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research (DSIR), including the British Coal Utilisation Research Association, the British Coke Research Association and the Coal Tar Research Association. In addition, much of the work of other bodies, such as the Safety in Mines Research Establishment of the Ministry of Power and the Fuel Research Station of DSIR, is closely related to the Board's problems. A new Fuel Research Station at Stevenage, Hertfordshire, to replace the existing one at Greenwich and to undertake certain other investigations, was opened towards the end of 1958.

In 1956, the National Coal Board and the Central Electricity Authority accepted responsibility for the planning and construction of a pilot plant for the underground gasification of coal. This is a process for converting coal in the ground into gas for use in generating electricity and it has reached the stage of being demonstrated on a small scale after years of work by the Ministry of Power (and its predecessor) in co-operation with the National Coal Board. Exploitation of the process on a commercial scale is being undertaken. The National Coal Board has set up an Underground Gasification Executive to carry out its part in the project.

PETROLEUM

The petroleum industry in Britain dates back to 1850, when Dr. James Young, a Glasgow chemist, succeeded in obtaining lamp oil and lubricants from natural mineral oil occurring in the Derbyshire coal measures. The Scottish shale deposits, yielding similar products, were first worked in 1858.

Indigenous Production

Sources of crude oil within Britain (including shale oil) supply altogether less than one per cent of total United Kingdom requirements, the remainder being imported from overseas.

Current output of shale oil is drawn from seven shale mines and one opencast quarry, retorted in four crude oil works, and the crude products are refined in a central refinery at Pumphreston, near Edinburgh. Output of shale reached a peak of 3.4 million tons in 1913, but the cost of the processes and other economic difficulties led to a reduction of output. Production amounted to over 902,000 tons in 1957, yielding over 71,000 tons of crude shale oil. From the latter, some 68,000 tons of refined products were obtained. In 1957, about 8,900 tons of motor spirit were obtained from coal by hydrogenation, and 5,600 tons by low temperature carbonisation. Some 319,500 tons of refined benzole were derived from coke ovens and gas works. Prospecting for crude petroleum has so far led to the establishment of two oilfields in Nottinghamshire (Eakring and Egmanston), one in Lancashire (Formby) and one in Leicestershire (Plungar). Production of crude oil from indigenous oilfields in 1957 was 82,000 tons. In 1958, further oil has been found at Langar and Bothansall, Nottinghamshire, and near Corringham, Lincolnshire.

International Trade

British and British-Dutch oil companies have been responsible for developing the oil resources of many countries to mutual advantage, especially in the Middle East, Far East and Caribbean areas.

Today these companies produce one-third of all oil entering into international trade, with a tanker fleet (part owned by them and part on charter) amounting to nearly one-third of the world's tanker tonnage. (United Kingdom registered tanker tonnage is nearly one-fifth of the world's total.)

In 1957, the United Kingdom imported 29 million tons of crude oil, more than half coming from Kuwait, the other largest suppliers being Venezuela, Iran, the United States, Iraq and Bahrain, in that order. The pattern of imports was distorted in 1957 by the situation in the Middle East; only negligible quantities are drawn from the United States, and in normal years Iraq is a larger supplier than Venezuela.

Consumption

In 1957, the rationing of motor spirit and other restrictions on oil consumption, as a result of the Suez emergency, caused a break in the upward trend of oil consumption in the United Kingdom. Total delivery for consumption was about 24.7 million tons, compared with 25.2 million tons in 1956, and 23.2 million tons in 1955. Of the 1957 total, 5.7 million tons represented motor spirit and 6.9 million tons fuel oil. Consumption of fuel oil has been expanding rapidly as a result of its increasing use in industry. The upward trend in consumption was resumed in 1958, and in the first five months of the year deliveries were at an annual rate of over 30 million tons, of which about 10 million tons were accounted for by fuel oil.

Refineries

Up to 1939, three-quarters of the United Kingdom's supply of petroleum products was refined overseas, in accordance with the view, commonly held in the world oil industry at that time, that it was more economical to refine at the source of production. Since the second world war, however, the industry has come to favour the siting of refineries in the consuming areas. The expansion programme in the United Kingdom carried out by the major oil companies was a substantial one, costing over the years 1947 to 1954 very nearly £200 million.

At the end of 1957, refinery capacity in the United Kingdom amounted to about 31 million tons a year. Of the 14 refineries in operation, six had a capacity of under 0·2 million tons. By the end of 1958, capacity had been increased to nearly 40 million tons, the largest refineries being situated at Fawley (10·5 million tons) near Southampton, Shellhaven (8 million tons) and Isle of Grain (7 million tons), both in the Thames Estuary, and Stanlow (5 million tons), in Cheshire. A new plant at Milford Haven, in Pembrokeshire, with a capacity of 5 million tons is expected to be ready by 1960. Production of refined products rose from about 5 million tons in 1948-49 to 27·8 million tons in 1957. There is a substantial external trade in refined products which tends to follow trading and seasonal requirements and the commercial arrangements of the oil companies. United Kingdom exports, mainly in the form of heavier products to European countries, were valued at £83 million in 1957. Imports of refined products were valued at £120 million in 1956 and £154 million in 1957.

Research

Research into problems of petroleum technology is carried out mainly by the leading oil companies, which have also endowed research at the universities on a substantial scale. Some work on the production of oil products from coal is done at the Fuel Research Station of the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research.

The British Petroleum Company has a large research centre at Sunbury-on-Thames, which deals with chemical and physical research, process development, petroleum and petroleum chemical products, engine research in relation to fuels and lubricants and general analytical problems.

At the Shell Group's main centre at Thornton, Cheshire, research into applications of petroleum products for all marketing areas, except North America, is undertaken. Another of the Shell Group's centres, at Woodstock, near Sittingbourne, Kent, conducts research into the agricultural application of petroleum derivatives, and the centre at Egham, Surrey, concentrates on consumer research related to products such as detergents.

The Esso group (United States) has a research station at Abingdon, Berkshire, concerned mainly with work on engine fuels and lubricants.

ELECTRICITY SUPPLY

Public supply of electricity was first provided at Godalming, Surrey, in 1881, though there were earlier demonstrations of its use to consumers, such as the former Metropolitan Board of Works, in the lighting of the Thames Embankment. From the earliest days a measure of public control has been a feature of the industry, and the Electric Lighting Act of 1882 authorised the Board of Trade to grant licences for the establishment of electricity undertakings by local authorities or by companies (which the local authorities might compulsorily purchase after a given period of time) to supply consumers in given areas. By the turn of the century,

technical developments, including the introduction of the electric motor as a source of motive power, had led to a large increase in the scale of distribution of electricity, and a variety of independent supply systems had grown up all over the country.

It was not until after the first world war that steps were taken to reorganise the industry on a national scale in order to realise the benefits of concentration, integration and standardisation in electricity supply. In 1919, the Electricity Commissioners were set up as a supervisory body and to promote reorganisation through voluntary agreement. Then, in 1926, the Central Electricity Board was established to co-ordinate more efficiently the generation of electricity. Its main duties were to concentrate the output of electricity in certain stations, selected for their efficiency and low operating costs, and to connect these selected stations with one another and with local distribution undertakings by means of a national system of main transmission lines, known as the Grid. Thenceforward, steady progress was made in putting this plan into effect and, by March 1948, 143 selected stations, out of some 300, were supplying 95 per cent of the electricity generated for public supply.

Organisation under Public Ownership

Under the Electricity Act of 1947, a central authority, then known as the British Electricity Authority, and 14 Area Electricity Boards, took over in April 1948 the assets of former municipal and private electricity supply undertakings throughout Great Britain, except in the area already served by the North of Scotland Hydro-Electric Board (see p. 294). Under the Electricity Reorganisation (Scotland) Act of 1954, the Authority's functions in Scotland were taken over in April 1955 by the South of Scotland Electricity Board (see p. 294). The name of the Authority was changed from British Electricity Authority to Central Electricity Authority and the number of Area Boards was reduced to twelve.

On 1st January, 1958, under the Electricity Act, 1957, the Central Electricity Authority was dissolved and replaced by two new bodies, the Electricity Council and the Central Electricity Generating Board.

The present organisation in the various parts of the United Kingdom is described below.

England and Wales

The *Electricity Council*, the central body of the industry, is composed of a chairman, two deputy chairmen, up to three other persons, and the chairman and two other members of the Central Electricity Generating Board, and, *ex officio*, the twelve chairmen of the Area Electricity Boards. The main functions of the Council are to advise the Minister of Power on matters relating to the electricity supply industry and to promote and assist the maintenance and development by Electricity Boards in England and Wales of an efficient co-ordinated and economical system of electricity supply. More specifically the Council is responsible for a number of common services, including capital financing and research.

The *Central Electricity Generating Board* consists of a chairman and not fewer than seven, nor more than nine, other members. The Board has taken over the main executive functions of the former Central Electricity Authority in England and Wales: i.e. to generate or acquire supplies of electricity and to provide bulk supplies to the Area Boards.

The *Area Boards* (of which there are at present 12) are responsible for the distribution of electricity in England and Wales. Each consists of a full-time chairman and deputy chairman and four to six part-time members, appointed by the Minister of Power.

Area Consultative Councils were set up under the Electricity Act, 1947, in the area of each Area Board to represent the interests of consumers. They each consist of between 20 and 30 members, of whom between 40 and 60 per cent are nominated by local authority associations. The chairman of each Area Consultative Council is an *ex officio* member of the corresponding Area Board. These arrangements continue under the Act of 1957.

The most important functions of the Minister of Power in England and Wales, under the new arrangements, are: to appoint the chairmen, deputy chairmen and members of the Electricity Council and the Central Electricity Generating Board; to approve each Area Board's capital development plans and the industry's research programme; and to approve, in consultation with the Treasury, the Board's borrowing requirements, having regard to the development programmes submitted by the industry. The Minister also has power to issue general directions to the Council and the Boards if he considers this necessary in the national interest.

Over 200,000 people are employed in the electricity supply industry.

The Central Authority and Area Boards, taken together, have made a consolidated net surplus on their operations in each of the years since they were established. Up to and including the financial year 1956-57, these surpluses amounted in the aggregate to over £82 million. Under the 1957 Act, each Electricity Board, as distinct from the industry as a whole, must pay its own way, taking one year with another.

Under the Electricity Act of 1957, the Electricity Council is required to devise a satisfactory procedure for collective bargaining and joint consultation with employees in the industry. In each of the three main groups of workers (administrative, technical and manual), there is a separate National Joint Industrial Council or Board, which negotiates terms and conditions of employment. A National Joint Advisory Council, drawn from management and employees, has been set up to discuss the health, welfare and safety of all groups of employees. There are also separate district councils and local works and advisory committees forming part of the negotiating and conciliatory machinery.

Scotland

The *North of Scotland Hydro-Electric Board* was set up in 1943 as a public corporation to develop the water power resources of the Highlands and Islands and to distribute electricity in the more sparsely populated parts of Scotland not covered by existing undertakings. The Board consists of a chairman, a deputy chairman and not fewer than four nor more than eight other members, appointed by the Secretary of State for Scotland.

The Act of 1947 made the North of Scotland Hydro-Electric Board solely responsible to the Secretary of State for Scotland for all generation and distribution in its area. This area was extended under the Act to include that part of Scotland north and west of a line running roughly from Dumbarton on the Firth of Clyde to Newburgh on the Firth of Tay.

On 1st April, 1955, the *South of Scotland Electricity Board*, answerable to the Secretary of State for Scotland, took over the then British Electricity Authority's functions in Scotland, and also the functions of the two Area Boards in the south of Scotland, which were dissolved. The Board consists of a chairman, deputy chairman, and not fewer than four nor more than eight other members, appointed by the Secretary of State for Scotland.

Under the Electricity Reorganisation (Scotland) Act, 1954, the then Minister of Fuel and Power retained only three functions in regard to electricity in Scotland,

namely, to act jointly with the Secretary of State in regard to staff pensions and to safety measures, and to remain solely responsible for the certification of meters.

A Consultative Council has been appointed for the District of each Board by the Secretary of State, to represent the interests of consumers. The constitutions of these councils are similar to those of the Area Consultative Councils, and the chairman of each is a member of the appropriate Board.

Northern Ireland

In Northern Ireland, electricity is generated at power stations in Belfast, Ballylumford, Larne and Londonderry. Those in Belfast are owned and operated by the Belfast Corporation, and the next two by the *Electricity Board for Northern Ireland*. Generation at these three is co-ordinated by the *Northern Ireland Joint Electricity Committee*, set up by Statute in 1948, which purchases their output and resells it to distributors—Belfast Corporation, for Belfast and district, and the Electricity Board for the rest of Northern Ireland except Londonderry. In Londonderry the City Council both generates and distributes electricity independently of the Joint Committee.

Generation

Almost the whole of Britain's electricity is produced in coal-fired steam generating stations. Abundant supplies of coal, together with good rail and water transport for moving it, in contrast with the remote and scattered location of relatively small water power resources, led to this preponderant development of electricity supplies from thermal generating stations. The development of hydro-electricity on any scale is comparatively recent.

The installed generating capacity of the electricity authorities (including the North of Scotland Hydro-Electric Board) in Great Britain at the end of 1957 totalled 26,611 megawatts (MW)—maximum continuous rating—compared with 12,546 MW at the end of 1948.

Sales of electricity in Northern Ireland (where the total generating capacity of 383 MW is in coal-fired thermal stations) amounted to 1,009 million kilowatt-hours in 1957, when the maximum load sustained was 348 MW.

In 1957, 88,728 million units (one unit = one kilowatt-hour), or slightly under 98 per cent of the public supply in Great Britain, was generated at thermal stations, 2,100 million units, or about 2 per cent, from water power, and 144 million units by other means, e.g., diesel and waste heat and refuse destruction. The high rate of expansion of output, which has been a feature of the industry since its earliest years, has been continued since the war. Total production in 1957 was more than eight times what it was in 1930, and has increased by 40 per cent since 1953.

Thermal. The electricity authorities are the largest consumers of primary fuel in Britain, and, in 1957, used 46.5 million tons of coal and about 1.5 million tons of coke and oil. Average thermal efficiency of steam stations (i.e. the ratio of power output to the coal consumed) rose from 20.91 per cent in 1947-48 to 25.51 per cent in 1957-58 as new plant was brought into use. Twenty stations containing much of the newest plant had an average efficiency of 29.14 per cent in that year.

The Central Electricity Generating Board plans to have in commission by 1962 a generating set of 275 MW capacity, and, a year later, a 550 MW set is due to be commissioned at Thorpe Marsh, near Doncaster. The latter is much larger than any now in operation, or, as far as is known, than any at present projected anywhere in the world. These large machines will show substantial economies in capital cost, in fuel consumption and in operational costs. At present the largest size of generating set installed in Britain is 105 MW.

Hydro-Electric. The setting up of the North of Scotland Hydro-Electric Board in 1943 marked the beginning of a new era of intensive water power development in the Highlands of Scotland. A development scheme drawn up by the Board in 1944, showing the water power resources which it proposed to examine, listed 102 hydro-electric projects with an estimated annual output of 6,274 million units of electricity. The ultimate output of hydro-electric power is expected to be substantially higher and eventually may exceed 10,000 million units. In 1957, 1,625 million units were generated from water power compared with 322 million in 1949. Hydro-electric schemes with a total capacity of 780 MW were under promotion or survey at the end of 1957.

Alternative Fuels. To meet increasing demands for electricity and to save coal, generation from alternative fuels is being promoted. The chief alternatives are oil and nuclear energy. As regards oil, dual firing apparatus able to use either coal or oil has been fitted to a new power station at Marchwood, on Southampton Water, and similar apparatus is being installed in other power stations also situated on river estuaries and thus able to be fed conveniently from nearby oil refineries. Another alternative, used in Scotland, is peat; a pilot project at Altnabreac, Caithness, is in operation, and the peat is used in the peat-burning gas turbine developed by a Scottish firm assisted financially by the Development Fund.

Nuclear Power Stations

As an extension of its experimental work and to produce plutonium the United Kingdom Atomic Energy Authority (UKAEA), has built and is building a number of reactors which also produce electricity (see map p. 203). The Calder Hall nuclear energy establishment in Cumberland, which was officially opened by the Queen on 17th October, 1956, is the first large-scale nuclear power station in the world to supply electricity to a national electricity network. Calder Hall A, consisting of two reactors, has an installed capacity of 92 MW; Calder Hall B, due for completion in 1958, will double the installed capacity. Four more similar reactors are being built at Chapelcross, near Annan in Dumfriesshire, Scotland. A further establishment at Dounreay, in Caithness, Scotland, includes a fast-breeder reactor due to start working in 1959, which will produce electricity.

The main commercial power stations under the Government's nuclear power programme are being built for the electricity authorities by groups of manufacturers specially organised for the construction of nuclear power plants. The revised Government programme, announced in March 1957, provides for between 5,000 and 6,000 MW capacity for the generation of electricity from nuclear energy to be brought into operation between 1961 and 1966, instead of the 1,500 to 2,000 MW capacity planned in the provisional programme announced in February 1955. In October 1957, the Government decided that the target date for the completion of the programme should be extended to 1966-67, by which time nuclear energy will be contributing some 22 per cent of total electricity consumption, assuming operation at not less than 75 per cent load factor. It will be producing the equivalent of 18 million tons of coal (or 10 million tons of oil) required by conventional stations for a similar output. The total cost of the programme is estimated at about £900 million, including £170 million for the initial charges of uranium fuel.

Special factors have to be taken into account in the siting of the nuclear power stations, notably the need for firm rock foundations to bear the great weight of the reactors and their supporting structure, and a location distant from heavily built-up areas. Work on two stations—at Bradwell in Essex (300 MW installed capacity) and at Berkeley in Gloucestershire (275 MW)—started in January 1957, and is due for completion by 1961. Two further stations at Hunterston (360 MW),

in Ayrshire, Scotland, and at Hinkley Point (500 MW), in Somerset—so far the largest nuclear station being built in the world—will be ready in 1961 and 1962. Sites in Wales (one at Trawsfynydd, in North Wales, for which the Minister's consent has been obtained) and at Dungeness, in Kent, are being considered for further stations, and the Northern Ireland Electricity Board is planning to build a 150 MW station on a site as yet undetermined.

A series of engineering advances are enabling nuclear power stations with greatly improved output to be constructed, and the possibility of plants with an output of up to 1,000 MW is under discussion. As a result, it is expected that not more than 14 stations will be required for the 6,000 MW programme.

In order that nuclear power stations with their higher capital costs and lower operating costs should be run as continuously as possible, pumped storage schemes are being developed. Construction started at Blaenau Ffestiniog, North Wales, in 1956, of a 300 MW pumped storage scheme (the world's largest) and suitable sites for further such schemes are being investigated, including one at Loch Awe in the North of Scotland district.

Transmission and Distribution

Main electricity transmission lines—the Grid—cover most of the country. In 1957, those of the then Central Electricity Authority totalled some 5,500 route miles (8,602 circuit miles), of which 569 miles were operated at 275,000 volts, 4,745 miles were operated at 132,000 volts and the remainder at 66,000 volts and below. In Scotland, there were 2,385 circuit miles of main transmission lines at the end of 1957, all operated at 132,000 volts. Control of energy movements on the Grid in England and Wales is managed through the eight operational areas, set up for that purpose and distinct from the divisions in which the generating side of the industry is organised; each area has a separate control, and the operations are co-ordinated by a national control station in London. The Grid in Scotland is operated from the North of Scotland control centre at Tummel Bridge and the South of Scotland control centre at Glasgow.

The new Supergrid of main transmission lines at 275,000 volts will assist in meeting the growing demand for electricity during the next 20 years with the greatest economy and will make the British electricity supply the most closely integrated power network in the world. The first stage was reached in 1954 and the whole project is due to be completed by 1960. A scheme for interchange of energy by direct current by means of a single cross-Channel cable link capable of transmitting up to 160 MW at 200,000 volts (direct current) received the approval of the United Kingdom and French Governments late in 1957, and is expected to be in operation by 1960–61. It is estimated to cost £4 million. The object of the scheme is to take advantage of the differences in the incidence of peak loads in the two countries.

In England and Wales, the Area Electricity Boards distribute to consumers electricity acquired mainly from the Central Electricity Generating Board, but in part from other sources, e.g., collieries. There are 14·8 million consumers, an increase of about 5 million on those supplied in December 1939. Industrial concerns are the biggest users of electricity and their demands are increasing rapidly. The principal domestic uses of electricity are for lighting, cooking, and for space and water heating, but the demand for numerous other domestic purposes is increasing.

The North of Scotland Hydro-Electric Board has also pressed ahead with the distribution of electricity to consumers in the North of Scotland. At the end of 1957, there were 364,000 consumers of electricity in the Board's district and 60 per cent of the farms and crofts had a supply of electricity. The South of Scotland

Electricity Board then supplied 1,296,650 consumers, including 80 per cent of the farmers in the area.

Capital Investment

About 8 per cent of the annual gross fixed capital formation of the United Kingdom is attributable to the electricity supply industry. Capital expenditure by the industry over the eleven years 1956-67 is estimated at about £3,300 million, broadly made up as follows: transmission and distribution, £1,400 million; construction of conventional stations, £835 million; nuclear power stations, £900 million.

The borrowing powers of the Central Electricity Authority and Area Electricity Boards were originally limited to a maximum of £700 million, but in 1954 were extended to £1,400 million. Capital expenditure during 1957 by the Authority and Area Boards was about £235 million and approved expenditure by the Council and the Boards for 1958 amounted to £239 million. Under the 1957 Act any Electricity Board, as well as the Electricity Council, may borrow by issuing its own stock with the consent of the Minister of Power and the approval of the Treasury.

Borrowing by the North of Scotland Hydro-Electric Board is limited by the Electricity Act, 1947, as amended by the Hydro-Electric Development (Scotland) Act, 1952, to a maximum of £200 million. The Board's capital expenditure up to the end of 1957 totalled £177 million, of which £121 million was on account of hydro-electric schemes. Borrowing by the South of Scotland Electricity Board is limited by the Electricity Reorganisation (Scotland) Act, 1954, to a maximum of £75 million; the Board had spent £27 million by the end of 1957.

Research

The Electricity Council undertakes research on its own account and helps to finance research through its membership of the British Electrical and Allied Industries Research Association, an organisation to which manufacturing firms and large consumers of electricity also belong and which was established before the supply industry passed into public ownership. This Association is one of the autonomous research associations in receipt of grants from the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research. The Electricity Council also has an Electricity Supply Research Council including independent experts to advise it and the Area Boards, and can consult the Minister of Power's Scientific Advisory Council on problems affecting the supply and use of electricity. Direct research on a laboratory scale is carried on by the Central Electricity Generating Board at the Electricity Council's laboratories at Leatherhead, Surrey. Examples of research in progress include gas turbine generation and experiments in the use of wind power for generation.

GAS SUPPLY

Public supply of gas in Britain dates from 1807, when Pall Mall, London, was first lighted with gas. In 1812 the London and Westminster Gas Light and Coke Company received a Royal Charter to supply gaslight in London. In the early years of the industry, gas was used almost exclusively for lighting and was provided by a growing number of company and municipal undertakings. Then, after the middle of the century and the invention of the Bunsen burner in 1855, gas was used increasingly as a source of heat for many purposes, such as domestic cooking and space and water heating, in addition to a number of industrial uses. After 1880, however, gas for lighting purposes was subjected to increasing competition from

the new electricity supply industry; but the invention of the Welsbach incandescent mantle in 1887, which raised the efficiency of gas lighting very considerably, enabled the industry to hold its own while the supply of gas for purposes other than lighting increased.

The gas industry in its present form developed in the main during the period between the wars when increasing competition from electricity had to be met and when changes in social habits and outlook were taking place. The industry undertook a large-scale programme of modernisation of production and distribution and launched widespread sales promotion campaigns, especially for the numerous uses of gas in the home. By 1939 the industry had become mainly a supplier of heating instead of a supplier of lighting.

Organisation under Public Ownership

Under the Gas Act, 1948, the gas industry was brought under public ownership and control on 1st May, 1949. The assets of 991 undertakings, of which 269 belonged to local authorities, were vested in 12 Area Gas Boards. Together they cover the whole of Great Britain and are charged with a statutory duty to develop and maintain an efficient, co-ordinated and economical system of gas supply to domestic, industrial and other consumers. The national body is the *Gas Council* which is appointed by the Minister of Power and is responsible *inter alia* for advising him on questions affecting the gas industry. It is a co-ordinating council, not a trading body. It consists of a full-time chairman and deputy chairman and the twelve chairmen of the Area Boards.

The *Area Gas Boards*, which have a large measure of financial and operational responsibility and are similar in most respects to the central bodies of the other publicly owned corporations, are charged *inter alia* with the responsibility of manufacturing and distributing gas to consumers. Each of the Area Gas Boards which, like the Gas Council, are appointed by the Minister of Power, consists of a full-time chairman and deputy chairman, in some cases one, and in one case two, full-time members, and always five or six part-time members including the chairman of the Area Consultative Council. There is no common pattern of organisation; each Board is fully independent and has devised its own subordinate structure.

A link between the industry and the consuming public was established under the nationalisation scheme by the creation of a *Consultative Council* in each board area. These councils consist of not fewer than 20 and not more than 30 members, of whom between 50 and 75 per cent are chosen from panels of persons nominated by the local authority associations.

In Northern Ireland, the gas supply industry remains in the hands of a number of municipal undertakings and statutory and non-statutory companies.

Although the Gas Council is not a trading body, the operations of the Area Boards have resulted, in the eight years up to 31st March, 1957, in an aggregate disposable surplus of approximately £20 million before taxation.

Labour Relations

Under the Gas Act, 1948, the Gas Council is responsible for arranging satisfactory procedures of collective bargaining and a system of joint consultation with its employees. There are separate Joint Industrial Councils at the national level for manual workers and salaried staffs, and subordinate regional councils and local committees. At national and regional levels the councils combine negotiating and consultative functions, but there are in some cases separate Consultative Committees at the local level.

Production

In 1957, in Great Britain, 26 million tons of coal were carbonised by gas undertakings and 30.7 million tons by coke ovens operated outside the gas industry. About one-quarter of the output of gas from coke ovens is sold to gas undertakings for general distribution; the remainder is mainly consumed at the ovens or at collieries or steelworks.

In 1921, 250,300 million cubic feet of gas was manufactured by authorised gas undertakings or acquired from coke ovens, and the number of consumers was 7.6 million. By 1957, gas manufactured and acquired from coke ovens for distribution had risen to 601,000 million cubic feet and the number of consumers had risen to over 12.9 million, an increase of 140 per cent in the volume of gas available and of about 70 per cent in the number of consumers.

In 1957, the quantity of gas produced in Northern Ireland was 7,444 million cubic feet, most of it for household use.

The total number of persons employed in the gas industry in Great Britain in 1957 was about 136,000.

Consumption

Half of all gas produced is sold for household use and the remainder for industry, commerce and public services.

Domestic Use. While an accurate statistical analysis of the domestic load is not possible, evidence given before the Ridley Committee (on Fuel and Power Policy), appointed by the then Minister of Fuel and Power in 1951, suggested that about 70 per cent of the domestic load was used for cooking, the remaining 30 per cent being spread over space heating, water heating and other installations. Most homes in Britain are now supplied with gas, except in some rural areas where, owing to difficulties in storage and transmission, gas is not economic. These difficulties have been overcome to some extent by the use of local high-pressure storage tanks but this development is unlikely to grow, owing to the steady extension of rural electricity supplies. Bottled gas, derived from petroleum, is widely used in rural areas.

Industrial and Commercial Use. Gas is used extensively in industries which require a single control of temperature to a fine degree of accuracy. Among such industries are pottery and certain processes in the manufacture of iron and steel products. By 1957, industrial consumption reached 163,400 million cubic feet.

By-products

With the rapid increase in the volume of gas produced, the problems of the disposal of substances which were regarded originally as the 'waste' products of the carbonisation of coal (notably tar, benzole, sulphur and ammonia) became increasingly important.

Production of coke at gas works in 1957 was 11.8 million tons, and at coke ovens 20.4 million tons. The gas industry and coke ovens jointly produce over 2.9 million tons of crude coal tar and about 120 million gallons of crude benzole a year. These products, together with those of the sulphur and ammonia type, provide a source for the manufacture of a long and ever-growing list of essential derivatives which include dyestuffs (of which Britain now produces most of its own requirements), fertilisers, plastics, germicides (the sulphonamides and sulphanilamides), insecticides, refrigerants, perfumes, and synthetic yarns.

With further research and development, more especially in the field of organic chemistry, the production of coal carbonisation derivatives is becoming of increasing importance to the industry.

Development and Research

The chief objects of capital expenditure in the years immediately after the war were to overtake arrears of plant renewal. Plans for further expansion were approved by the then Minister of Fuel and Power in 1954 and are outlined in the Gas Council's publication *Fuel for the Nation*.

Under the Gas Act, 1948, borrowing by the Gas Council and the Area Gas Boards was limited to £250 million. The Gas and Electricity (Borrowing Powers) Act, 1954, extended these borrowing powers to £450 million.

The industry in recent years has been spending more than £50 million a year on capital investment. Estimated capital expenditure in 1957 totalled £57 million and a further £53·5 million has been approved for 1958.

The post-war structure of the industry has already permitted considerable integration by the linking of undertakings for the transmission of gas (through gas grids and long-distance mains), enabling production to be concentrated in the most efficient units. Progress is also being made in interconnections for the reception of gas from coke ovens, notably in Wales, Durham and Yorkshire.

Supplies of suitable coal are becoming more difficult to obtain. The Scottish Gas Board is, however, building a Lurgi plant in Fife to make town gas from low-grade opencast coal by a complete gasification process. It will cost about £8·5 million. Alternative sources of gas are being developed by the Gas Council. Gases from oil refineries (butane or propane) are used in several installations in smaller towns remote from large gas works or the grid systems. Progress has also been made with the use of methane, drained from coal mines. A scheme for using methane from Point of Ayr Colliery in North Wales is being introduced. A new process for the hydrogenation of petroleum fuels evolved by the Gas Council's Midland Research Station at Solihull, near Birmingham, is to be applied in a £2 million pilot plant to be built at Partington, near Manchester.

Some 39 oil gasification plants are due to be completed by March 1959, and it is estimated that they will save about one million tons of coal annually. These include a plant, jointly constructed by the South Eastern Gas Board and the British Petroleum Company, to convert petroleum products from the Company's Kent oil refinery to gas of acceptable quality. The installation, which will convert some 50,000 tons of petroleum products a year to gas and will have a daily output of 18 million cubic feet of gas, began operating in the summer of 1958.

Early in 1959, experimental shipments of deep-frozen, liquefied natural gas are to be made in special tankers from the United States Gulf Coast by the Gas Council. On arrival in Britain the natural gas is to be stored and later re-gasified.

The research organisation established by the Gas Council consists of a research committee which advises the Council on initiation and implementation of research policy, and two research stations, one in London and one at Solihull. Research is also carried out on behalf of the Gas Council at Leeds University and by the British Ceramic Research Association (an autonomous research association granted aid by the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research).

FUEL EFFICIENCY

The Government has for a number of years sought to promote efficiency in the use of fuel, among both industrial and domestic users, and has been assisted by various bodies representative of producers and consumers.

The *Coal Utilisation Council* consists of representatives of the National Coal Board, coal distributors and coal appliance manufacturers. It was formed in 1932 to give information and advice on the best use of solid fuel, including the choice

of installation and operation of solid fuel appliances, to domestic consumers and to retailers of appliances. During the second world war, the reduction in coal production and the demands of war industry made economy imperative. When the Ministry of Fuel and Power was formed in 1942, an industrial fuel advisory service with regional branches was incorporated within it. In 1943 the *Women's Advisory Council on Solid Fuel*, consisting mainly of representatives of appliance manufacturers, women's organisations and others interested in the housewife's point of view on domestic fuel arrangements, was formed to advise women on the use of solid fuel for heating and cooking.

Further measures have been taken during the last few years. Under a scheme introduced in 1952, loans on favourable terms are available from the Exchequer to industrial firms for financing approved fuel-saving schemes. At present the loans are interest-free for the first two years, repayment may be spread over a maximum period of twenty years and no security is required. In October 1953, a non-profit-making company, known as the *National Industrial Fuel Efficiency Service*, and sponsored by the British Productivity Council, was formed to promote fuel-saving in industry. This company, which largely replaced the industrial fuel advisory service of the then Ministry of Fuel and Power, came into operation on 1st May, 1954. It provides advice and services to all non-domestic fuel users in a variety of forms, from 'spot' inspection to full-scale heat and power surveys and regular visits on a contract basis. A survey of the generation and use of steam carried out by the Ministry has been employed to show the possibilities in the increased uses of back-pressure steam in the generation of electricity. The electricity and gas industries, the largest consumers of primary fuel, are succeeding each year in obtaining more energy from each ton of coal they use, by increasing the thermal efficiency of their plants. The campaign for fuel efficiency is closely linked with the campaign for the reduction of smoke.

In 1958, a committee was set up by the Government to consider ways of improving co-operation between the Electricity and Gas Area Boards.

WATER SUPPLY

Britain's water resources are, in general, sufficient for domestic and industrial requirements. The sources of water, however, are often distant from the areas where supplies are needed, and water undertakings are therefore mainly concerned with abstraction, storage, treatment and distribution. Supplies are obtained partly from surface sources such as mountain lakes, streams impounded in upland gathering grounds and river intakes, and partly from underground sources by means of wells, adits and boreholes. Unlike other public services in Great Britain, such as electricity and gas, water supply remains in the hands of a large number of undertakings of different kinds. Ministerial responsibility for national water policy rests with the Minister of Housing and Local Government in England and Wales, with the Secretary of State for Scotland in Scotland and with the Minister of Health and Local Government in Northern Ireland.

Development of Water Supply in England and Wales

It was not until the nineteenth century that the provision of water supplies became a general public service and then only after long and bitter controversy. It was largely due to the efforts of Edwin Chadwick and his colleagues, who demonstrated the dangers arising from inadequate water supply and sanitation, that the Public Health Act, 1848, became law in England and Wales and laid the basis for a long series of statutes dealing with public health.

From the middle of the nineteenth century onwards a number of separate large water undertakings were set up to provide adequate supplies of pure water to the expanding urban population, and the water supply system developed rapidly, although in piecemeal fashion and with some overlapping and waste.

Organisation of Water Supply in England and Wales

Local authorities have a duty as sanitary authorities to ensure that water supplies are adequate for the needs of their areas, and they may do this either by operating a water undertaking themselves or by ensuring that other bodies are providing an adequate supply. The householder receives his domestic water supply at a comparatively small charge, varying in different areas, which he usually pays by way of a water rate levied, like other rates, on the value of his house.

By the Water Act, 1945, the Minister of Housing and Local Government has a duty to promote the conservation and proper use of water supplies in England and Wales. The same Act provided for a statutory Central Advisory Water Committee (replacing the previous non-statutory committee) to advise the Minister on general questions relating to water and to deal with the local organisation of water supplies and the powers and duties of local authorities and other water concerns. Local authorities were required, in extension of the duties placed on them under the Public Health Acts, to secure piped wholesome water in every part of their districts where there were houses or schools, unless it was impracticable to do so at reasonable cost.

In the years between the passing of the Water Act and 1958, 260 smaller water authorities in England and Wales were absorbed by larger authorities or by the creation of joint boards. The principal object of such amalgamation is the constitution of more efficient units in the water supply industry, and efforts to reduce the number have recently been intensified.

In March 1958, there were, in England and Wales, 863 local authority water undertakings, 63 joint water boards (including bulk supply boards) and 13 joint water committees, 83 statutory water companies, 21 non-statutory water companies, and 3 private proprietors with statutory powers. A considerable number of private proprietors without statutory powers also provide small supplies. Water undertakings vary greatly in size; about half the population is served by the 55 largest undertakings, and the other half by nearly 1,000 smaller ones.

The *Metropolitan Water Board*, which is probably the largest single water undertaking in the world, supplies about 335 million gallons daily to about 6.5 million people in the London area. The Board was established in 1903, and in the following year took over the undertakings of eight water companies which were supplying the London area. It now consists of 88 part-time members who are the elected representatives of the various local authorities within the Board's area of operations, together with one representative each from the Thames and Lee Conservancies. The chairman and vice-chairman are chosen by members of the Board.

Present Supplies in England and Wales

Today, piped water supplies reach some 97 per cent of the total population of England and Wales. More than 90 per cent of households in rural areas have piped water supplies or are within easy reach of water mains.

About £20 million a year is spent on capital development, financed mainly by loans, the interest on which, together with running costs, is paid by the water undertakings from annual income. This income is derived from local water rates levied on domestic consumers and from charges for supplies as recorded by meter in the

case of most industrial users. In addition to supplies from water undertakings, large quantities of water are taken by industry from rivers or underground sources.

The provision of piped supplies for rural districts has been assisted by grants under the Rural Water Supplies Act, 1934, and under the Rural Water Supplies and Sewerage Acts, 1944 to 1955. By March 1958, schemes costing £68 million had been completed or were in progress with the aid of grants under these Acts.

The steady growth of towns in England and Wales has meant increased demands for water, and in so far as such growth involves covering the ground with impervious material, so that water which previously would have percolated through to underground natural reservoirs is now carried off in drains and rivers, some diminution in water supplies may result. On the other hand, improved methods of purification in recent years have resulted in greater use being made of water drawn from the lower reaches of rivers.

Water Supply in Scotland and Northern Ireland

In Scotland, public water undertakings are carried on entirely by local authorities, either separately or in combination with each other; they supply over 95 per cent of the total population. The water problem in Scotland is broadly similar to that in England and Wales save that less reliance needs to be placed on underground sources. Scotland has separate legislation. The Water (Scotland) Acts, 1946 and 1949, among other provisions, impose a general duty on the Secretary of State to promote the conservation of water resources in Scotland; require local authorities to provide supplies of wholesome water everywhere in their districts, where this can be done at reasonable cost; and provide for a uniform system of rating for water throughout the country. The Rural Water Supplies and Sewerage Acts, 1944 to 1955, make available to Scottish local authorities grant assistance up to a maximum of £30 million towards the cost of water supplies and sewerage schemes in rural areas. By December 1957, water schemes for rural areas costing £11.1 million had been completed with the aid of such grants, and schemes worth £11.8 million were in progress.

Northern Ireland has abundant supplies of water. The Water Supplies and Sewerage Act (Northern Ireland), 1945, in addition to making provision for the payment of Government grants to all water supply authorities, places upon them statutory obligations with regard to the supply of water to houses and schools. Since 1945, a piped water supply has been, or is being, provided for every town, and in rural areas piped water supplies are being extended. Progress has been very rapid, and at 30th September, 1957, £17.5 million had been expended, towards which grants of £7.5 million had been made available.

River Management

The 32 River Boards set up under the River Boards Act, 1948, carry out the functions and co-ordinate the various aspects of river management in England and Wales previously performed by a large number of separate authorities.

Each River Board covers a River Board Area. The River Board Areas together comprise the whole of England and Wales, except the Thames and Lee Catchment Areas (which are under the jurisdiction of the Thames and Lee Conservancy Boards¹ respectively), the administrative County of London, and areas adjoining that county not included in any catchment area.

¹ The Thames and Lee Conservancy Boards are similar in constitution and powers to the River Boards; because London draws most of its water supplies from these two rivers, however, they have long been regulated under powers granted by Acts of Parliament of purely local application.

River Boards are composite bodies representing local government, agricultural and fishery interests, and most of their expenses are apportioned among the councils of the counties or county boroughs concerned, in proportion to the rateable values of property in the River Board Area.

River management in Scotland and Northern Ireland has not been concentrated to the same extent.

It is an offence for any person to permit any polluting matter, solid or liquid, to enter a river. The Rivers (Prevention of Pollution) Act, 1951, revised and strengthened previous legislation for the prevention of river pollution in England and Wales. Enforcement of the Act is vested in the River Boards, the Thames and Lee Conservators, and, in London and adjacent areas, in the councils of the metropolitan boroughs, counties, and county boroughs concerned. There is a similar Act for Scotland under which nine River Purification Boards have been set up to promote the cleanliness of the rivers in their areas.

Measurement of Water Resources

Information on the yield, behaviour and quantity of the nation's surface water resources is provided in the *Surface Water Year Book of Great Britain*, published annually by H.M. Stationery Office. This publication contains particulars of the run-off and related rainfall from a large number of rivers, streams and reservoir areas. The Surface Water Survey Centre of the Ministry of Housing and Local Government is responsible for the promotion of gauging, the collection of hydrological information, and the publication of the Year Book. The field work of surface water measurement is carried out by river boards, water undertakings and other bodies. General information as to rainfall, published annually in *British Rainfall*, is the responsibility of the Meteorological Office, while the subject of ground water comes under the Geological Survey and Museum. In special cases the Hydraulics Research Station of the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research carries out research into problems of the design and calibration of gauging weirs and flumes for the measurement of surface water. A close liaison is maintained between these organisations.

Water Pollution Research

The Water Pollution Research Laboratory of the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research is engaged in investigating problems connected with the treatment of water for domestic and industrial supply, the treatment and disposal of sewage and industrial waste water, and the effects and prevention of pollution of surface water and underground water. The Laboratory maintains close contact with other interested Government Departments, with municipal and other public authorities and with industry. Research is carried out with general supervision and advice from the Water Pollution Research Board of the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research. The Board was set up in 1927 and its members are appointed by the Lord President of the Council.

BUILDING AND CONTRACTING

The building and contracting industry is concerned primarily with the construction and repair of houses, hospitals, schools, shops and factories, and with civil engineering works such as bridges, docks, harbours, railways, airports, power stations, hydro-electric schemes, irrigation systems and atomic energy establishments. In all, the industry employs some 1,400,000 persons (including 50,000 women) and provides about 6 per cent of the gross domestic output of goods and services. It also makes an important contribution to overseas development.

Structure

Over four-fifths of the industry is in the hands of private concerns. The typical firm is small or medium-sized. Over 30 per cent of the firms in the industry are one-man businesses engaged in such trades as house painting or plumbing, and nearly 60 per cent employ fewer than nineteen persons. At the other end of the scale there are fewer than a dozen firms of building and civil engineering contractors, each employing more than 5,000 persons on its permanent staff. Some of these are integrated concerns owning quarries as well as workshops, extensive stocks of mechanical plant, and the standard stores and tackle of builders' yards: they also undertake large-scale constructional contracts overseas.

There are also about 200 United Kingdom firms of consulting engineers which undertake detailed investigations of constructional projects, report on the type of work recommended and materials required, provide estimates of the time and cost of construction, obtain competitive tenders from contracting firms and supervise the carrying out of the work by the contractor.

In addition, there are hundreds of firms of architects and quantity surveyors which are concerned with the design, planning and costing of building and civil engineering projects.

The building and civil engineering industries participate in industrial groups which undertake large-scale constructional work, such as the building of nuclear power stations (see pp. 296-7).

Value of Output

The value of the annual output of the industry has been rising fairly steadily since 1945, and the total for Great Britain in 1957 is estimated to amount to £2,144 million. Of this total, £354 million represented building work carried out by the staffs employed directly by the public authorities (including Government Departments, local authorities and certain public utilities), while the balance of £1,790 million represented the output of private firms (new work, £1,387 million, and other work, £403 million).

Housing Construction

In the post-war period most new houses in Britain have been built by private firms working under contract to local authorities, but the proportion built by private firms for private owners has increased appreciably since 1951. About 15 per cent of local authorities employ direct labour in housing construction, while about 64 per cent use their own labour for repair and maintenance. In 1957, the value of new housing built in Great Britain by private firms was £553 million, of which £246 million was for private owners and £307 million for public authorities.

Between 1945 and 1957, over 2,900,000 new permanent houses and other dwellings and some 160,000 temporary houses were built in the United Kingdom.

Prefabricated Buildings

Prefabrication is generally taken to mean factory production of most of the component parts of buildings for transport to, and rapid erection on, a site. Techniques of prefabrication have been developed in Britain over a period of at least 150 years. A notable early example was the Crystal Palace, originally erected in Hyde Park, London, from component parts made in Birmingham, for the Great Exhibition of 1851.

Considerable advances in technology were made during the second world war when greater use was made of lightweight materials, including aluminium alloys,

light strip steel and asbestos cement panels. In the earlier post-war years, prefabrication techniques were used extensively in the construction of temporary houses, 156,000 of which were provided up to 1949 by the Ministry of Works for erection on sites made available by local authorities. These new techniques are also used in the construction of permanent houses, and are being developed and applied in the building of schools, hospitals, offices and shops.

The industry has made useful contributions to the post-war need for houses and other forms of accommodation overseas. In 1957, exports of prefabricated buildings were valued at £3.3 million.

Civil Engineering and Industrial Building

Britain was the first country to develop civil engineering as a large-scale modern industry and the first to provide techniques, finance and equipment to carry out major civil engineering projects throughout the world. Prominent figures in the early development of civil engineering included: James Brindley (1716-1772), builder of canals; John Loudon McAdam (1756-1836), pioneer in road construction; Thomas Telford (1757-1834), builder of roads, docks and bridges; and George Stephenson (1781-1848), Robert Stephenson (1803-1859), Joseph Locke (1805-1860), Isambard Kingdom Brunel (1806-1859) and Thomas Brassey (1805-1870), builders of railways.

Within the United Kingdom the industry has been occupied since the war with large-scale reconstruction and development schemes. These have included work on the repair, modernisation and electrification of railways, road and dock development schemes, airports, sea defence works, thermo-electric and hydro-electric power stations, improved water supplies, and drainage and sewerage systems.

In 1958, the civil engineering programme of work under way within the United Kingdom included: £140 million on work for the National Coal Board; £300 million for the British Transport Commission for railways; and over £50 million for the Central Electricity Generating Board; work estimated at £10 million on the Forth Bridge; £5 million on the Whiteinch Tunnel, under the river Clyde at Glasgow; £10 million on the Dartford Tunnel under the Thames, linking Kent and Essex; £20 million on steelworks; £5 million on docks and harbours; £10 million on hydro-electric works; and £10 million on oil refineries.

In Great Britain since the war, more than 16,000 industrial buildings of over 5,000 sq. ft. (with a total area of over 350 million sq. ft.) and many smaller factories have been erected.

Overseas Constructional Work

Constructional work carried out overseas by British firms has included railways in most parts of the world; large-scale irrigation works in India, Pakistan, Egypt and Greece; and canals, roads, docks, harbours, power stations, airfields, hydro-electric schemes and industrial and housing estates in several countries. British conditions of contract for international civil engineering work have been widely adopted as standard throughout the world.

Examples of more recent contracts include: hydro-electric schemes at Owen Falls (Uganda), and Hirfanli (Turkey); dock extensions at Calcutta and Bombay (India); major harbour works at Takoradi and Tema (Ghana), and Aden; a new port at Salaverry (Peru); thermal power stations at Pretoria and Johannesburg (South Africa); a geothermal power station at Wairakei (New Zealand); dry docks at Karachi (Pakistan); houses, airfields, roads and bridges in Iraq; modernisation of the trunk road system in Iran; 14-storey blocks of flats in Toronto (Canada) and

large-scale industrial estate development in Annacis Island (Canada); a new engineering college in Rangoon (Burma); the Auckland harbour bridge (New Zealand); and the Adomi bridge across the river Volta (Ghana).

It has been estimated that the value of work done during the year ended March 1958 by some 62 principal British building and civil engineering firms, operating in some 50 countries, was over £114 million, compared with £102 million in the previous year; and the value of contracts obtained rose from £92 million in 1956-57 to £119 million in 1957-58. Most of the work done was in the sterling area, but the share of work done in the dollar area remained at 20 per cent as in 1956-57.

Among the major projects on which British consulting engineers have been engaged in recent years are the hydro-electric scheme at Kariba and the power development, irrigation and flood control project in Shire Valley (Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland).

Research and Development

Research into various aspects of civil engineering is undertaken by the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research (DSIR), the Admiralty, various universities and technical colleges, and by individual firms and trade associations.

The civil engineering research work of DSIR is carried out through several research laboratories, including the National Physical Laboratory, the Building Research Station, the Road Research Laboratory, the Forest Products Research Laboratory, the Geological Survey and Museum, the Water Pollution Research Laboratory, the Fire Research Station and the Hydraulics Research Station.

One notable example of this work is the research conducted during the past twenty years on concrete manufacture by the Building Research Station and the Road Research Laboratory in conjunction with United Kingdom universities and the Cement and Concrete Association. Another is the research carried out at the National Physical Laboratory into the effect of wind-pressure on bridges. This work has been in progress since 1946, with the aid of wind-tunnels for the scale models, and led to the discovery of two types of aerodynamic instability—an up and down motion of the whole platform and oscillations of a twisting character. Methods were evolved to modify or eliminate this instability. At the Imperial College of Science and Technology, London, important research has been carried out to discover the manner in which waves exert shock pressure on walls—a matter of considerable importance to civil engineers, especially for maritime structures.

The principal professional body in the civil engineering industry is the Institution of Civil Engineers, incorporated in 1828 by Royal Charter.

Some major advances in technology and materials have been made in recent years, for example, in the mechanisation of earth excavating and site clearance, the development of mobile hoists, improvements in road-making techniques, new methods of welding, the introduction of unit construction processes for bridge building, and progress in concrete mixing and prefabrication.

MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES

The United Kingdom's manufacturing industries provide an exceedingly wide range of products many of which play a major role in world trade. In terms of net output and exports the most important groups of industries are those concerned with the manufacture of metals and metal products, though the textile and chemical industries are also of considerable significance. Some impression of the relative importance of the different groups in terms of net output is given in Table 22, which is based on the results of the Census of Production for 1954 and the provisional results for 1956.

TABLE 22

NET OUTPUT OF INDUSTRY GROUPS IN 1954 AND 1956

	1954	1956 (a)	
	£ million	£ million	Percentage of total
Metal manufacture	519.4	655.1	9.1
Shipbuilding, engineering and electrical goods	1,467.7	1,737.9	24.2
Vehicles	707.7	804.7	11.2
Miscellaneous metal products	337.3	405.7	5.7
Chemicals and allied trades	528.9	612.5	8.5
Textiles and clothing	915.7	935.4	13.0
Food, drink and tobacco	594.4	668.8	9.4
Other manufacturing industries	1,205.1	1,351.1	18.9
TOTALS	6,276.2	7,171.2	100.0

Source: *Board of Trade Journal*.

(a) Provisional figures.

An important feature in the expansion of United Kingdom exports since the second world war has been the development of new types of commodities to meet changing needs. In some cases, the industries concerned are based on inventions or discoveries made during or after the war; in others, the basic research had been done before the war, but production on a commercial scale was not undertaken until later. Gas-turbine aircraft, radar and man-made fibres are outstanding examples of the products of these new industries.

METAL MANUFACTURE

The metal manufacturing industries employed 585,000 persons in 1957. Nearly four-fifths of these were engaged in the iron and steel industry.

Iron and Steel

Britain pioneered the application of coal to the smelting of iron ore from the seventeenth century onwards and British inventors were responsible for the series of discoveries which led to the great expansion of steelmaking in the second half of the nineteenth century. Today, Britain is one of the world's four largest producers of steel and is renowned for the quality of its special and alloy steels. Production of crude steel, which in 1946 totalled 12.7 million ingot tons, rose to 21.7 million ingot tons in 1957, and capacity is available to produce about 23.5 million ingot tons in 1958. Pig iron production has risen from 7.8 million tons in 1946 to 14.3 million tons in 1957. In 1957, direct exports of iron and steel amounted to 3.9 million ingot tons valued at £213 million, in addition to indirect exports, estimated in 1957 to amount to the equivalent of 4.4 million ingot tons, in the form of sales by the steel-consuming industries; exports of the machinery, shipbuilding and vehicle industries, which are major consumers of steel, amounted to about £925 million in 1957.

South Wales and the north-east coast of England are the United Kingdom's two largest steel-producing areas, together responsible for an annual crude steel production of nearly 9.5 million ingot tons, or more than 40 per cent of the total output. South Wales is engaged mainly in the production of flat products, and is especially noted for tinplate. In the north-east coast area of England, production is concentrated on heavy sections and rails, and plates for the shipbuilding industry. Scotland, with an annual production of 2.5 million ingot tons, finds its chief internal markets in the shipbuilding and engineering industries of the Clyde valley. Sheffield is known throughout the world for its special alloy steels. Britain possesses some of the most up-to-date steel plants in Europe; for example, the £18 million universal beam mill near Middlesbrough, in the north-east of Yorkshire, for the production of structural steel which came into operation in 1958, the new steelworks at Ravenscraig near Motherwell, Scotland, completed in 1957 at a cost of £22.5 million, and the integrated strip mill at Margam in South Wales.

The iron and steel industry has been subject to some form of public supervision since 1932, when a Government-appointed body, the Import Duties Advisory Committee, gave special attention to the reorganisation of the industry. In February 1951, the greater part of the industry came under public ownership by virtue of the Iron and Steel Act, 1949. The 1949 Act was repealed by the Iron and Steel Act, 1953, which established an Iron and Steel Holding and Realisation Agency with the duty of returning the companies to private ownership. By September 1957, there remained 16 companies, of which two are major companies, in which the Agency had direct holdings, representing about one-sixth of the total steel production of the United Kingdom.

The 1953 Act also provided for the establishment of the Iron and Steel Board to exercise a general supervision over the iron and steel industry with a view to promoting, under competitive conditions, the efficient, economic and adequate supply of iron and steel products. The Board is responsible to the Minister of Power and includes, in addition to the chairman and two other full-time members, a number of part-time members drawn from steel producers, steel consumers and trade unions.

Since 1945, modernisation and development on a large scale have been undertaken. It is planned to raise productive capacity for crude steel to nearly 28 million tons by 1963, of which 5 million tons are expected to be required for exports. Plans in hand for expansion and further modernisation of the industry, ranging from iron ore mining to finishing capacity, are estimated to cost £600 million. The industry plans to increase its consumption of home ore from nearly 17 million tons in 1957 to 22 million tons by 1962, and that of foreign ores from nearly 16 million tons to between 22 and 24 million tons.

About 460,000 people were employed in 1957 in those industries classified as iron and steel manufacture. Of these, 238,000 were engaged in iron and steel smelting and rolling, 23,000 in blast furnaces and 118,000 in iron foundries.

Non-ferrous Metals

The non-ferrous metals industry in Britain, employing about 120,000 persons, is the largest in Europe and contributes about £150 million to the net national output.

Nowadays the mining in Britain of non-ferrous ores is confined to the working of lead, zinc, tin and tungsten ores on a small scale. However, the United Kingdom is a large consumer of non-ferrous metals, being second only to the United States among Western countries in its consumption of aluminium, copper, lead, tin and zinc. The industry consists of factories for smelting, casting and fabrication by

rolling, extrusion and drawing of these metals and of nickel and magnesium. The techniques of powder metallurgy and pressure diecasting are also employed where appropriate. Some of the non-ferrous metals such as nickel, molybdenum and tungsten are largely used in steel alloys. New uses for non-ferrous metals with special properties have emerged with the growth of new industries having their own particular requirements, as, for example, production of nuclear energy (uranium, zirconium), jet aircraft (niobium, magnesium, titanium) and electronic apparatus (selenium, tungsten, germanium).

In 1957, direct exports of non-ferrous base metals (including semi-fabricated products) were valued at £96 million, of which copper and its alloys accounted for £54 million and aluminium and its alloys for £16 million. In addition, there was a further substantial export of non-ferrous metals in many fabricated forms.

SHIPBUILDING AND MARINE ENGINEERING

Britain has for centuries been one of the most important shipbuilding countries. Modern shipbuilding dates from the middle of the nineteenth century, when the iron and steam-driven vessel replaced the earlier sailing ship. Britain led the way in the substitution of steel for iron and in the development of the steam turbine. Between 1890 and 1913 Britain produced more than half the world's new tonnage, and in 1920 launched over two million tons, still the peace-time record for the industry. In the inter-war years the problem of surplus capacity, common to all shipbuilding countries, caused a substantial fall in activity and periodic heavy unemployment. During the second world war the industry was fully occupied in building and repairing warships and merchant ships of all kinds, and a high level of activity in the building and repair of merchant ships has been maintained since 1945.

Shipbuilding is mainly an assembly trade, and Britain's economy is well equipped to meet this demand, with a highly developed iron and steel industry to provide plates and sections, a modern marine engineering industry, and a widely diversified pattern of general industry to supply the numerous components that go to the making of a ship.

Well over three-quarters of the tonnage of ships built in the United Kingdom comes from four areas:

1. On the river Clyde in Scotland (where the *Queen Mary* and *Queen Elizabeth*, the world's largest ships, were built in the inter-war years).
2. On the north-east coast of England—along the lower reaches of the rivers Tyne, Wear and Tees, and at West Hartlepool, and Blyth.
3. On the north-west coast of England—on the river Mersey and at Barrow-in-Furness.
4. At Belfast, in Northern Ireland, where the largest individual shipyard is situated. A 45,000-ton luxury liner of revolutionary design, the *Canberra*, the largest passenger vessel to be built in Britain since the *Queen Elizabeth*, is under construction at Belfast for the P. and O. Company.

In each of these areas there is capacity for building warships and all types of merchant ships from large passenger liners and tankers to small sea-going ships such as coasters and cross-Channel steamers. Ships are also built in the Southampton area, in the Isle of Wight, and along the estuaries of the rivers Forth and Tay, in Scotland, while numerous places along the coast build fishing vessels, yachts, harbour craft and barges. Repair yards and dry docks are situated in all the great ports and there are extensive repair facilities in all the shipbuilding areas.

Between 1945 and 1957, British shipyards launched over 15 million tons of shipping, including 4 million tons for foreign owners.

Output has been held back on account of shortages of steel, skilled labour and components, and launchings in 1957, at 1.4 million gross tons, represented about three-quarters of full capacity; 38 per cent of the ships launched in 1957 were oil tankers and about 19 per cent were for overseas. The value of exports of ships and boats in 1957 totalled £79 million. Orders held by United Kingdom shipyards at the end of 1957 amounted to 6.75 million gross tons with an estimated value of £1,000 million; 2.3 million gross tons were under construction. British yards are building 11 of the 18 passenger liners on order in the world.

In 1957 there were about 230,000 employees in the shipbuilding and ship-repairing industries, including those employed in naval dockyards.

Over the past fifteen years, traditional methods of shipbuilding have undergone radical changes, primarily due to advances in welding technique. These have led to the production of ships in large units, 50 to 60 tons in weight, prefabricated under cover and rapidly assembled for launching. The industry is spending large sums on the modernisation and mechanisation of yards; £50 million was invested in the period 1946-57 and it is planned to spend about £70 million in the following five years, including the cost of constructing berths for the building of tankers of up to 100,000 gross tons.

The British Shipbuilding Research Association (BSRA) and the Parsons and Marine Engineering Turbine Research and Development Association (Pametrada) are developing gas turbines and improving the efficiency of diesel and steam units. The Admiralty, the BSRA, the Atomic Energy Authority and private firms are working on plans for the use of nuclear reactors for propulsion of merchant ships, especially large tankers.

MECHANICAL ENGINEERING

Mechanical engineering comprises a vast range of products including agricultural machinery, boilers and boilerhouse plant, machine tools, stationary engines, textile machinery and accessories, ordnance and small arms, fabricated steelwork, office machinery, cranes, conveyors and many other kinds of mechanical handling plant. The total number of persons employed in mechanical engineering in 1957 was about 1,142,000, and the value of exports in 1957 exceeded £500 million.

Agricultural Machinery

The agricultural machinery industry employs about 50,000 people and, in 1957, its annual output, including both machinery and tractors, was valued at about £150 million. In the same year, its production included 185,000 tractors (compared with a previous record of 175,000 in 1955), 29,000 mouldboard ploughs, 8,800 disc harrows, 18,500 mowers, 6,800 combine harvesters, and 8,200 milking machines. Britain, where production dates virtually from 1933, has the largest annual output of tractors in Europe and the second largest in the world; it exports the greater proportion of its output and is the largest exporter of tractors in the world. At Coventry and Dagenham it has two of the most up-to-date manufacturing plants.

Exports of agricultural machinery in 1957 reached the record level of nearly £72 million, made up of £54.6 million for agricultural tractors (but excluding £4.5 million for track-laying tractors) and £17.1 million for other equipment; 113,000 tractors were shipped abroad, nearly half to Commonwealth countries overseas. In 1947, exports of tractors amounted to £5.2 million, and those of other agricultural machinery to £4.5 million.

Metal-Working Machine Tools

The efficiency of a nation's manufacturing industries depends to a very large extent on the vitality of its machine tool industry. Britain was the birthplace of the machine tool industry, and by the early 1830s had developed to an advanced stage the boring machine and screw cutting lathe, as well as other machine tools. The industry's output now ranges from transfer lines for motor vehicle manufacture to electronically controlled machine tools giving accuracies of one ten-thousandth part of an inch.

The 20 largest firms together account for about half the output, but the majority of the 350 firms in the industry are relatively small and show a high degree of specialisation adapted to the differing needs of a varied range of users. About 50,000 workers are employed. The industry is centred mainly in the Midlands, Yorkshire and Lancashire, and to a lesser extent near London and Glasgow. The Machine Tool Trades Association of Great Britain is the representative body of most of the machine tool manufacturers and importers and is responsible for the International Machine Tool Exhibitions held in Britain every four years; the next exhibition is due to take place in 1960.

The value of deliveries of metal-working machine tools has risen from £6 million in 1935 to £85 million in 1956 and to £95 million in 1957. Deliveries for export in 1957 amounted to £24.5 million, while orders on hand at the end of 1957 totalled nearly £80 million, of which nearly one-quarter were for export.

Substantial expenditures on plant and buildings have been made in recent years; it is estimated that the value of the capital employed in the industry trebled between 1948 and 1957, and about £9 million will be spent on research and development in the three years ending in 1960.

Industrial Engines

United Kingdom manufacturers have a world-wide reputation for small marine and industrial internal combustion engines. The number delivered, including small marine engines, has risen from about 250,000 in 1948 to the record level of 430,000 in 1955, falling back to 360,000 in 1957. In the latter year, the value of output amounted to nearly £49 million, of which about £20 million was for export. Production of parts and accessories accounted for a further £15 million.

Textile Machinery

One of the oldest of Britain's mechanical engineering industries is the textile machinery industry which developed rapidly after the introduction of mechanical spinning and weaving towards the end of the eighteenth century. The industry now gives employment to about 58,000 people and comprises about 450 firms, situated largely in Lancashire, Yorkshire, Northern Ireland, Dundee, Leicester and Nottingham, making every kind of machine and accessory for the manufacture and processing of yarns and fabrics from all types of natural and man-made fibres, including bast and leaf fibre machinery of which the United Kingdom is still by far the world's largest supplier.

The industry enjoys a world-wide reputation, not only for the high quality of its products but also because it offers a complete and modern range of equipment consisting of: spinning machinery, including machinery for all the preparatory processes; winding machinery and machinery for other processes prior to weaving; weaving machinery; knitting, hosiery and lace machinery; printing, dyeing and other finishing machinery; and all types of mill stores and textile machinery accessories. In 1957, exports were valued at £43 million, or about two-thirds of total deliveries.

To maintain its place in the forefront of world suppliers of textile machinery, the research and design departments of the industry are continuously engaged in research into new and improved methods of textile processing, and in the development of machines to speed up production and to improve the quality of an ever increasing variety of yarns and fabrics.

Contractors' Plant and Quarrying Machinery

Production of contractors' plant in the United Kingdom before the war was mainly concerned with small excavators, concrete mixing machinery and road surfacing plant, including road rollers. But now many new machines, especially machinery for earth-moving, are in production. Examples are industrial crawler tractors, motor graders, scrapers, trenchers, dozer equipment, dumpers, rippers and rooters.

Whereas output in 1935 was valued at only £2 million, in 1957 it reached nearly £80 million, of which half was for export. Increased exports have been mainly in the form of earth-moving machinery, road rollers, and crushing and screening plant.

Office Machinery

The United Kingdom office machinery industry is now second in size only to that of the United States, and since 1946 has expanded at a remarkable rate. In 1957, the value of deliveries of office machinery (such as accounting and similar machinery—excluding electronic computers—typewriters, and dictating machines) was nearly £49 million, of which £19 million worth was exported, including more than £3 million worth to dollar markets. British typewriters to the value of £1.4 million were exported to North America. The industry, in association with the electronics industry, is developing the manufacture of electronic computers on a considerable scale.

Refrigeration Machinery

The United Kingdom industry makes a wide range of equipment and appliances extending from refrigerators of varying sizes suitable for domestic and commercial use, to industrial refrigeration equipment for cold stores, manufacture of chemicals and other products, ice-making plant and refrigeration plant for ships. Production of commercial and industrial refrigeration machinery was well established before the second world war, but the present large production of domestic refrigerators has been built up since 1946.

The value of the annual deliveries of refrigeration machinery in 1957 totalled over £34 million compared with £24 million in 1953. Deliveries for export totalled £13 million, or some 40 per cent of output.

Industrial Valves

Industrial valves controlling the movement of liquids and gases are a vital component in many industrial processes, particularly in the chemicals, oil and electric power industries. About 90 per cent of the United Kingdom production, in 1957 worth about £37 million, is made by 63 firms. Chief centres of production are the Midlands, Glasgow and the north of England, and some 15,000 persons are employed in this branch of the engineering industry.

The value of deliveries for export more than doubled between 1949 and 1957, when they were valued at £12 million or about one-third of total deliveries. The United Kingdom ranks second to the United States in world exports of industrial valves, and accounts for about one-fifth of the total.

Boilers and Boilerhouse Plant

Boilers and boilerhouse plant manufactured in the United Kingdom have many industrial applications. Water tube boilers of advanced design and large steam-raising capacity are produced by the industry for home power stations and for export. Firms in the industry are members of the groups formed for the purpose of building nuclear power stations, both in the United Kingdom and overseas.

In 1957, deliveries of shell boilers, used for steam raising and heating purposes in factories and in buildings, were valued at £11 million, of which nearly £2 million worth was for export.

The total number of persons employed in the manufacture of boilers and boilerhouse plant in 1957 was about 33,000. The value of the industry's exports in 1957 was £16.4 million, including £7.9 million for water tube boilers.

Items of steam-raising plant accessories produced include plain and corrugated boiler furnaces, forced draught boiler furnaces and grates, stokers, fuel economisers and preheaters, superheaters and desuperheaters, pulverisers, coal and ash handling plant, soot blower equipment, steam pipework, and feed water heaters. The value of deliveries of these products in 1957 was about £18 million, of which some 16 per cent was for export.

Nuclear Power Station Plant

The design and construction of nuclear power stations is one of the outstanding present-day enterprises of British industry. Five major groups of firms have been formed for this purpose, consisting of leading firms in the heavy electrical engineering, civil engineering, boiler, instrument, and associated industries. In addition to the nuclear power stations being built for the United Kingdom electricity authorities, these groups are undertaking the first export orders for such stations, including one to be built in Italy. Design teams from the companies concerned have been trained by the United Kingdom Atomic Energy Authority (UKAEA) in the design of gas-cooled graphite-moderated reactors, and the Authority grants them non-exclusive manufacturing licences and keeps them informed of the results of further research and development work. Industrial firms themselves are also engaged on research into a range of problems relating to nuclear energy.

Other concerns have also joined together to carry out research into nuclear developments and to supply nuclear power plant. Two have arrangements with United States firms to supply 'package' type reactors designed to serve less developed countries. Others, in collaboration with the UKAEA, are studying further possible applications of nuclear power, for example marine propulsion. Companies have also been established for the manufacture, machining and preparation of graphite for use in reactors. The services of United Kingdom firms of consulting engineers are being utilised for specification planning, inspection and advice.

The Nuclear Energy Trade Associations' Conference (NETAC) was formed towards the end of 1956 to establish a permanent means of liaison and to pool more effectively the experience of nuclear development among the firms and trade associations concerned.

Steelworks Plant

As a major steel-producing country, Britain has an expanding industry for the manufacture of steelworks plant. Up to 1939, production fell considerably short of internal requirements. The post-war modernisation and expansion of the United Kingdom steel industry have led to the rapid development of the steelworks plant industry, which today provides about nine-tenths of the requirements of the

home steel industry and can supply complete plant as efficient and economical in operation as any in the world.

Some 40 firms produce equipment for making steel in all its stages. In 1945, six of these firms, together capable of supplying the entire range of steel-making plant, formed the Metallurgical Equipment Export Company Limited (MEECO) to co-ordinate export operations and to facilitate the placing of foreign orders in the United Kingdom for complete steelworks. This group of firms has carried out a number of large contracts for equipping steelworks in Sweden, Norway, Spain and France, and, in conjunction with other manufacturers, in India.

Deliveries of rolling mills and other specialised plant amounted, in 1957, to a value of £22 million, of which nearly £7 million worth was for export.

Petroleum Equipment

Before the second world war, the production of specialised equipment for the oil industry was on a small scale, but the rapid expansion in oil production and refining throughout the world has given rise to a substantial export business in British fittings and plant. In 1957, British firms received orders for oil equipment and materials (excluding tankers) for the home and export market to the value of about £134 million; these included orders for tubes, pipe-fittings and valves (£23 million), specialised drilling and production equipment (£19.7 million), tools and machinery (£11.3 million) and electrical equipment (£8.5 million). Britain ranks second to the United States as a supplier of equipment for the petroleum industry.

Scientific, Surgical and Photographic Instruments

Scientific instruments have been made commercially in Britain for over three centuries, early products being chiefly navigational and optical instruments. The last twenty years have brought a large-scale expansion of capacity in every branch of the industry to meet the needs of the defence services during the war and, later, the expanding world demand for all types of instruments (optical, mechanical, pneumatic, electrical, electronic and nucleonic), for both pure and applied science. The sector which is expanding most rapidly is that making industrial instruments—an essential element in the movement towards full automation in industry. British scientific instrument manufacturers can supply all types of instrumentation for research, and any form of control or automatic device.

The instruments industry, with its very wide range of products, employs about 94,000 workers, and the turnover in 1957 was about £140 million. The value of exports in that year approached £40 million, and, in addition, considerable quantities of instruments were exported as part of plant and equipment.

Clocks and Watches

Britain was at one time the world's leading producer of clocks and watches, but, by the end of the nineteenth century, production had virtually died out. The present industry is largely a post-war development. It employs about 15,000 people, the great majority skilled craftsmen, and many of the factories are located in the Development Areas. In 1957, 9 million clocks, watches and time switches, including 2.5 million watches and 4 million mechanical alarm clocks, were produced, with a total value of £11.5 million. Exports were valued at about £2 million.

ELECTRICAL ENGINEERING

The United Kingdom electrical engineering industry is engaged in the manufacture and installation of a wide variety of electrical equipment, ranging from giant generators to domestic appliances and the smallest components of radio sets.

The total value of its output has risen from about £155 million in 1938 to nearly £1,300 million in 1957. It exports large quantities of power station equipment and other electrical machinery and appliances to all parts of the world. In terms of monetary value it is one of the two largest exporters of electrical goods in the world, and sends overseas about a quarter of the value of its output, as compared with less than one-eighth in the immediate pre-war period. The value of exports in 1957 reached the record level of £279 million, as compared with £272.5 million in 1956. In the four years, 1954-57, the value of the industry's exports approached £1,000 million, more than one-sixth going to European countries.

Altogether the industry employs a labour force of more than 720,000, including 205,000 engaged in the manufacture of electrical machinery, 134,000 in the production of radio and other electronic equipment and gramophones, and 49,000 in wireless valves and electric lamps.

Heavy Electrical Plant

British scientists and engineers have been responsible for many of the basic advances in the generation and transmission of electricity power. The experiments of Michael Faraday pointed the way to the production of electricity as a source of cheap and abundant power; Sir Charles Parsons produced and patented the first turbo-dynamo, the forerunner of the giant turbo-generating sets of today. The industry has provided the plant required for the large-scale post-war expansion programme of the United Kingdom electricity authorities, and has built all types of equipment for overseas countries, including the United States. In order to meet the growing volume of orders, extensions to capacity have been carried out by the principal manufacturers. Among the orders on hand are a 275,000 kilowatt (kW) generating set for commissioning in 1962 and one of 550,000 kW for 1963. In 1957, steam turbo-alternators of 10,000 kW and over with a total capacity of 2.5 million kW were delivered, including 0.83 million kW for export; it was also a record year for deliveries of hydraulic turbines with a total capacity of over 800,000 b.h.p., five-sixths of which was for export. Exports in 1957 included £35.2 million worth of generating sets, generators and motors and £31 million worth of transformers, switchgear and other electrical plant.

Electronics

Production of electronic equipment is one of the most rapidly expanding of Britain's industries. United Kingdom scientists and inventors have made many basic contributions to electronics—the thermionic valve, the development of radar (a British firm has equipped one-third of the world's ocean-going tonnage with radar), the first public transmission television service, and the 'printed circuit' which has led to far-reaching changes in methods of production in the radio industry. Since 1945, the industry has been doubling its volume of output every five years, and its range of activities extends from consumer articles, such as television and radio sets, to complex industrial equipment including nucleonic control and writing instruments and data processing machines.

About 200,000 people are employed in the industry, and the value of its output was estimated at about £300 million in 1957. In that year, production included 1,750 million electronic components, 1.87 million television sets and 2.1 million radio sets and radiograms.

Exports reached the record level of £43.6 million in 1957, with exports of capital equipment (for example, marine and air navigation aids) tending to expand faster than consumer products. The value of exports of sound-reproducing equipment,

about £10 million in 1957, has increased by two-thirds since 1955. The largest market is the United States.

Electric Wires and Cables

This industry is concerned with the manufacture of cables and wires (including submarine cables) for the distribution of electric power, for the telephone and telegraph network and for many other purposes.

In 1957, workers employed in the industry totalled 65,000. The value of deliveries of insulated wire and cable, excluding winding wire, rose from £95 million in 1954 to £124 million in 1957, and the value of deliveries for export over the same period increased by more than 50 per cent to over £36 million.

Domestic Electrical Appliances

There are some 200 firms in the United Kingdom manufacturing a wide range of electrical appliances for use in the home. In 1957, deliveries included washing machines (667,000, including 185,000 for export), vacuum cleaners (1,245,000, including 254,000 for export), toasters (298,000, including 104,000 for export), dry-shavers (1,484,000, including 473,000 for export), cookers (318,000, including 28,100 for export) and irons (2,424,000, including 672,000 for export). The annual output is valued at approximately £70 million, of which about £20 million is exported.

VEHICLES

Of the engineering and allied industries, the vehicles group (comprising motor vehicles, cycles, aircraft and railway vehicles) makes the largest contribution to the export trade (about £445 million in 1957). In 1957 it employed 1,215,000 people, including 311,000 in the manufacture of motor vehicles and cycles, 270,000 in the manufacture and repair of aircraft, and 170,000 in the manufacture and repair of locomotives, railway carriages and wagons.

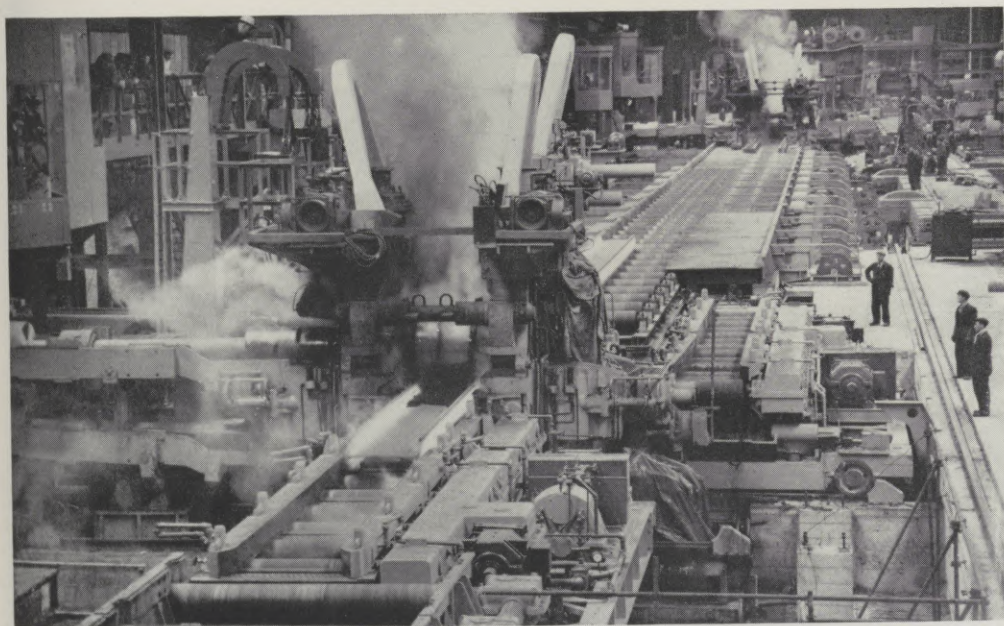
Motor Vehicles

In size and value the vehicles industries are headed by the motor vehicles industry, which comprises the manufacture of cars, commercial vehicles and tractors (see p. 312). The industry is located mainly in the Midlands and the London area, but is represented in most regions; it consists of a relatively small number of assembly firms—headed by the 'Big Five' (British Motor Corporation, Ford, Rootes, Standard and Vauxhall)—backed by a large number of specialist component manufacturers. It has been estimated that about 60 per cent of the ex-works value of passenger cars consists of components purchased from the latter. The 'Big Five' are responsible for about 90 per cent of the output of complete vehicles; the balance of the industry's motor production is almost entirely specialist cars and heavy commercial vehicles, some of which have a large market in overseas countries.

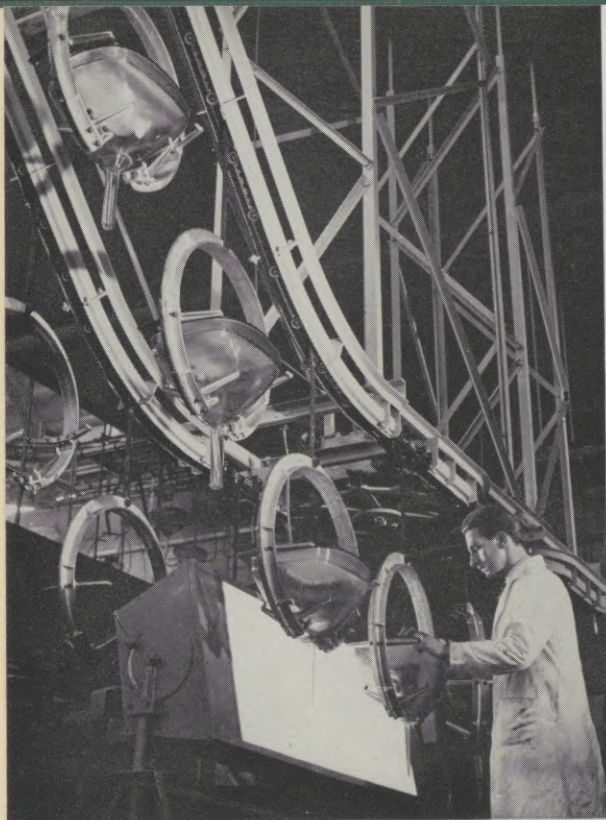
The industry has expanded considerably since the second world war, reaching the record output of 898,000 cars and 340,000 commercial goods vehicles in 1955. Production in 1957—861,000 cars, 279,000 goods vehicles and 9,500 public service vehicles—was somewhat lower, but, in the first half of 1958, output of passenger cars had reached the record annual rate of 1,100,000. Exports of passenger cars in 1957 were the highest so far reached, 426,000; those of commercial goods vehicles at 116,000 were 20,000 below the 1955 peak, while the 6,100 public service vehicles exported represented an increase of about two-thirds over the 1956 level. The value



Goliath giant crane, capable of lifting 200 tons, being used to build Bradwell nuclear power station.



The new universal beam mill at Lackenby, on Tees-side, the first to be built in the United Kingdom.



SOME EXPORT PRODUCTS

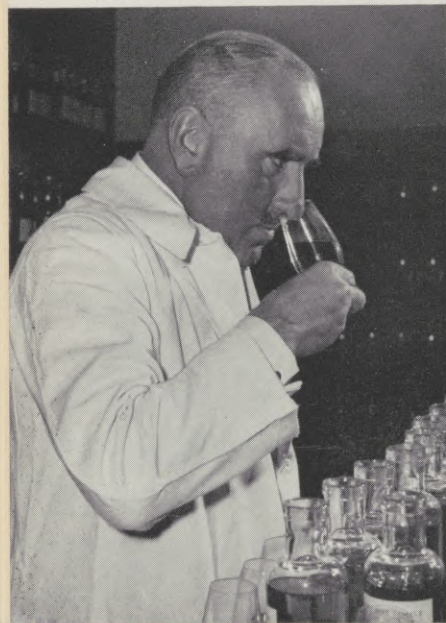
Britain supplies nearly one-fifth of world exports of manufactures. Above, a process in the manufacture of television tubes.

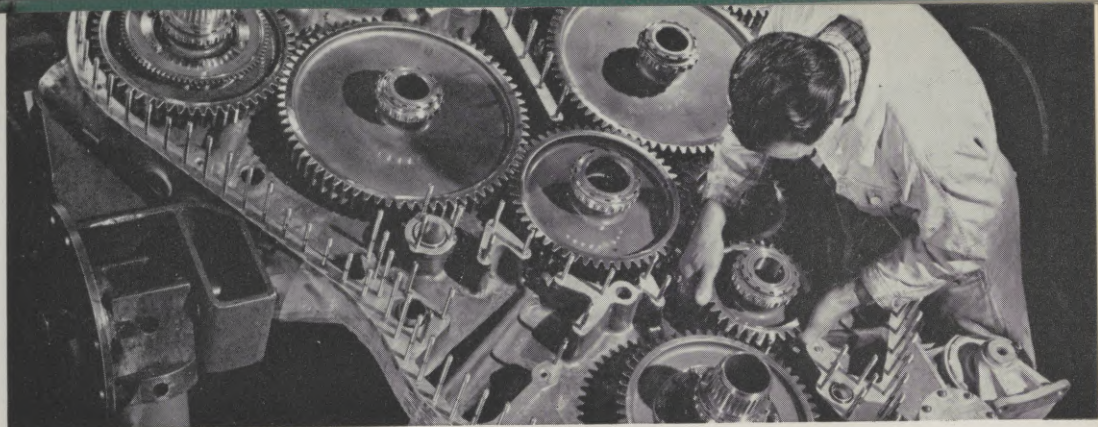


One of the many British knitwear products with a world-wide reputation.

Steel gas pipes for Canada. Britain produces over 20,000 tons of steel tubes, pipes and fittings weekly.

Sampling Scotch whisky before blending. Exports of whisky in 1957 exceeded £52 million in value.





High speed Napier *Deltic* diesel engine, widely used for fast naval vessels, ship propulsion, rail traction and power generation.

At work on the construction of a 60-MW hydrogen-cooled generator at a Newcastle upon Tyne turbine works.



The 1958 *Land-Rover 109*, with 4-wheel drive and 2½ litre engine. In ten years more than 200,000 of these multi-purpose, cross-country vehicles have been manufactured, about three-quarters of them for overseas.



SPECIAL-
PURPOSE
VEHICLES



Outside broadcast television vehicle for the USSR.



Worldmaster omnibus for Copenhagen.



Fire appliance for Cape Town.

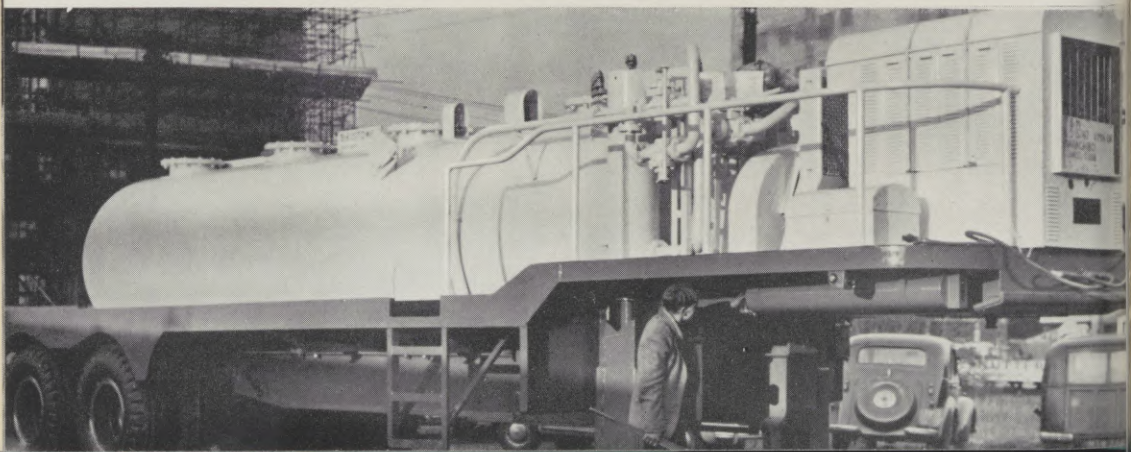


National Blood Transfusion Service van for blood collecting team and equipment.



Motor spirit road tanker with a capacity of 3,600 gallons.

Mobile mud tank for the Venezuelan oilfields, for use in drilling.



of exports of passenger cars exceeded £158 million. The largest market for cars was the United States, to which country 95,000 cars were shipped.

Research is carried out at Lindley, Warwickshire, by the Motor Industry Research Association, an autonomous body founded in 1946 and partly financed by the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research (DSIR), but mainly by the industry itself. Individual firms also have their own research facilities, and some work in this field is done by the Mechanical Engineering Research Laboratory of the DSIR at East Kilbride, Scotland.

Some of the new assembly plants in Britain, electronically controlled and using the minimum of labour, stand comparison with similar plants anywhere in the world for efficiency and reliability. Leading motor manufacturers are undertaking expansion plans, part of which were completed by 1957, costing about £150 million; in addition, makers of components and accessories have large projects in hand.

The principal trade association in the industry is the Society of Motor Manufacturers and Traders Limited (SMMT), founded in 1902, which holds a Motor Show annually in London, and a Commercial Motor Exhibition every two years.

Motor Cycles and Pedal Cycles

In 1957, the United Kingdom's output of motor cycles, including motorised bicycles (mopeds) and scooters, totalled 175,000, of which 50,000 were for shipment overseas, about one-quarter to the United States. The total value of United Kingdom production, including parts and accessories, was about £25 million, and that of exports about £6 million. Production of scooters and mopeds totalled about 50,000 in 1957 and is expected to increase rapidly over the next few years.

Production of pedal cycles is concentrated mainly in two groups of manufacturers. In addition, there are several smaller companies, some of which specialise in particular types such as racing cycles. Output in 1957 totalled 2,548,000, of which some three-fifths were exported. The value of exports of pedal cycles, parts and accessories in 1957 exceeded £23 million; the United States, Nigeria, and the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland were the largest overseas markets.

The British Cycle and Motor Cycle Industries Association Limited holds an annual exhibition in London, usually in the autumn.

Aircraft

The development of the aircraft industry in the United Kingdom, as in other countries, has been strongly influenced by defence requirements, and at the peak of war-time activity it employed nearly 2 million people as compared with some 35,000 in 1935. Following the adjustments to peace-time conditions, the industry has undergone a further period of marked expansion, with the numbers employed increasing from 162,000 in 1951 to 270,000 in 1957, but the numbers are likely to fall to some extent in the next few years as a result of changes in defence policy. The industry manufactures a wide range of civil and military aircraft, extending from gas-turbine airliners to freighters and crop-spraying aircraft.

Britain's achievements in developing aviation and the aircraft industry have been numerous. The science of aerodynamics was founded by Sir George Cayley in the early nineteenth century; more recently, Sir Frank Whittle developed the gas-turbine engine aircraft, and its first applications to scheduled airline service were the turbo-jet *Comet* and the turbo-prop *Viscount*, the latter the most successful post-war civil aircraft now in service all over the world, nearly 400 having been sold by the summer of 1958. The larger *Britannia*, which entered into scheduled service in 1957, is the first gas-turbine airliner to be used on North Atlantic services and has also been ordered by United States and Canadian airlines; it is the fastest

cruising civil transport aeroplane, and at the same time the most economical in operating costs yet in service in the Western world. Orders have also been placed by British and foreign airlines for the *Comet 4* and the *Vanguard*, which are scheduled to enter into service in 1958 and 1960. It is estimated that nearly half the current world orders for gas-turbine aircraft have been placed with United Kingdom firms. The British Overseas Airways Corporation (BOAC) has ordered the Vickers *VC.10* and British European Airways (BEA) the de Havilland *DH.121*, both expected to enter into service in the early 1960s. Britain is also the largest producer in Europe of rotary wing aircraft, and more than 500 British helicopters are in service in the world. The industry has been responsible for many advances in military aviation, including the jet flap (for assisting landing and take-off within a small space), the cartridge-operated ejector seat, and the first experimental machines to be capable of vertical take-off from a normal horizontal position. It is also engaged on the development of guided missiles, some of which have been delivered to the Services.

The British aircraft industry makes an important and growing contribution to export earnings. The record 1957 total of £116.5 million included £40.6 million for aero engines and £69.8 million for aircraft and parts. Exports in 1958 are likely to exceed the 1957 total; in the first half of 1958 they were running at an annual rate of over £150 million. In 1957, the largest markets for aircraft were India, Western Germany, Sweden and the United States. Patent and royalty payments from abroad are also important; for example, in 1956 they totalled £7 million. Licence agreements have been made for fifteen to twenty types of British aero engines to be built abroad, and a number of foreign aircraft have been designed to use British aero engines and equipment. In 1957, the industry received orders from abroad for military aircraft worth about £100 million.

The representative body of the United Kingdom aircraft industry is the Society of British Aircraft Constructors, founded in 1916. Its annual exhibition and flying display at Farnborough is one of the most important events of its kind.

Besides extensive research work by the industry, research on a substantial scale on problems of aircraft and their engines is carried out by the Ministry of Supply, largely at the Royal Aircraft Establishment and the National Gas Turbine Establishment, both at Farnborough. This work is done in collaboration with the industry and results are made known to manufacturers, who are in close touch with the Ministry's establishments. In addition, the National Physical Laboratory undertakes research on aerodynamics.

Railway Vehicles

Britain was the first country to build railways, and British engineers pioneered railway development in most parts of the world.

Locomotive production in the United Kingdom is derived from two separate sources. British Railways build and maintain locomotives and carriages and wagons, exclusively for their own use, in their own workshops; private firms build locomotives and carriages and wagons of all types for both home and export markets, some for British Railways.

The industry is organised to meet the conditions resulting from the change-over from steam to other forms of traction by most of the world's railways. British Railways, under their modernisation plans, have ordered nearly 400 main line diesel locomotives, ranging from 800 to 3,300 h.p., from private firms.

In 1957, about 76,500 people were employed in making locomotives and 86,000 in making and repairing carriages and wagons. In the same year, only 79 steam locomotives were made by the private firms, compared with 393 in 1954. Of the 793

diesel locomotives built in 1957 by private firms, 430 were for export. Ten per cent of the 46,000 carriages and wagons built by private firms in 1957 were exported. The total value of exports of railway vehicles in 1957 amounted to £42 million.

MISCELLANEOUS METAL PRODUCTS

In 1957, the number of persons employed in the industries covered by this heading was as follows:

					<i>Thousands</i>
Tools and cutlery (including flatware)	43·1
Bolts, nuts, screws, rivets, nails, etc.	42·9
Iron and steel forgings	41·5
Wire and wire manufactures	39·9
Hollow-ware	59·1
Brass manufactures	49·5
Other metal industries	244·0
					<hr/>
TOTAL	520·0
					<hr/>

Notes on some of these industries are given below.

Cutlery and Flatware

At one time the production of cutlery and flatware was spread fairly widely throughout England, but gradually it centred in the river valleys around Sheffield. When steam replaced water as the motive power, the industry began to move in towards the centre of Sheffield. The production units were very small and the industry was built up on the high degree of skill of its craftsmen. The introduction of modern machinery has largely replaced hand forging, and mass production methods are now used by some firms in producing the cheaper range of products. The highest quality wares, however, are still produced by skilled craftsmen. Although in recent years there has been some increase in the size of the production units, they remain mainly small, and, of the 400 establishments manufacturing cutlery and flatware, some 250 still employ fewer than ten persons.

The annual output of the cutlery and flatware industry is now valued at about £13 million, of which £5 million represents exports, mainly to Australia, the United States and South Africa.

Hollow-ware

This industry is mainly located in the Midlands, although some production is also carried out in Lancashire, Yorkshire, South Wales and London. Hollow-ware production covers a wide range of goods and these are roughly divided into six classes: wrought steel (including galvanised, enamelled and tinned), aluminium, tinsplate and terneplate, cast iron, copper, and other metals. There is, however, an increasing development in the comparatively recent production of plastic hollow-ware. There are some 250 establishments, of varying size, which are known to be manufacturing domestic hollow-ware, e.g., saucepans and similar kitchen utensils.

The value of annual production approaches £20 million, of which about one-fifth represents exports, mainly to Commonwealth countries overseas. Aluminium

manufacturers comprise the largest single group, both in the value of total production and in exports.

Hand Tools

The manufacture of hand tools is one of the oldest industries of the United Kingdom. From the time when prehistoric man first learned how to fashion tools from iron, hand tools of an ever-increasing diversity and precision have been made in Britain, and today over 400 different types—in many thousands of sizes and patterns—are made in British factories.

There are, in the industry, about 300 establishments employing 10 or more persons, and 450 smaller ones (the majority very small).

CHEMICALS

It is difficult to define the chemical industry since, with the increasing dependence of industry generally on synthetic raw materials, its scope is continually widening. But on the broadest definition the industry includes the manufacture of such products as acids, alkalis, alcohols, industrial gases, explosives, fertilisers, dyestuffs, soaps and detergents, petroleum chemicals, plastics materials, paints and pharmaceuticals. Manufacturing these and other products, the chemical and allied trades (other than mineral oil refining) employ some 400,000 people and contribute nearly 8 per cent of the total net output of all manufacturing industry. Exports of chemicals are also substantial and have increased in value by nearly one-third, and in volume by more than one-third, since 1954, amounting in 1957 to £267 million, or 8 per cent of total United Kingdom exports. Capital investment in the industry totalled nearly £700 million in the ten-year period 1948–57.

British pioneers made great contributions to the science of chemistry, as the names of Robert Boyle, Joseph Priestley, Michael Faraday and John Dalton testify. Contemporary British chemists who maintain the tradition include Sir Robert Robinson (who has done outstanding work on vitamins and hormones), Dr. A. J. P. Martin and Dr. R. M. Synge (who were awarded the Nobel Prize in 1952 for their work in developing chromatography, a method of separating chemical substances), Professor Sir Cyril Hinshelwood (a joint-winner of the Nobel Prize in 1956 for his work in the field of chemical kinetics, which also has practical applications in the development of plastics), and Professor Sir Alexander Todd (awarded the Nobel Prize in 1957 for his work on nucleotides).

The British chemical industry has expanded considerably during the present century. More particularly, recent years have seen a rapid growth which has brought the industry's production up to nearly three times its pre-war level. The volume of production nearly doubled between 1948 and 1957, and the number of employees during that period rose by about one-fifth. This post-war expansion has been most marked in two fields (apart from mineral oil refining)—production of plastics materials generally, and the large-scale manufacture of a wide range of organic chemicals from petroleum.

Heavy Chemicals and Dyestuffs

The heavy chemicals sector covers a wide range of acids, alkalis, alcohols, industrial gases and other basic chemical substances, many of which are fundamental to other branches of the chemical industry as well as to other industries. One of the main products, sulphuric acid, is now manufactured to an increasing extent from indigenous deposits of anhydrite (calcium sulphate) instead of from

imported sulphur or pyrites. Output of sulphuric acid in 1957, at 2.34 million tons, was more than double the immediate pre-war figure.

Since the war, there has also been a greatly expanded production of raw materials for the manufacture of synthetic detergents, while trichlorethylene has been in big demand in the engineering trades for mechanical degreasing plants. Exports of chemical elements and compounds, which in 1954, were valued at £50.6 million, rose to £62.6 million in 1957; slightly more than half were inorganic products. The largest markets are India and Australia followed by South Africa, Canada, the United States and Western Germany. The dyestuffs industry also continues to add to the already comprehensive range of its products, many of them developed from pioneer British discoveries in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. Exports of synthetic organic dyestuffs and pigments in 1957 totalled £11.3 million.

Petroleum Chemicals

The petroleum chemicals industry in Britain, based on the use of petroleum products and refinery gases, is the largest in Europe. It provides raw materials for the plastics, synthetic detergents, solvents, synthetic rubber and other branches of the chemicals and associated industries. About £70 million was invested in plant and fixed equipment for the industry in the post-war period to 1957, and almost as much again is expected to be spent in the three years 1958-60. The oil companies have a large stake in the industry. Production totalled 274,000 tons in 1957, an increase of some two-thirds since 1954. Plants under construction are designed to expand substantially supplies of ethylene, styrene monomer, butadiene and other basic materials.

Plastics

The first plastic, celluloid, originally known as 'Parkesine', was first produced in Britain in 1865 by Alexander Parkes. Modern plastics originating in Britain include 'Perspex', polyethylene and silicones. (Silicones, which were discovered by Professor Kipping at Nottingham, were developed in the United States and have been made in Britain since 1952.) Since 1939, there has been a very large increase in the overall production of plastics materials. Expansion during the last few years has been concentrated mainly on thermoplastic materials such as polyethylene (used in cable coverings, packaging—notably for foodstuffs—and domestic mouldings), polystyrene (a cheap non-inflammable material used for toys, light mouldings and, more recently, for durable consumer goods), and polyvinyl chloride (known as PVC, and made into industrial conveyor belting as well as a variety of other consumer goods such as raincoats and curtains). The first plastic-coated steel was introduced in Britain in 1957.

In the decade 1948-57, net sales of plastics materials have multiplied more than threefold to a total of 393,000 tons in 1957; compared with 1954, net sales have increased by 44 per cent. The increase is most marked in the case of thermoplastic materials, which in 1957 accounted for 223,000 tons, an increase of 72 per cent since 1954. Exports have also grown rapidly, and 106,000 tons, valued at £29.9 million, were exported in 1957; an increase in value of 15 per cent over the previous year. The industry is undertaking large extensions to its productive capacity and is also spending considerable sums on development of improved materials.

Fertilisers

The production of fertilisers owes much to the pioneer work of the British scientists, Sir John Lawes and Sir Joseph Gilbert, and the research now carried on in the United Kingdom at Rothamsted, Hertfordshire, and at the Macaulay Insti-

tute, Aberdeen, is of world-wide importance. Output of nitrogenous fertilisers (in terms of nitrogen content) in 1956-57 totalled 330,000 tons, nearly three times the pre-war volume, and 345,000 tons of phosphatic fertilisers were produced (in terms of phosphate content), more than twice the pre-war figure. Sales in the form of compound fertilisers are increasing; production of these was 2.3 million tons (gross weight) in 1956-57.

Exports of manufactured fertilisers, mainly in the form of ammonium sulphate, totalled £4.1 million in 1957, the principal markets being Ceylon and other Commonwealth countries overseas.

Pesticides

Important British discoveries in recent years have led to major developments in the production of selective weed-killers such as methyl chloro phenoxy acetic acid (MCPA), and of insecticides based on benzenehexachloride (BHC). Overseas markets take the major proportion of United Kingdom production of these and other well-known pesticides such as DDT and systemic insecticides, and exports reached a value of some £4.2 million in 1957. New products for plant protection, notably new forms of synthetic hormones, are being developed.

Pharmaceuticals and Toilet Preparations

Many of the pharmaceutical products sold today have been introduced in the past twenty years. These products include sulphonamides, antibiotics (e.g., penicillin, whose properties were first discovered by Sir Alexander Fleming in 1928), hormones, anti-malarial drugs (e.g., paludrine), liver extracts, anti-histamines and anti-tubercular drugs. Two British companies are making anti-polio-myelitis vaccines. Some £3 million a year is spent on research. About half of the larger drug manufacturing firms in Britain are subsidiaries of overseas concerns. Total exports of medicinal and pharmaceutical preparations and druggists' wares in 1957 reached the record level of £42.4 million.

The toilet preparations industry has shown a steady expansion since the war, and exports were £28.7 million in value in 1957. Although many firms are subsidiaries of American and French companies there are several wholly British firms whose products have world-wide sales.

Paints

About 40,000 people are employed in the paint industry, which comprises some 600 establishments; about half the total production is accounted for by fewer than 40 establishments, each employing more than 200 persons.

In recent years the application of improved techniques has resulted in rapid development, in particular the use of important new ranges of synthetic resins and various types of titanium dioxide pigment. The value of direct exports of pigments and paints rose by one-third between 1954 and 1957 to a total of £24.2 million, of which nearly 10 per cent represented shipments to Canada, the largest single market. One-third of the exports are in the form of ready-mixed paints, which command a growing market overseas. The industry's indirect contribution to exports in the form of surface coatings for finished goods is also very considerable.

Isotopes and Radioactive Materials

Isotopes and radioactive materials, used in medicine, agriculture and industry, are produced in the United Kingdom at the Atomic Energy Research Establishment at Harwell and dispatched from there and from the Radiochemical Centre at Amersham. Britain is the world's largest exporter of these substances. In the year

ended 31st March, 1958, sales of isotopes were valued at about £650,000, some 60 per cent representing sales to overseas countries.

TEXTILES AND CLOTHING

The value of exports in the textiles and clothing group as a whole, including manufactures of wool, cotton, linen, jute, silk, rayon and other man-made fibres, lace, hosiery, woven apparel and carpets, amounted in 1957 to about £381 million or slightly over 11 per cent of total United Kingdom exports. Over 1.5 million people were employed in these industries in 1957, including about 250,000 in the cotton textile industry, 214,000 in the wool textile industry, 95,000 in rayon and other man-made fibre production and weaving and in silk, 97,000 in textile finishing and associated processes, 129,000 in hosiery and knitted goods, about 218,000 in other textiles and over 500,000 in clothing (excluding footwear).

Cotton

Spinning and weaving of cotton for the making of fustian with a cotton weft and linen warp began to assume importance in the United Kingdom in the sixteenth century; but it was the invention of mechanical spinning and weaving in the second half of the eighteenth century that led to cotton becoming Britain's chief consumer goods industry and cotton piece-goods its largest export during the nineteenth century.

In the twentieth century, increasing foreign competition and the tendency of many countries, notably India, to set up their own textile industry cut progressively into British markets. During the second world war, numbers of mills were closed and, though many were brought back into production in the early post-war years, the industry has recently again been declining in size, and the labour force has dropped to about 60 per cent of the 1937 level. It remains, however, one of Britain's largest consumer goods industries, and plays an important part in the export trade.

Since the war a vigorous drive for quality and efficiency has been pressed forward by the industry with support and assistance from the Government. Important in this drive are the Cotton Board, a statutory body with the constitution and powers of a Development Council, and the British Cotton Industry Research Association (Shirley Institute), founded in 1919 for promoting scientific and technical research in connection with cotton and its utilisation. The industry now uses a considerable amount of man-made fibres as well as cotton.

Most of the industry is located in Lancashire, the north-east of the county being mainly concerned with weaving and the south-east with spinning. Manchester is the commercial centre. The Cotton Exchange, which deals in raw cotton, is situated in Liverpool.

In 1957 there were about 150,000 persons employed in the spinning and doubling section of the industry, and 106,000 in weaving. Two-thirds of the workers in the industry are women.

Production rose steadily from 1945 until the end of 1951, since when the level of activity has been subject to marked fluctuations. The rising scale of duty-free cloth imports is causing concern, but technical advances, notably the introduction of new finishes for cotton goods with drip-dry, crease-resisting and other properties, have helped to widen the industry's markets. Production in 1957 was about 50 per cent below the 1937 level, and consumption of raw cotton totalled some 339,000 tons as against about 639,000 tons in 1937. The United States in 1957 supplied more than half Britain's imports of raw cotton, and the second largest supplier was the Sudan.

In 1957, the value of exports of yarn, thread and woven fabrics approached £90 million. About 456 million square yards of cotton fabrics valued at £60 million were sent overseas, two-thirds to Commonwealth countries, the largest markets being Australia, South Africa and New Zealand.

Wool

The United Kingdom wool textile industry, the largest in the world, is the most ancient of Britain's staple industries and has been an important source of wealth since medieval times. There are two main branches—woollen and worsted. While about 85 per cent of woollens and 95 per cent of worsteds are made in the West Riding of Yorkshire, Scotland and the West of England have retained their importance as specialised producers of high quality woollen cloth. The woollen side of the industry is normally organised on a vertical basis, with each firm undertaking the full process of manufacture from raw material to finished product, but for a variety of reasons the worsted industry is organised horizontally—combing, spinning and weaving being done by separate firms. In recent years, however, there has been a tendency in the worsted industry towards the formation of holding companies controlling a number of subsidiary combing, spinning and weaving firms, all the worsted processes being carried out within the one organisation. Small firms, employing fewer than 300 workers, predominate in the industry. Output reached a post-war peak at the end of 1950, but this was followed by the recession of 1951-52, which reached the lowest point in the middle of 1952. Production subsequently recovered and output in some sections in 1957 exceeded the level of 1950. Towards the end of 1957 a decline started, part of a world-wide decline in the wool textile industry, and has continued into 1958.

Persons employed in the industry in 1957 numbered about 214,000, of whom about 160,000 were directly engaged in production.

The United Kingdom's annual consumption of wool is about 480 million lb. (clean weight), equivalent to about 20 per cent of total world consumption (excluding Eastern Europe and China). Blending with man-made fibres is being extended rapidly and accounted for some 10 per cent of yarn consumption in 1957.

The wool industry remains one of Britain's leading export industries, with about one-quarter of its total output shipped abroad, despite the obstacles in the form of widespread import restrictions which it has to face; the total value of exports of wool tops, woollen and worsted yarns and woven fabrics in 1957 was about £140 million, of which over £30 million represented exports to the United States and Canada. In addition, there were considerable exports of wool in other forms, including carpets and clothing.

Research is carried on mainly by the Wool Industries Research Association, which is financed partly by a statutory levy on the industry and partly by a grant from the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research.

The National Wool Textile Corporation, which is financed by a statutory levy on the industry, is responsible for assistance to exporters and for developing overseas markets.

Man-made Fibres

Rayon is produced from cellulose, either in the form of woodpulp or cotton linters. Its early development took place to a large extent in Britain. Production is spread throughout the Midlands and Lancashire, with outposts in other areas. There are seven companies engaged in the production of rayon, four producing only viscose, two producing only acetate, and one both viscose and acetate.

Technical problems are studied at the research station of the British Rayon Research Association at Wythenshawe, Manchester.

Nylon is produced from a combination of chemical substances, most of which are obtained from indigenous raw materials. It was introduced in the United States in 1938 and came into use in Britain in the second world war for parachutes. It is now used extensively for clothing fabrics and stockings and also has important industrial uses, including the manufacture of tyre cords, ropes and conveyor belts. Nylon is produced on a large scale at Pontypool, in South Wales, and at Doncaster, in Yorkshire.

'*Terylene*' polyester fibre, a product of research in the laboratories of the Calico Printers' Association, Manchester, is made on a large scale at Wilton, Yorkshire, by Imperial Chemical Industries Ltd. Annual productive capacity is being increased from 22 to 30 million pounds weight by 1959, and it is planned to construct a new plant, also at Wilton, which will enable annual production to reach 50 million pounds. A plant for the manufacture of 'Terylene' has been set up in Canada, and the British patent holders have licensed its manufacture in other countries, including France, the German Federal Republic, Italy, the Netherlands, and Japan.

'*Fibrolane*' is a British-made protein fibre, with wool-like properties, which is available on a commercial scale; it is derived from casein. Other man-made fibres at present produced in Britain include '*Courlene*' (a polythene fibre), and '*Alginate*' (derived from seaweed).

'*Courtelle*', an acrylic fibre, is being produced on a small scale at Coventry, and a full-scale plant is to start production at Grimsby, in Lincolnshire, early in 1959. A plant to manufacture another acrylic fibre '*Acrilan*' will begin operating at Coleraine, in Northern Ireland, early in 1959 and is expected to reach full production of 10 million lb. a year in 1960.

Since the advent of rayon in its various forms and, more recently, of the new man-made fibres, British textile manufacturers have been developing a number of ways of blending these with natural fibres and with each other. By this means they can produce economically fabrics and garments with attractive and useful new combinations of texture, colour, and finish, and with moisture-absorbent, hard-wearing, drip-dry and crease-resisting properties.

Other Textiles

Linen has been made in Britain for more than a thousand years and it is believed that the art of linen weaving was already being practised during the seventh century. Today it is an industry mainly of small firms, chiefly in Northern Ireland (the greatest linen manufacturing region in the world), with most of the remainder in Scotland. The principal raw material of the industry is flax, which is mainly imported (the chief supplier is Belgium), but considerable quantities of man-made fibres and cotton are also used, and a certain amount of soft hemp and jute, particularly in Scotland. Broadly speaking, the Northern Ireland industry concentrates on the lighter types of fabrics, while in Scotland production is largely, but not exclusively, of coarse linens and canvas. Technical problems are investigated by the Research Institute of the Linen Industry Research Association, formed in 1919. Exports were valued at £17.4 million in 1957, including £10.3 million worth of linen fabrics, £2.5 million of flax linen yarns and £1.1 million of damask table linen.

Jute is manufactured on a large scale in Dundee—the centre of the world's oldest jute industry. About 40 per cent of jute yarn production is utilised in the manufacture of carpets, cordage, ropes and other products. The balance is woven

into fabrics for a wide range of uses, but principally for packaging material. About 20,000 workers are employed. Exports in 1957 totalled about £5 million.

Research facilities are concentrated at the laboratories of the British Jute Trade Research Association. About £10 million has been spent on a post-war re-equipment programme.

Silk exports were valued at about £1 million in 1957. Raw silk is supplied mainly from Japan, China and Italy.

Clothing

The clothing industry in Britain, the largest in Europe, is one of the most important employers of labour with more than 500,000 workers, three-quarters of whom are women and girls. It had an annual output of about £530 million in 1956. Although the industry is highly mechanised—only in the women's outerwear section and in the quality fashion trade do tailors and dressmakers predominate—the typical firm is small. Five-sixths of the concerns in the industry employ fewer than 100 workers. The principal centres for manufacturing are London, Leeds and Manchester. Many of the newest factories are located in Development Areas.

FOOD, DRINK AND TOBACCO

In 1957 the number of persons employed in this broad group of industries was as follows:

	<i>Thousands</i>
Grain milling	41·6
Bread and flour confectionery	189·3
Biscuits	64·4
Meat and meat products	48·3
Milk products	71·0
Sugar and glucose	20·7
Cocoa, chocolate and sugar confectionery	114·1
Preserving of fruit and vegetables	69·5
Other food industries	80·2
Brewing and malting	85·1
Wholesale bottling	34·0
Other drink industries	51·7
Tobacco	49·2
TOTAL	919·1

Notes on some of these industries are given below.

Bread and Flour Confectionery

The average weekly household consumption of bread per head of population in Great Britain is just over 3½ pounds. In England and Wales particularly, the small 'family' type of baker, producing bread by hand or by semi-mechanical methods, is still numerous, but there is an increasing trend towards large-scale production in fully mechanised bakeries. The four largest bakeries account for about 50 per cent of total production and specialise in the supply of sliced and wrapped bread. In the smaller bakeries, numbering about 12,000, flour confectionery is usually allied to bread production but there are many large specialist manufacturers, particularly of slab cake.

Cocoa, Chocolate and Sugar Confectionery

The chocolate and sugar confectionery industry is composed of a small number of very large manufacturers and many hundreds of medium-sized and smaller manufacturers. The industry's products are highly competitive and several are heavily advertised. Over 95 per cent of the production of chocolate and sugar confectionery is in the hands of about 300 firms, while the more specialist products—cocoa powder, cocoa butter and chocolate covering—are manufactured by about 40 firms.

The main ingredients used by the industry are sugar, cocoa beans, glucose, milk, nuts and fats. Production of chocolate and sugar confectionery for home and export sale totalled about 655,000 tons in 1957. There are virtually no restrictions on imports of chocolate and confectionery, but these totalled less than 10,000 tons in 1957. Consumption of chocolate and confectionery in the United Kingdom is far higher than in any other country, being equivalent to nearly 8½ oz. per head per week in 1957, compared with 7 oz. per head before the war. In 1955, the total value of exports of chocolate, sugar confectionery and cocoa products reached a record level of over £19 million. In 1957, exports of sugar confectionery rose further and those of chocolate were fully maintained, but there was a fall in exports of other cocoa products, giving a total value for all exports of confectionery of £18·4 million (more than one-third going to dollar markets). Manufacturers' total annual turnover is well over £200 million.

Whisky

Scotch whisky, which was first distilled at least as long ago as the fifteenth century, enjoys world-wide popularity. Modern whiskies are blends of twenty or more different kinds, some made from malted barley, some from other grains. Whisky requires several years to mature, and the 47·5 million proof gallons (a record) produced in 1957 will not be on sale for some years. Whisky is one of the United Kingdom's largest dollar earners; more than half the annual exports, which in 1957 attained the highest level so far recorded of £52·1 million, are shipped to the United States. Other valuable markets are Canada and other Commonwealth countries, and Venezuela.

Brewing and Malting

Brewing. There are some 420 separate breweries located throughout the United Kingdom, of which the main centres are London, south Lancashire, Burton-on-Trent (Staffordshire), Birmingham, and Edinburgh. In the main, brewers distribute their beer for consumption within 30 miles of the brewery, but some of the largest firms send their beer all over the country. Much of the beer is consumed in draught, but in recent years the demand for bottled beer has increased and is now probably as much as one-third of total consumption. Bottling is carried out by both brewers and independent bottling establishments. The industry's raw materials are malt (chiefly made from home-grown barley), sugar and hops. Consumption of beer has declined appreciably from the exceptional levels of the immediate post-war years; the drop has, however, been halted since 1951. Canned beer is becoming increasingly popular; output in 1957 was estimated at about 80 million cans. The excise duty on beer accounts for about half the retail price. In the year ended 31st March, 1958, duty of £261 million was paid on 25·4 million bulk barrels. Since the war the industry has maintained a sizable export trade, which in 1957 was valued at £2·7 million.

Malting. There are in the United Kingdom several hundred malting units. Some of these are operated by brewers who make all or part of their own malt. The

remainder are operated by maltsters whose product is sold principally to brewers at home and abroad, but some malt is supplied to distillers and vinegar brewers, and also to the manufacturers of malt extract for use in the baking, confectionery and textile industries. The popularity of British malt has been established with brewers throughout the world, and in 1957 malt exports were valued at £1.7 million. These malting units are mainly situated in the barley-growing areas which lie east of a line drawn from Edinburgh, through Burton-on-Trent (Staffordshire), to Lyme Regis (Dorset).

Malting usually takes place in the cooler months following the harvest, but with the aid of air-conditioning plant and other modern developments some units can operate throughout the year. Grain is the only raw material used by the industry—chiefly home-grown barley especially grown for the purpose.

Tobacco

The United Kingdom tobacco industry manufactures almost all the cigarettes and other tobacco goods sold in the country. In 1957, personal expenditure on these goods amounted to nearly £980 million (of which over two-thirds was tax revenue) and, in addition, exports worth over £22.3 million (some 90 per cent of which were cigarettes) were shipped to a large number of overseas markets. The main centres of production are in and around Bristol, Liverpool, London, Manchester, Newcastle, Nottingham, Glasgow and Belfast.

The tobacco industry uses over 300 million lb. annually of raw tobacco, all of which is imported. The main sources are the United States, Rhodesia, India and Canada, in that order. Most of this tobacco goes to make cigarettes (nearly seven-eighths) and pipe and cigarette tobaccos. There is also some production of cigars and snuff; cigars, chiefly Cuban, Jamaican and Dutch, are also imported.

MISCELLANEOUS INDUSTRIES

This broad heading covers a very wide variety of industries and groups of industries. Employment in 1957 was as follows:

	<i>Thousands</i>
Bricks and fireclay goods	82.9
China and earthenware	71.5
Glass	76.8
Cement	16.8
Other non-metalliferous mining manufactures	94.7
Jewellery, refining of precious metals, etc.	37.9
Leather, boots and shoes, and fur	191.6
Manufactures of wood and cork	297.7
Paper and printing	583.9
Rubber.	115.9
Other manufacturing industries	175.1
TOTAL ..	1,744.8

Notes on some of these industries are given below.

Brickmaking

Introduced by the Romans, brickmaking is one of Britain's oldest industries, and something like 2,000 different varieties of building bricks are produced in the

United Kingdom today. These are made in over 1,000 works which range from small seasonal yards using traditional hand methods to highly mechanised plants, some of which are among the largest and most efficient of their kind in the world. The industry has made a vigorous recovery from the reduced activity enforced on it during the war years, and its total output now exceeds 7,000 million bricks a year.

Refractories

Refractories are essential in the operation of blast furnaces, steel furnaces and other metallic furnaces and are used extensively in many other industries, including non-ferrous metals, ceramics, glassware and chemicals, in nuclear energy and jet propulsion. The chief raw materials required for their manufacture are indigenous except for magnesite (which is obtained partly from overseas and partly from production of sea-water magnesia) and chrome ore.

The chief centres of the industry are in the Midlands, west Yorkshire, north-east England, Scotland, and Wales. Production has averaged about 2 million tons a year since 1948, mainly for home use. Exports of refractory construction materials in 1957 were valued at about £4.3 million, as compared with £2.8 million in 1955.

Domestic Pottery

The domestic pottery industry is one of the oldest craft industries in Britain; the making of domestic pottery dates back to before the Roman occupation. The chief raw materials, china clay, ball clay and china stone, come from Devon, Cornwall and Dorset, where known deposits of high quality are expected to last for at least 100 years.

The Stoke-on-Trent area in Staffordshire, comprising the six towns of Stoke, Burslem, Tunstall, Hanley, Fenton and Longton, is the centre of the industry and contributes between 75 and 80 per cent of total production. Other important factories are at Worcester, Derby, Bristol and Poole. The industry employs about 35,000 workers, of whom more than half are engaged in the production of table and ornamental ware.

Of the £29 million worth of pottery produced in 1957, nearly £13 million worth was for export. About three-quarters of bone china exports go to Canada and the United States, and the largest markets for decorated earthenware are Canada, Australia and the United States.

The modern industry benefits from a tradition of good design and craftsmanship (made world-famous by a long line of great British potters) which, with the excellent technical qualities of its products, is the basis of the large overseas and domestic demand for its products. Among the famous makes of British pottery are: Wedgwood, Spode, Royal Worcester, Royal Doulton and Royal Crown Derby.

Glass

Britain has a large and efficient glass industry, the third largest in the world, with a wide diversity of products. The section of the industry devoted to the manufacture of plate and sheet glass in their various forms is organised for quantity production, and the development of modern methods has enabled the industry to cater for an increasing range of requirements. Glass can now be supplied in sheets of great size and can be made almost unbreakable. Its use 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 industry.

Rapid technical progress has led to the large-scale production of tubular glass, optical glass and also glass insulators for use in electricity transmission. Glass fibres, used for insulating purposes and as reinforcement for plastics, are thought

to offer great scope for further development. The advance of the industry is shown by the increase in exports of all glassware (including plate and sheet glass) from a negligible level in 1938 to £16·3 million in 1957; this total included £9 million worth of plate and sheet glass.

A traditional product is hand-made lead-crystal glassware of very high quality; a high proportion of output is exported, mostly to North America, Australia, South Africa and New Zealand.

Collective research is undertaken by the British Glass Industry Research Association, and much research work is also carried on by the Department of Glass Technology at Sheffield University, the first of its kind in the world.

Cement

The cement industry of the United Kingdom is chiefly concerned with the manufacture of Portland Cement. 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. The capacity of the industry has increased substantially since the war to meet the growing demands of the building industry. Annual output, which reached 7·7 million tons in 1938, had risen to 12·8 million tons by 1956, falling back to 11·8 million tons in 1957, valued at more than £70 million. One group of companies is responsible for about two-thirds of total output. In 1957, 1·33 million tons (valued at £7·4 million) were exported, compared with a peak total of 2·06 million tons in 1952.

Jewellery, Gold and Silver Ware

The making of jewellery, gold and silver ware is an industry in which British craftsmen are heirs to a great tradition. The quality of the metal in gold and silver wares made or sold in the United Kingdom is guaranteed by a 'hall-mark'. The law requires that gold and silver plate shall not be sold until it has been hall-marked at one of the Assay Offices in London, Birmingham, Chester, Sheffield, Edinburgh and Glasgow.

The importance of maintaining definite standards of fineness for wares of gold and silver has always been recognised, and the Goldsmiths' Company in London has carried out the assay and hall-marking of such wares since 1327 when Edward III gave the Company its first charter.

Toys

The toy industry in Britain, now thought to be the largest in Europe, has expanded greatly in the last ten years. There are over 300 manufacturers, mostly small in size, in the industry, with a total annual output of almost £36 million, of which nearly a quarter is exported. Current trends are towards increased production of small-scale precision models of equipment and vehicles and a greater use of plastic materials.

Leather

Leather tanning is one of Britain's oldest industries. Tanneries are situated in most parts of Britain, but there are important concentrations in Lancashire, Yorkshire, the North Midlands and the London area. Many different types of leather are produced, ranging from the heavy types produced for industrial uses, such as machinery belting, to sole leather and high quality decorative leather, used for high fashion footwear and fancy leather goods.

In 1957, about 34,000 persons were employed in the leather tanning and dressing industry, and 23,500 in the leather goods industries. The United Kingdom is the

world's leading leather exporter, with exports valued in 1957 at £14.9 million, of which £4.5 million worth went to North America and £2.1 million to Western Germany. Research into tanning processes and the improvement in the quality of finished leather is undertaken by the Leather Manufacturers' Research Association.

Leather Footwear

The British footwear industry is among the most important in the world, and factories are located throughout the United Kingdom. Some areas concentrate on production of particular types, e.g., the Rossendale Valley region of Lancashire for slippers, Bristol for heavy industrial footwear for miners and agricultural workers, Northampton for men's and youths' footwear, and Leicester for women's and girls' shoes. There are about 1,000 firms in the leather footwear industry, and nearly half the total output comes from firms with fewer than 200 employees. The British Boot, Shoe and Allied Trades Research Association enjoys a world-wide reputation in all matters connected with shoemaking.

About 119,000 persons are employed in the manufacture of leather footwear, and output of boots and shoes, mainly of leather, in 1957 totalled some 143 million pairs. The United Kingdom is the world's largest exporter of leather footwear, and in 1957, exports of footwear, mainly of leather, reached a record level of £11.2 million, an increase of nearly 8 per cent over 1956. The United States took about one-sixth of footwear exports (except rubber footwear) in 1957.

Paper and Board

The manufacture of paper in Great Britain was not firmly established until 1678, but records show that some paper was produced as far back as the year 1492.

Today, many different materials are used in the manufacture of paper and board, the most important being woodpulp, esparto grass, straw, waste of hemp, flax and jute, rags and waste paper; the consumption of these materials now totals some 3.8 million tons a year, of which nearly two-thirds comes from abroad. The balance consists mainly of waste paper recovered from domestic sources.

Total production in 1957 of all types of paper and board (including newsprint) amounted to 3.4 million tons—the highest ever reached—compared with a pre-war figure of 2.6 million tons. Of this, newsprint accounted for 653,000 tons as against 800,000 tons pre-war. Exports for the same period amounted to 234,000 tons, valued at £27 million, including 122,000 tons of newsprint, valued at £7.5 million. The bulk of the export trade is to sterling area countries, mainly Australia, South Africa, New Zealand, India and the Irish Republic.

During the second world war many paper-making machines were lost through enemy action, but the installation of new machinery and plant resulted in the rapid recovery of the industry. Today, the industry comprises some 200 mills producing almost every type of paper and board, including the world's largest paper machine, producing a web of newsprint 302 inches wide. There are also many firms engaged in the conversion of paper and board for various purposes. In addition, the industry has considerable interests abroad, with pulp and paper producing mills in the United States, Canada and other parts of the Commonwealth, and in the Scandinavian countries.

Printing and Publishing

Printing is essentially an industry of small enterprises. At least two-thirds of the firms have fewer than 25 employees. The main sections of the industry are concentrated in the larger towns, notably London, although firms engaged in more general printing are also located in smaller centres. The shortage of skilled workers has

led firms to introduce the latest developments in high-speed printing equipment, including electronic engraving machines and advanced processes of photographic reproduction.

In 1957, total sales of books amounted to about £60 million. Exports reached the record level of over £22 million. Australia and the United States are the most important overseas markets.

Rubber

The United Kingdom rubber manufacturing industry is the oldest in the world, dating from 1819 when Hancock, the inventor of the first method of processing raw rubber on a commercial scale, set up a factory in London. He afterwards collaborated with Macintosh, the inventor of water-proof garments, and it was another Scotsman, Dunlop, who in 1888 devised the pneumatic tyre as it is now used. At the present day, tyres and tubes represent more than half the total output of the industry. More recently, British firms have pioneered cellular rubber and latex foam products, and they also make a great variety of other rubber manufactures, such as rubber footwear, belting, cables, hose and thread.

The industry is second in size only to that of the United States and uses 11 per cent of the world's total consumption of natural and synthetic rubber. There are some 800 firms located throughout the country and, in 1957, their consumption of rubber totalled 239,000 tons. Exports of manufactured goods in the same year were valued at £42 million, two-thirds in the form of tyres and tubes. This figure does not take into account the large indirect exports on motor vehicles.

About one-quarter of the industry's raw material needs consists of synthetic rubber, which until recently was available only from the dollar area, but is now being produced in Britain. Some small plants came into operation in 1956 and 1957, and in 1958 the International Synthetic Rubber Company's plant at Fawley, near Southampton, started production. Annual productive capacity amounts to 50,000 tons of styrene-butadiene rubber.

Although the industry is highly mechanised there is still room for craftsmanship as in the building of a tyre, where perfect quality depends on the skill of the individual. To maintain the technical superiority of the industry, advanced experimental work is carried out at the Shrewsbury laboratories of the Research Association of British Rubber Manufacturers.

X. TRANSPORT AND COMMUNICATIONS

SHIPPING

About 18 per cent of the world's shipping tonnage of 100 gross tons and over is registered in the United Kingdom, which has the largest merchant marine in active employment. A greater tonnage—26 million—is registered in the United States but over half of this is in the Reserve Fleet. United Kingdom ships are estimated to carry nearly one-quarter of the world's international sea-borne traffic in passengers and goods, and ply regularly on the routes linking the countries of the Commonwealth and also to most of the main ports throughout the world. The amount of the United Kingdom's own sea-borne trade carried in British ships at the present time is not known exactly, but it seems likely that about 60 per cent of its imports and 75 per cent of its exports, by value, are carried in British registered ships. The United Kingdom balance of payments figures show that shipping provides one of the biggest net contributions to the balance of payments; in the year ended December 1957 it was £115 million. This figure does not, however, represent the actual net overseas earnings of United Kingdom shipping since it excludes tanker earnings and includes some of the disbursements of foreign ships in United Kingdom ports and the payments for the use of foreign ships. The last survey, made in 1952, of the total net overseas earnings by all types of United Kingdom shipping gave a figure of £221 million.

THE MERCHANT FLEET

At 30th June, 1957, a total of 19.9 million gross tons of merchant shipping (steam and motor vessels of 100 gross tons and over) was registered in the United Kingdom. In 1939 the tonnage was 17.9 million and in 1930 was at its highest level of 20.3 million.

Notable trends in the composition of the merchant fleet in recent years have been the reduction of tramp tonnage, the growth of tanker tonnage, the increasing size of tankers, and the commissioning of vessels specially built to carry ore, sugar and other commodities in bulk. Including Admiralty and other tankers, the United Kingdom accounts for over 5.5 million gross tons or nearly 19 per cent of the world's total tanker tonnage.

Propulsion

The amount of coal-fired tonnage has fallen in recent years to less than one million gross tons. Oil has taken the place of coal in steamships, while steam has continued to give place to the diesel engine, about 45 per cent of all tonnage being diesel-driven in 1957. In recent years, experiments have been made in the use of gas turbines in ships. In March 1952, the first crossing of the Atlantic using this form of propulsion was made by the tanker *Auris*, which was expected to put to sea again towards the end of 1958 with new and improved gas turbines. The latest development is the undertaking of research into the application of nuclear propulsion to merchant ships, with Government sponsorship and with the co-operation of the

shipowning, shipbuilding and marine engineering industries; several large nuclear-powered tankers are being planned by groups of private firms.

Age and Size

Some 23 per cent of the total gross tonnage is under 5 years old and a further 21 per cent is between 5 and 9 years old. Taking the tanker fleet separately, as much as 35 per cent is under 5 years old and a further 23 per cent is from 5 to 9 years old. An analysis of the merchant fleet by size is given in Table 23.

TABLE 23
SIZE DISTRIBUTION OF UNITED KINGDOM MERCHANT FLEET, 1957

Tonnage group	All ships		Tankers	
	No. of ships	Gross tons	No. of ships	Gross tons
100 and under 500 g.t.	1,852	462,776	166	43,544
500 " " 2,000 "	1,268	1,225,396	80	77,677
2,000 " " 6,000 "	682	2,762,609	40	127,411
6,000 " " 10,000 "	1,167	8,949,943	246	1,999,245
10,000 " " 15,000 "	342	3,909,611	213	2,434,668
15,000 " " 25,000 "	94	1,822,344	46	878,315
25,000 " " 30,000 "	18	490,056	1	25,000
30,000 g.t. and above	4	234,756	—	—
TOTALS ..	5,427	19,857,491	792	5,585,860

Source: *Lloyd's Register of Shipping*.

The four ships of 30,000 gross tons and over are the *Queen Elizabeth* (83,673 g.t.), the *Queen Mary* (81,237 g.t.), the *Mauretania* (35,673 g.t.), and the *Caronia* (34,173 g.t.) all operating on transatlantic passenger services. Three passenger liners of over 30,000 g.t. were on order in June 1958. Two, the *Canberra* (45,000 g.t.) and the *Oriana* (40,000 g.t.) are being built for the service from the United Kingdom to Australia and across the Pacific to North America; the third, the *Windsor Castle* (38,000 g.t.), is being built for the service between the United Kingdom and South Africa.

Employment of Shipping

The 19.9 million gross tons of shipping on the United Kingdom register at June 1957 included 16.9 million gross tons of trading vessels owned and registered in the United Kingdom¹; the usual employment of this fleet has been analysed by the

¹ The remaining 3 million gross tons included fishing vessels, tugs, river and estuary craft, Admiralty vessels (mostly tankers) not usually engaged in the commercial carriage of cargo, and 1.2 million gross tons of shipping registered in the United Kingdom but owned in other Commonwealth countries; this last figure included nearly half a million gross tons of tankers.

United Kingdom Chamber of Shipping as follows: 2·6 million gross tons were employed as ocean-going passenger-cargo liners; 6·2 million gross tons as ocean-going cargo liners; 2·5 million gross tons as ocean-going tramps; 4·4 million gross tons as ocean-going tankers; and 1·2 million gross tons as coasting and home trade.

SHIPOWNERS

About half of British-owned shipping registered in the United Kingdom consists of ocean-going passenger-cargo and cargo liners, mostly the latter. Practically all these ships are owned by large liner companies or groups of liner companies whose names are known throughout the world. Many of them operate wide networks of scheduled freight and passenger services which, between them, cover every ocean. The 2·5 million gross tons of ocean-going tramp ships are operated by a large number of private owners, some of them having only a small number of ships and some with only one ship.

About two-thirds of the total United Kingdom tanker fleet belongs to the oil companies, although there are a few important independent United Kingdom tanker-owning companies. A new type of specialised bulk carrier—the ore-carrier—is now coming into use on a substantial scale; some of the ore-carriers are partly owned by companies in the steel industry, but are managed and operated by shipping companies.

Unlike ship-owning companies in many countries, the United Kingdom ship-owners receive no subsidies or direct financial assistance from the Government. The Government has, however, recognised that the United Kingdom shipping industry is faced with severe competition in a world market (especially from ships sailing under 'flags of convenience' with small tax liabilities and with no obligation to maintain proper standards of employment) and that the industry has found it increasingly difficult to build up finance for the replacement of obsolete ships. Under the Finance Act, 1956, the shipping industry was the only industry allowed to retain the 20 per cent investment allowance in respect of taxation, and the allowance was raised to 40 per cent in 1957 for capital expenditure on the construction of new ships. In June 1958, it was announced that all Government restrictions on the sources from which the shipping industry might raise capital within the United Kingdom had been removed.

SHIPPING ORGANISATIONS

The main organisations concerned with the activities, interests and common problems of the industry are as follows:

The Corporation of Lloyd's

This body, which was founded in the seventeenth century, is a society of underwriters whose main business is marine insurance.

Lloyd's Register of Shipping

Lloyd's Register is an organisation, distinct from the Corporation, which surveys and classifies ships with particular regard to their safety and operational efficiency. It will accept responsibility for surveying and giving technical advice on vessels of all flags from the initial stages of building, at regular intervals during their service, and after casualties. A satisfactory Lloyd's classification is a guarantee to an underwriter that he may accept the risk of a vessel, and this forms a strong link between the Register and the Corporation of Lloyd's (see also p. 423).

Shipowners' Organisations

The representative bodies speaking for shipowners generally (excluding, for the most part, owners of fishing vessels) are the *Chamber of Shipping* and the *Liverpool Steamship Owners' Association*. The *General Council of British Shipping* co-ordinates the views of the shipping industry as a whole on all matters of major policy.

There are a number of local associations of shipowners centred around the main port areas, for example, the *Bristol Steamship Owners' Association*, the *London General Shipowners' Society*, and the *North of England Shipowners' Association*. Others represent companies specialising in a particular trade or type of cargo.

Employers' Organisations

The *Shipping Federation* and the *Employers' Association of the Port of Liverpool* are the employers' organisations concerned with labour relations and the regulation of employment throughout the Merchant Navy. They are responsible for the administration of the Merchant Navy Established Service Scheme, under which shipowners engaging crews for ships of 200 gross tons and above engage them through the Merchant Navy Establishment Administration unless they are prepared to offer two-year Company Service contracts. The Shipping Federation is also responsible for the day-to-day operation of the National Sea Training Schools set up for the purpose of training ratings for the deck and catering departments and as firemen.

Seafarers' Organisations

Shipmasters are represented by the *Mercantile Marine Service Association*; navigating officers, engineer officers, apprentices, cadets, pursers and ships' surgeons by the *Merchant Navy and Airline Officers' Association*; and radio officers by the *Radio Officers' Union*. Some uncertificated engineer officers are represented by the *Amalgamated Engineering Union*. The interests of the deck, engine-room and catering ratings are represented by the *National Union of Seamen*.

The National Maritime Board

The National Maritime Board is composed of equal numbers of representatives of the shipowners and seafarers and is responsible for all negotiations of wages and conditions of service in the Merchant Navy, although, except by special arrangement, National Maritime Board Agreements do not apply to vessels under 200 gross tons, or to certain other ships, including tugs and salvage vessels. Detailed working of the Board is carried on by a number of 'panels' representing the various interests of those forming the seafarers' part of the Board.

Conferences

British shipping companies operating liners 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 the establishment of a common tariff of freight rates or passenger fares from each port of departure. Each conference meets from time to time to review and revise existing rates, or to compile new ones. Some of the conferences may be connected by rate agreements, or may have joined together to form wider groupings.

The Baltic Exchange

The Baltic Mercantile and Shipping Exchange, which originated in one of London's seventeenth-century coffee houses, is the world's largest market for the

chartering of ships of all nationalities. Shipbrokers and merchants' representatives meet here to arrange the chartering of ships, or space in ships, for the carriage of all kinds of goods to and from all parts of the world. Other classes of business transacted on the Baltic include the chartering of air transport (see p. 367) and the purchase and sale of grain and oilseeds.

RELATIONS WITH THE GOVERNMENT

The Ministry of Transport and Civil Aviation is the Government Department responsible for most matters connected with merchant shipping. Under the Merchant Shipping Act of 1894 and subsequent legislation it administers many regulations for marine safety and welfare, for instance: certifying the load-line (or Plimsoll line) that ensures that a ship is not overloaded; ensuring that standards of safety are observed in ship construction; ensuring the provision of adequate life-saving, fire-fighting and radio equipment; and dealing with the discipline, professional standards, health and accommodation of seamen. Most of the work which these responsibilities entail is carried out by the Marine Survey and Mercantile Marine Officers at the ports. There is also a Registrar-General of Shipping and Seamen in whose office at Cardiff a complete record of all British ships and seamen is kept. The Ministry is represented on the Merchant Navy Welfare Board (see p. 341) and on the Merchant Navy Training Board (see p. 340). It fosters the development and use of modern navigational aids.

The Ministry is responsible for transporting by sea the men and materials of the armed forces and looks after ships that it owns or has chartered. It is also concerned with general shipping policy and the strategic implications of the Merchant Navy. The Ministry maintains close liaison with the shipping industry on such matters and on problems relating to imports and exports and special passenger requirements.

Abroad, certain parts of the Merchant Shipping Acts, in particular those provisions dealing with the engagement and discharge of crews outside the United Kingdom, are administered by H.M. Consuls and by officers of the Commonwealth and Colonial Governments.

The United Kingdom is a party to the International Convention for the Prevention of the Pollution of the Sea by Oil which came into force on 26th July, 1958. The nations which have ratified this convention agree to prohibit their national fleets from discharging oil within 50 miles of any coast and also in extensive areas of the Atlantic Ocean and the North Sea. British ships registered in the United Kingdom were already prohibited from discharging oil within a wide zone of the sea around the United Kingdom under the Oil in Navigable Waters Act, 1955, which is administered by the Ministry. The discharge of oil from any source into United Kingdom territorial waters and harbours was first prohibited in 1922.

The United Kingdom is a member of the United Nations Intergovernmental Maritime Consultative Organisation (IMCO), whose first assembly is to be held in London in January 1959.

Lighthouses, Pilotage and Rescue

The Ministry of Transport and Civil Aviation administers the Coastguard Service. This is primarily a life-saving organisation which keeps watch at danger points around the coast for vessels in distress and renders assistance either by means of rocket life-saving apparatus or by informing other authorities who may be in a position to give help. There is close liaison between the Coastguard Service and the Royal National Lifeboat Institution. The latter maintains lifeboats around the coast of the United Kingdom; it is supported entirely by voluntary subscriptions,

and depends largely for its operation on voluntary workers. Lifeboats were launched 716 times in 1957, and rescued 609 people.

The general lighthouse authority for England and Wales, the Channel Islands and Gibraltar is the *Corporation of Trinity House*, which received its first Royal Charter in the sixteenth century and is administered by a Board of ten Elder Brethren elected from the Royal Navy and the Merchant Navy. It is also the chief pilotage authority in the United Kingdom, having the management of all matters relating to pilots and pilotage in the London area, the English Channel and certain other coastal districts of the United Kingdom. Lighthouses in Scotland and Ireland are the responsibility respectively of the Commissioners of Northern Lighthouses and the Commissioners of Irish Lights. The Ministry of Transport and Civil Aviation also has certain responsibilities in connection with lighthouses and pilotage.

THE MERCHANT NAVY

Strength

The number of masters, officers and men serving in December 1957 in British ships on articles of agreement opened or closed in the United Kingdom was about 152,000. In addition, there were about 49,000 seamen serving in United Kingdom registered ships on articles opened or closed overseas.

Training

Nautical training in the United Kingdom has two distinct objectives, first to give intending entrants into the Merchant Navy an introductory training before going to sea—this is commonly known as ‘pre-sea training’—and secondly, to prepare those who have already performed the requisite sea-service, qualifying them for admission to the examinations, for the various statutory and other certificates granted by the Ministry of Transport and Civil Aviation.

The *Merchant Navy Training Board* promotes the instruction and studies at sea of apprentices and cadets who are preparing for their examinations for certificates of competency as second mate.

The Ministry of Transport and Civil Aviation holds examinations for, and issues certificates of competency to, ships’ officers as master, first mate and second mate of foreign-going ships, or master and mate of home trade ships and as first class engineer and second class engineer. Officers may not normally serve on board ships in these grades unless they hold the appropriate, or a higher, certificate.

Pre-sea training is not compulsory for those who go to sea as apprentices or cadets but most shipping companies will, in practice, accept only those who have undergone such a course. There are a number of residential and non-residential training establishments.

Sea-going engineer officers usually receive their basic training in engineering by serving a suitable apprenticeship of not less than four years in engineering workshops ashore, although part of this period may be spent at approved courses in mechanical engineering. An alternative scheme of training has, however, recently been introduced under which shipping companies themselves select apprentices for a special course of training consisting of a two-year diploma course in a technical college, followed by eighteen months’ training at sea and finally twelve months’ training in an engineering workshop ashore. Sea-going engineer officers are first employed as junior engineers: they become eligible to take examinations for second and first class certificates of competency after performing periods of qualifying sea service.

Radio officers are required to hold certificates of proficiency in wireless telegraphy issued by the Postmaster General on the results of an open examination.

All boys who wish to join the Merchant Navy as deck or junior catering ratings must undergo a course of pre-sea training. The majority receive their training at the National Sea Training Schools but courses are also provided by certain private organisations and by a number of local education authorities.

A seaman may not be rated as A.B. (Able Seaman) in United Kingdom registered ships unless he holds a certificate of competency as A.B., granted by the Ministry of Transport and Civil Aviation, or an equivalent certificate. To obtain this certificate a seaman must, among other qualifications, have served three years at sea on deck, have attained a certificate of proficiency as lifeboatman and have passed a qualifying examination.

Seamen qualify by seniority for promotion to the rating of petty officer. Service as a deck rating qualifies for the purpose of admission to the examination for a second mate's certificate.

Conditions of Employment and Welfare

Wages and conditions of employment are negotiated by the National Maritime Board (see p. 338). Minimum wages and holidays with pay are guaranteed for both officers and ratings. Moreover, the Merchant Navy Established Service Scheme, introduced by the Board in 1947, has removed a great deal of the uncertainty formerly associated with a seafaring life. Officers and men can now take two-year contracts, not only with individual shipping companies but with the industry as a whole, and get special benefits, in addition to the normal unemployment insurance benefit when they are ashore between voyages.

The *Merchant Navy Welfare Board*, on which are represented officers' and seamen's unions and associations, shipowners, voluntary societies, the Ministries of Transport and Civil Aviation, Labour and National Service, Pensions and National Insurance, and the Colonial Office, has been responsible since 1948 for the control and co-ordination of the welfare services for merchant seamen in the United Kingdom and of British merchant seamen abroad.

PORTS

There are over 300 ports in the United Kingdom. The eleven largest are shown in Table 24, which lists them in order of tonnage of shipping arriving and departing and does not relate to the volume of cargo handled. Most ports, other than those owned by the British Transport Commission, are represented on the *Dock and Harbour Authorities' Association*, formed in 1917 to represent the common interests of port authorities in their relations with Government, shipowners and traders.

The Port of London, with 69 miles of waterway and over 4,000 acres of dock estate, is the largest port in the Commonwealth, and with New York and Rotterdam is one of the three largest ports in the world. Goods of every imaginable kind, from meat to marble, from plywood to perfume, pass through the docks. Imports are distributed all over the United Kingdom, though the port supplies, primarily, Greater London and the Home Counties.

Liverpool—with *Manchester*, an inland city made into a port by the construction of the Manchester Ship Canal—serves the industrial Midlands, Lancashire and Yorkshire. Grain is prominent among the imports of Liverpool, which, including Birkenhead on the opposite bank of the Mersey, is the second largest milling centre in the world. Tobacco is another major import and is stored in what is probably the

world's largest warehouse. Liverpool is also important for transatlantic passenger traffic and short sea-route and coastwise trading. Manchester's chief import is raw cotton.

TABLE 24
PORT ARRIVALS AND DEPARTURES, 1957
(With Cargo and in Ballast)

Thousand tons net

Port	Foreign Trade	Coasting Trade	Total
London	51,260	22,387	73,647
Southampton	32,124	8,509	40,633
Liverpool	29,725	7,194	36,919
Tyne Ports	8,023	8,155	16,178
Glasgow	10,433	3,980	14,413
Belfast	2,387	11,807	14,194
Manchester (including Runcorn)	11,446	2,717	14,163
Hull	8,127	3,219	11,346
Bristol	6,770	3,055	9,825
Swansea	6,722	3,046	9,768
Middlesbrough	6,639	2,739	9,378
TOTALS ..	173,656	76,808	250,464
TOTALS ALL PORTS ..	238,697	150,034	388,731

Source: *Board of Trade Journal*.

Southampton, largest of the Channel ports, is the chief port for ocean passenger traffic. It owes its importance to its double tides and easy access from London. A considerable volume of oil is now handled for the refinery at Fawley.

Newcastle upon Tyne and the other Tyne ports serve the industrial North-East and comprise the most important coal-shipping and largest ship-repairing centre in the country.

Hull, on the Humber estuary, serves particularly the industrial centres of Yorkshire and the Midlands. *Middlesbrough* imports iron ore for, and exports iron and steel from, the local iron and steel industries.

Swansea has the largest trade of the group of ports serving South Wales. As well as coal, Swansea exports the steel and tinsplate manufactured in its immediate neighbourhood, but its rapidly increasing importance derives largely from the oil which it imports and exports for local refineries.

Bristol and *Avonmouth* serve the industrial Midlands as well as the highly industrialised city of Bristol itself, and also have a large coastal trade.

Glasgow, the principal Scottish port, serves as an entrepôt centre for the industrial area of central Scotland.

Grangemouth, also in Scotland, handles oil to and from the local refinery, and also imports timber, iron ore, cement, paper-making materials and general cargo.

Belfast is the principal port of Northern Ireland and handles the main Irish Sea traffic.

Ownership

The ports, in some cases docks only, previously owned by the main-line railway companies are now under national ownership and are administered by the British Transport Commission (see pp. 345-8). The Commission owns some 30 per cent of Britain's dock accommodation with a total of over half a million feet of quays. A few of the Commission's ports are docks developed by former canal undertakings, such as the Aire and Calder Navigation which developed Goole. The rest are those formerly owned by the railways. In some cases—e.g., at Southampton and Middlesbrough—the railways owned the main docks in ports where the statutory authority was a harbour board. In other cases—e.g., at Grangemouth, Garston and Grimsby—the port was largely developed by the railway company which was itself the statutory harbour authority. Some railway-owned ports were, and still are, mainly used for the railways' cross-channel services: Folkestone, Harwich, Newhaven, Fishguard, Holyhead, and Heysham are in this category. Among other ports owned by the Commission are Hull, Swansea, Newport, and Cardiff. The shipping arrivals and departures at the Commission's docks, harbours and wharves in 1957 totalled over 102 million net tons, and the total cargo handled was about 64 million tons. At the end of 1957 there were 20,000 people employed there.

Other ports are controlled by a public trust on which are represented users of the port (such as shippers, importers and shipping companies) and other bodies such as Government Departments and local authorities. Examples are London (controlled by the Port of London Authority), Liverpool (Mersey Docks and Harbour Board), Belfast (Belfast Harbour Commissioners) and Glasgow (Clyde Navigation Trust). *The Port of London Authority* has 28 members. Ten of the members are nominated as follows: by the Admiralty (1), the Ministry of Transport and Civil Aviation (2), the London County Council (4), the Corporation of the City of London (2), and the Corporation of Trinity House (1). Eighteen of the members represent various port users: shipowners (8), merchants (8), owners of river craft (1), and public wharfingers (1). The Authority's duties include the maintenance of adequate river channels, the regulation of traffic, the provision and upkeep of moorings and the licensing of wharves and structures in the area under its control. A few ports—Bristol is the most important example—are owned by the town or city council and controlled entirely by a committee of the council.

Finally, there are about 100 ports which are privately owned. Manchester is the only major port so owned—by the Manchester Ship Canal Company—and here the Manchester City Council exercises considerable control by appointing 11 of the Company's 21 directors.

The powers and responsibilities of the port authorities are, in the main, set down in private Acts of Parliament which relate specifically to the ports concerned.

Labour

There are about 150,000 people employed in the operation of British ports. Just under half of these are administrative, clerical and technical staff, and pilots, lightermen and customs officials. Over half are the dock workers (formerly and still popularly called 'dockers') who do the physical work of handling cargo.

Shipping arrivals and departures do not all conform to a regular schedule, with the result that there is sometimes too much work for the dock workers available, sometimes too little. Dock labour was therefore largely casual labour until 1941, when war-time schemes were introduced to control the port registers of employers and workers. The war-time schemes were superseded in 1947 by a permanent scheme administered by the *National Dock Labour Board*. Workers on these registers now receive a guaranteed minimum wage even when there is not enough work for

all of them. The Board consists of a chairman, vice-chairman, and eight members appointed by the Minister of Labour and National Service, four to represent employers and four to represent dock workers.

Tanker Terminals

Most of the oil tankers coming to the United Kingdom to discharge crude oil are berthed at special tanker terminals situated near the oil refineries and owned and operated by the oil companies. Existing tanker terminals are at Thameshaven, Shellhaven, Coryton and the Isle of Grain, all in the Thames estuary; at Fawley on Southampton Water; at Eastham and Stanlow in the Manchester Ship Canal area; at Heysham in Morecambe Bay in Lancashire; and at Bowling on the river Clyde and Ardrossan on the Firth of Clyde. A new berth, completed in 1958, at the tanker terminal at Finnart, on the Firth of Clyde, can accommodate tankers of up to 100,000 deadweight tons. The Finnart and Bowling terminals on the west coast of Scotland are connected by pipeline to the oil refinery at Grangemouth on the Firth of Forth, on the east coast of Scotland. There are other tanker berths in the rivers Tyne, Tees and Humber on the east coast of England, and in several main ports, such as Swansea.

Several new tanker terminals are either under construction or are planned, including one at Hook in Southampton Water for tankers up to 60,000 deadweight tons; one at Tranmere, in the river Mersey, for tankers up to 65,000 d.w.t.; and two at Milford Haven, in south-west Wales for tankers up to 100,000 d.w.t. The capacity of existing terminals in the Thames and at Southampton is also to be increased by dredging. As some of the larger existing tanker terminals are unable to berth fully laden oil tankers of more than 32,000 d.w.t., these new projects have assumed great importance in meeting the increased size of tankers.

INLAND TRANSPORT

The dense passenger and freight traffic of Great Britain¹ is carried mainly by road and rail, although coastal shipping and, to a lesser extent, inland waterways play an important part in carrying freight, particularly bulk cargoes. Passenger and freight traffic on the domestic services of British airlines is steadily increasing. There are in Great Britain some 19,000 route-miles of railways (51,100 track miles) and nearly 200,000 miles of road, of which only about one-quarter may be classed as main roads. The railway network was developed mainly in the nineteenth century from 1840 onwards (and there are now more railways per square mile in Britain than in any other country, except Belgium), while the building of new roads and the widening and strengthening of old ones to accommodate the increasing motor-vehicle traffic has been, and still is, a feature of the twentieth century.

In 1957, the number of passenger journeys made by public transport (road and rail) in Great Britain was 16,380 million. In addition, in the summer of 1957, over 4 million motor cars and nearly 1½ million motor cycles were licensed for use on the roads. The annual mileage of most of the cars is believed to be between five and ten thousand. Journeys by public transport are mainly short and a great many of them are to and from places of work. The resultant concentration of travel in the morning and evening 'rush hours' constitutes a formidable problem in London and other large centres of population.

A general picture of Great Britain's domestic freight transport system is provided by the figures in Table 25, produced as the result of a special inquiry into goods

¹ For an account of inland transport in Northern Ireland, see pages 357-8.

transport by road made in 1952; they are only rough estimates, but no more accurate or up-to-date figures for the system as a whole exist until the results of a similar investigation, carried out in 1958, are available.

TABLE 25
BRITISH DOMESTIC FREIGHT TRANSPORT, 1952

	Tons Carried <i>Millions</i>	Ton-Mileage <i>Thousand millions</i>	Tons Carried <i>Percentage</i>	Ton-Mileage <i>Percentage</i>
Rail	300 (a)	22	24	43
Road	900	19	72	37
Coastal Shipping	40	10 (b)	3	20
Inland Waterways	10 (a)	0.2	1	—
TOTALS	1,250	51.2	100	100

Source: Paper by K. F. Glover and D. N. Miller, read before the Royal Statistical Society, 28th April, 1954.

(a) Tons originating, including free hauled traffic.

(b) The 'inland equivalent', that is the ton-mileage by inland transport that would result if the coastwise traffic passed by inland means of carriage.

In 1957, British Railways carried 20,878 million net ton-miles¹ of freight (1,513 million net ton-miles less than in 1952) and there were 1,257,000 goods vehicles on the roads (about a quarter of a million more than in 1952) so the share of freight traffic carried by road has increased.

The State has for a long time exercised considerable control over public transport operators, and the scope and degree of regulation in the interest both of public safety and of efficiency has increased steadily throughout the twentieth century.

THE BRITISH TRANSPORT COMMISSION

Today the British Transport Commission has an annual turnover of £700 million and is the largest single employer of labour in the country, employing some 800,000 men and women. Its present role and structure are the result of a series of Transport Acts passed since 1947.

The Transport Acts of 1947, 1953 and 1956

On 1st January, 1948, in accordance with the provisions of the Transport Act of 1947, most of Great Britain's² inland transport system passed into public ownership. On that date, the railways, all railway-owned steamships, docks, hotel and road transport interests, most of the country's canals (including all those owned by the railways) and the whole of London's passenger transport system came under the control of the British Transport Commission, a newly created public authority, which was given the duty of providing an efficient, adequate, economical and properly integrated system of public inland transport and port facilities for

¹ Net ton-miles are calculated by multiplying the tonnage carried by the actual distance it was carried.

² In Northern Ireland public ownership was brought into effect by the Transport Act (Northern Ireland), 1948 (see p. 357).

passengers and goods. In addition, the Commission was to arrange for the gradual acquisition of privately owned long-distance road haulage firms. Road passenger transport outside London was not taken over, but the Commission was given power to prepare area schemes for co-ordinating passenger services by road and rail, including power to acquire road passenger undertakings for this purpose. A considerable amount of road haulage, several waterways and many docks were left outside the Commission's scope.

The Conservative Government which took office in 1951 announced a new policy for the operation of public transport, including decentralisation of the railway administration, greater freedom to adopt normal commercial practice (particularly in charging), the partial return of long-distance road haulage to private enterprise, and the revocation of the Commission's power to make schemes for the co-ordination of road and rail passenger services. The policy was put into effect by the Transport Act of 1953, and the actual reorganisation of the British Transport Commission was completed by 1st January, 1955. A further Act, the Transport (Disposal of Road Haulage Property) Act, 1956, brought to an end the denationalisation of road haulage.

Today the British Transport Commission resembles in organisation, purpose and status a large-scale commercial corporation. It is in keen competition with public and private transport by road, sea and air.

Present Organisation

Under the provisions of the 1947 Act, the British Transport Commission is responsible to the Minister of Transport and Civil Aviation who, in turn, is responsible to Parliament. The Minister appoints the members of the Commission (with the maximum membership of 14 members and a chairman) and is empowered to give general directions to the Commission in the national interest and to approve the general outline of programmes of major development and of training, education and research.

The Commission itself is a policy-making and not a managing body. It works through six policy-making Committees, each dealing with one particular subject in relation to all the Commission's activities, and through Sub-Commissions which are not policy-making but each of which takes a special interest on behalf of the Commission in the activities of one of the 'Divisions' (see below) and serves as a clear and easy channel of approach to the Commission. These Committees and Sub-Commissions are composed of members of the Commission.

There are seven Divisions to carry on various activities of the Commission's undertaking: British Railways, British Road Services, Tilling (bus) Group, Scottish Omnibus Group, British Transport Docks, British Transport Waterways, British Transport Hotels and Catering Services. The management of British Railways is in the hands of six Area Boards (the areas corresponding with the former regions), which leave day-to-day management to the General Managers of the areas. Important matters affecting general policy are reserved to the Commission and are dealt with by the British Railways Division and the Railways Sub-Commission.

Road passenger transport and the underground railways in the London area are operated by the London Transport Executive, which was established as an agent of the British Transport Commission by the Transport Act, 1947.

Since September 1956, the business of British Road Services has been conducted through five limited companies with some 16,000 vehicles altogether. The shares of all these companies are owned by the Commission although two companies may still be disposed of as going concerns. British Road Services' Board of Management controls the operating companies through their Boards of Directors.

Consultation with coastal shipping operators is provided by the Coastal Shipping Advisory Committee, which was set up under the 1947 Act to consider, and from time to time to report to the Minister on, all matters jointly affecting the interests of the British Transport Commission and those of coastal shipping. The 1953 Act extended the scope of the Committee's work to include road haulage. The members of this committee are appointed by the Minister from the Commission and from among representatives of coastal shipping after consultation with interests concerned; it is intended to arrange for road haulage interests to be represented on the committee. The Commission also consults with the operators of coastal liners on questions of rates and charges at the Coasting Liner Conference.

Finance

An annual report and statement of accounts is submitted to the Minister who lays it before Parliament. The Commission reported in 1956 that it had earned a working surplus in every year since it came into being in 1948, but in several of those years the surplus earned was insufficient to meet the central charges of the Commission, which include central administrative expenses and interest on stock. The Commission is permitted to balance its accounts 'taking one year with another', but at the end of 1954 it had an accumulated deficit of £39 million. By the end of 1956 the deficit had increased to over £120 million, and by the end of 1957 to £188 million. The Commission is confident that the various corrective measures that it has in hand, particularly projects that will be completed early in the railway modernisation programme, will bring its financial position into balance by 1961 or 1962. Meanwhile, in order to place the organisation on a sound financial basis during the critical years of reconstruction, the Government, under the Transport (Railway Finances) Act, 1957, is making special advances to the Commission up to £250 million to meet the annual revenue deficits for this limited period. The advances made are liable to interest and will be repaid in instalments. The Commission's total borrowing powers are limited to £600 million.

Transport Tribunal

The Transport Tribunal, set up under the 1947 Act, has jurisdiction over the charges schemes which govern the maximum charges which the British Transport Commission may make on British Railways, on the road and rail services provided by the London Transport Executive, at its docks, and by tolls for the use of inland waterways. The Tribunal replaced the Railway Rates Tribunal and has also taken over responsibilities from certain other statutory bodies. Appeals arising from applications for road haulage (goods vehicles) licences are heard by the Tribunal and it has other duties relating to harbours and canals.

Transport Users' Consultative Committees

There are eleven Area Transport Users' Consultative Committees and a Central Transport Consultative Committee for Great Britain, which were set up under the 1947 Act, to give transport users an opportunity of putting forward criticisms and constructive suggestions for improving transport services provided by the Commission. The members of these committees are appointed by the Minister, after consultation with interests concerned, to represent commerce, industry, agriculture, labour, local authorities and the British Transport Commission itself. The area committees in England report to the Central Committee, which reports to the Commission and the Minister, who may give directions to the Commission upon any matter dealt with by a recommendation of the Central Committee. Since 1953, the Scottish and Welsh Committees also report direct to the Minister. Matters

dealt with include the British Transport Commission's proposals for closing branch railway lines, withdrawing passenger train services, closing stations, and complaints by the public of inadequacy of services or facilities.

RAILWAYS

For a hundred years Great Britain has had a widespread railway network and, despite the vast and rapid growth of road and air transport in recent times, the railways remain a vital part of the country's transport system. The passenger services alone show how important a role the railways have to play in this system, particularly in comparison with the role of railways in some other countries. For instance, the services of British Railways' Southern Region carry annually almost the same number of passengers as all the Class I railways of the United States of America, although, of course, the average length of journey is much less. The urban and suburban passenger services for London, Glasgow, South Lancashire and Birmingham carry about 1½ million passengers a day, mainly to and from their work in brief rush hour periods. These services account for about half the annual total of 1,100 million passengers on British Railways. The railways are also indispensable to a great part of the basic freight traffic. Every day British Railways haul a total of nearly 60 million ton-miles of freight and the flexibility of their operations enables them to deal with sudden heavy movements of bulk freight such as coal, or crops at harvest time. In 1957 British Railways carried a total of 274 million tons of freight.

Britain was the pioneer of railway development which was so essential to industrial and commercial expansion. Railroads were in use around pits and ironworks by the end of the sixteenth century, but the trucks were mainly drawn by horses. In the early nineteenth century, various British engineers showed how locomotives could be used and George Stephenson was responsible for improved locomotive design. In 1825, the Stockton to Darlington railway was opened as the first public railroad on which locomotives were used. This was followed by the Liverpool and Manchester railway of 1830 on which George Stephenson's famous 'Rocket' locomotive was employed. The great period of railway building was from 1840 to 1875, with a short lull following the collapse of the speculative railway boom in 1846. Government intervention began in 1846 with an Act of Parliament prescribing a standard gauge of 4 feet 8½ inches for all new lines except extensions of the Great Western Railway, which then had a gauge of 7 feet ; it was not completely converted to the standard gauge until 1892. During the 1840s and 1850s some railway companies were amalgamated and arrangements were made between the others to facilitate through traffic from one company's system to that of another. The Railway and Canal Traffic Act of 1854 obliged the companies to provide reasonable facilities and to avoid undue preference between users. The Railway and Canal Traffic Act of 1888 drew up a standard freight classification and schedules of maximum freight charges which came into operation in 1893 ; alterations in rates had to be approved by a Railway and Canal Commission.

During the first world war the railways all came under centralised Government direction through a Railway Executive Committee. This experience served to emphasise the need for concentration and a comprehensive reorganisation of the system. Accordingly, the Railways Act of 1921 amalgamated 123 companies into four large groups: the London, Midland and Scottish, London and North Eastern, Great Western, and Southern. The Railway Rates Tribunal, which was established to take over the functions of the Railway and Canal Commission, was entrusted with the duty of carrying out an annual review of standard rates and fares which were to be adjusted with reference to the principle of maintaining to the companies a standard net revenue equivalent to that of 1913. In the inter-war years, the railways

suffered both from the general industrial depression and from the growing competition of road transport, and the standard net revenue was never earned. The railways experienced sharp competition, partly because road transport often offered cheaper and better facilities and partly because the statutory regulation of the railways' charging system led to the loss of some profitable traffics and the retention of unprofitable ones. Proposals made by the railways in 1938 for relief from statutory regulation of charges were overtaken by the outbreak of war in 1939 when the railways again passed under the control of a Government Railway Executive Committee. After the war came the Transport Act of 1947, bringing the railways under public ownership and causing them to be operated as a single enterprise known as British Railways with six Regional sub-divisions—London-Midland, Western, Eastern, Southern, North Eastern, and Scottish. At first they were operated by a Railway Executive, on behalf of the British Transport Commission, but by the Transport Act of 1953 the Executive was abolished and a new organisation was set up (see p. 346).

Staff and Assets of British Railways

The following figures summarise the numbers of staff employed and vehicles, ships and track owned by British Railways at the end of December 1957:

Staff, total number	573,499
including: Administrative Technical and Clerical	75,594
Operative	287,585
Maintenance and Construction	197,116
Permanent Way (standard gauge)						
Railroad mileage (incl. electrified)	18,965
Track mileage (incl. electrified)	51,079
Locomotives						
Steam	16,959
Electric	71
Diesel	144
Diesel-electric	658
Gas-turbine electric	1
Passenger carriages (a)						
Locomotive-hauled	35,474
Diesel multiple-unit stock	1,349
Electric multiple-unit	5,004
Freight vehicles	1,104,891
Ships (b)	130
Net tonnage of ships	80,844
Road vehicles						
Motors and tractors	5,105
Articulated motive units	10,734
Trailers for above..	30,004
Horse-drawn vehicles	457

(a) Including rail motor vehicles.

(b) Including 8 jointly owned and 6 operated but not owned. British Railways operate services on twelve routes to the Continent including two train-ferry services, Harwich-Zeebrugge and Dover-Dunkirk. Services are also operated across the Irish Sea, and on coastal waters and lakes.

At the end of 1957, there were 370 railway refreshment rooms, of which 84 were operated by tenants and 286 by British Transport Hotels and Catering Services, which also operated 36 hotels. Two hotels were operated by tenants. Hotels and catering services staff numbered 15,625.

Development of British Railways

During the first ten years of the British Transport Commission's life, to the end of 1957, capital expenditure on British Railways amounted to about £543 million. Some of this was accounted for by renewals, including arrears inherited from the past. For thirty years the railways had been unable, due to the difficulties of the 1930s, the strain of the war years and the post-war claims from other directions on national resources, to undertake any large schemes of modernisation or, indeed, to keep up an adequate programme of replacement. This past lack of investment is now being remedied by a 15-year modernisation and re-equipment plan, announced by the British Transport Commission in January 1955, which is designed to transform virtually all the services offered by British Railways. The original cost of the plan was estimated at £1,200 million, but it has since been raised to £1,500 million. The Commission expects that the result will ultimately be to improve the financial position of the railways by at least £85 million a year by 1970. The programme is being financed partly from internal sources and partly by the issue of Transport Stock for which a Treasury guarantee is available.

Major features of the programme include re-modelling of passenger operations to provide fast, clean, regular and frequent services (electric or diesel) in all the great urban areas, to accelerate inter-city and main-line trains and to render services on other routes reasonably economic. As regards freight services, operations are to be completely re-cast to speed up movement, reduce costs, provide direct transit for main streams of traffic and to attract to the railways a due proportion of the full-load merchandise traffic which would otherwise be carried by road.

The plan heralds the end of steam traction and aims to carry out as much electrification as possible within the 15-year period. Electrification is going ahead much faster than originally expected, chiefly due to the adoption of the 25kV 50 kilocycle system which constitutes a revolutionary change. It has been decided to electrify, during the plan period, two major trunk-routes—from London (King's Cross) to Leeds, and from London (Euston) to Birmingham, Liverpool and Manchester; to extend electrification from London (Liverpool Street) as far as Ipswich and Harwich; to complete the electrification of the Southern Region east of a line from Portsmouth to Reading; and to carry out additional suburban electrification for London and Glasgow. On the other main lines, diesel locomotives are being introduced as rapidly as possible. Some 20 diesel main-line locomotives were delivered in 1957 and over 130 more are expected to come into service during 1958; about 2,500 such locomotives are to be in operation by the end of the plan period. By end-1958, there were nearly 3,000 multi-unit diesel trains operating on branch lines and stopping services.

A co-ordinated effort to improve the permanent way is being made in all regions. Modern signalling equipment, which has already been installed at York, Cowlairst (Glasgow) and St. Pancras (London), is now being provided at many other places including Victoria (Manchester) and Newcastle. Continuous brakes are being fitted to freight wagons which will make it possible greatly to increase the speed of the freight trains. Big new marshalling yards are being constructed, for example, in Fife to serve the new coalfields, in South Wales for the growing steel industry, and in east London to cater for recent industrial development. New or modernised freight depots are being built at Liverpool, Lincoln, Barking and Peterborough.

Passenger coaches are being improved both in engineering construction and in internal fittings. In 1959, five diesel-electric *de luxe* trains will come into operation on routes from London to Manchester, to Birmingham and Wolverhampton and to Bristol. The plan has set aside some £55 million for modernising some of the many passenger stations; there are 5,000 in England alone. Banbury, Barrow and Plymouth are examples of passenger stations that are being rebuilt.

ROADS

The road system in Britain is complex and its growth has been, to a large extent, haphazard. During the Roman occupation a military road system was constructed, but for centuries after the Romans left Britain in A.D. 410, road works were carried out on a purely local basis and with little regard to long distance traffic. During the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries a system of road maintenance through private enterprise in the form of turnpike trusts became widespread. The maintenance of a length of road was placed in the hands of a trust, made up of private individuals, empowered to levy tolls at the gates it erected at the limits of its jurisdiction. The same period was also notable for the major improvements in road construction carried out by Thomas Telford and John McAdam who laid the foundations of modern road engineering practice. A period of intensive railway development then intervened and the competition from the railways caused the collapse of the turnpike trusts. Legislation passed in the latter half of the nineteenth century vested the responsibility for roads with the county, rural district and urban councils. Construction of new roads was confined almost entirely to the expanding towns. The advent of the motor vehicle made it necessary for the Government to set up a central road authority. Accordingly, the Road Board was established by the Development and Road Improvement Funds Act of 1909. In 1919, the Board's responsibilities were taken over by the newly established Ministry of Transport.

In 1957, Great Britain had 190,151 miles of public highway, over two miles for every square mile of territory. There were 8,271 miles of trunk roads, 19,736 miles of Class I roads, 17,605 miles of Class II roads, 48,849 miles of Class III roads, and 95,690 miles of unclassified roads. Roads are classified according to their traffic value, those of purely local traffic importance remaining unclassified. On maps and signposts the trunk and Class I roads can mostly be identified by the letter 'A' in front of a route number, and Class II roads by the letter 'B'. Trunk roads are the main arteries of national traffic and the whole cost of their upkeep is met from Exchequer funds derived from annual grants voted by Parliament. The Minister of Transport and Civil Aviation is the highway authority for trunk roads in England and Wales and administers approved expenditure on these roads. For Class I, II and III roads the Minister makes grants to cover 75, 60 and 50 per cent respectively of approved expenditure. The highway authorities for these and for unclassified roads are the local authorities—in most cases the councils of counties and county boroughs. In Scotland, the Secretary of State has the same responsibilities for roads as the Minister has in England and Wales.

Development

The heavy demands upon the national economy since the end of the second world war have restricted expenditure on major improvements and new construction. In the early post-war years, the bulk of expenditure on roads was devoted to maintenance and repair, but since 1953 there has been an increased emphasis on new works. In 1954-55, road schemes which would cost £19 million were authorised. In 1955, an expanded programme of road construction was announced. Since

then, annual authorisations for new road works have been increasing rapidly. In 1955-56, road schemes were authorised which will ultimately cost the Exchequer £28 million; in 1956-57, new authorisations totalled £34 million; and in 1957-58, they were an estimated £66 million. In July 1957, it was announced that road works costing a total of £280 million would be authorised for the period 1958-59 to 1961-62; this is the largest programme of road construction undertaken in Britain. All these figures include provision for road works in Scotland but not the complementary expenditure by local authorities.

The Minister of Transport and Civil Aviation has explained the plan of campaign for the road programme. First, to construct as quickly as possible the initial stage of a national network of modern trunk routes; these will be through routes, in many cases confined to motor traffic only. Secondly, to clear away the worst bottlenecks in urban areas and thus to give free outlets from the big cities and from other main sources of traffic to the trunk routes. Thirdly, to press forward with the maximum amount of smaller road works all over the country. The Minister has also announced his intention to give priority as the programme develops to five major routes: a trunk road from London to Newcastle, based on the Great North Road; a motor road from London to Birmingham and Yorkshire; trunk roads from London to the south-east, by-passing the Medway towns, and Maidstone and Ashford; a road from the industrial Midlands to the South Wales ports; and a road from London westwards to London Airport, the west of England and South Wales. In Scotland, the programme includes the reconstruction of the Glasgow to Stirling and Glasgow to Carlisle trunk roads.

Work is in progress on three of the five major routes, the motor road from London to Birmingham which is Britain's first full-length motorway, the Ross Spur motorway which will form part of the link between the South Wales ports and the industrial Midlands, and the Great North Road which is being modernised; a start has also been made on the Maidstone by-pass on the London to Folkestone trunk road. Two other shorter roads are also being built to motorway standards, the Lancaster and the Preston by-passes; the latter was due to be completed before the end of 1958. The £11 million Dartford-Purfleet road tunnel, under the river Thames was begun in 1957 and will be ready for traffic by 1962.

A new road tunnel under the river Tyne, between Newcastle and the sea is to be constructed at a cost of £13 million. In Scotland, the building of a new road bridge across the Firth of Forth began in 1958, and a road tunnel under the river Clyde, begun in 1957, is due to be completed by 1962 at a cost of £6.4 million.

ROAD TRANSPORT

In 1957, there were about 7½ million motor vehicles licensed to use Great Britain's roads. Of these, over 4 million were motor cars, nearly 1½ million were motor cycles, 1¼ million were goods vehicles and 99,000 were public road passenger vehicles (i.e. buses, trams and taxicabs). The transport by road of both passengers and goods has become of great importance in the national transport system and has been the subject of much detailed legislation during the past thirty years.

The first world war greatly stimulated the development of motor vehicles. Public road transport began to make itself felt as a serious competitor of the railways and there was keen competition within the road transport industry itself. The first step towards Government regulation of public road transport was the passing of the London Traffic Act of 1924, which gave the Minister of Transport power to control the number of buses and their journeys in London; this was followed by the setting up of the London Passenger Transport Board in 1933 (see p. 357). In 1928, a Royal Commission was appointed to examine as a whole

the problems that had arisen out of the growth of motor traffic. The recommendations of this Commission led to the introduction of further legislation.

The Road Traffic Act, 1930, removed the old system of licensing public service (i.e. passenger) vehicles by local authorities and set up instead Traffic Areas, of which there are now eleven, covering the whole country and each under the control of three Traffic Commissioners appointed by the Minister. The Commissioners regulate, by means of a licensing system, all public road passenger transport services, and sanction routes and time-tables in order to secure proper co-ordination of services and to eliminate unnecessary competition; they also control fares. Competing operators and local authorities are entitled to raise objections concerning applications to the Commissioners for new licences or the renewal of existing licences. This Act also laid down the maximum hours of work for the drivers of public service and goods vehicles and made a number of provisions for road safety.

The Road and Rail Traffic Act, 1933, based upon the recommendations of the Royal Commission and of an experts' report (the Salter Report) of 1932, established a system of licensing for road haulage vehicles, which is still in operation, designed to restrict vehicle operations to approved needs and to eliminate wasteful competition. A licence has to be secured from the Licensing Authority (who is, in fact, the chairman of the appropriate body of Traffic Commissioners) before a goods vehicle can be used on the road. There are three types of licence: the 'A' licence for general public haulage; the 'B' licence for public haulage limited to certain goods, or certain areas and covering also the carriage of the licensee's own goods; and the 'C' licence for the carriage by traders of their own goods alone. The holders of 'A' and 'B' licences are bound by regulations concerning the fitness and loading of vehicles, the keeping of records and the pay and hours of their employees. Applications for 'A' and 'B' licences are examined by the Licensing Authorities to see if they are necessary in view of existing transport services already available, and competitors may raise objections. There is a right of appeal to the Transport Tribunal (see p. 347) against the decision of the Licensing Authorities. The 'C' licence is granted on application, as of right, but the holder is bound to observe certain conditions, to keep records and to observe statutory driving hours.

The Transport Act of 1947 established the British Transport Commission which took over 'A' and 'B' hauliers predominantly engaged on long-distance haulage. Vehicles operating under 'C' licences and those used for carrying certain specialised traffic were not affected by the Act. After the change of Government in 1951, the Transport Act of 1953 required the Commission to dispose of the bulk of its road haulage undertaking. In 1956, this process was halted by the Transport (Disposal of Road Haulage Property) Act, which enabled the Commission to retain under its control more vehicles than were permitted under the 1953 Act. Altogether, the Commission disposed of 19,000 vehicles. Since September 1956, British Road Services have been conducting their business through the medium of five companies which together own about 16,000 vehicles: British Road Services Ltd. (general haulage); BRS (Pickfords) Ltd. (special traffic and some contracts); BRS (Contracts) Ltd.; BRS (Parcels) Ltd.; and BRS (Meat Haulage) Ltd. The shares of all these companies are owned by the British Transport Commission; those of BRS (Parcels) Ltd. and BRS (Meat Haulage) Ltd. are still subject to disposal at some later date. All vehicles operated by the Commission are subject to the licensing system.

Public Road Passenger Transport

Public road passenger transport in London is dealt with in the section on London Transport (see pp. 356-7). Over the rest of the country there are over ninety separate

urban bus systems owned and operated by the local authorities. The largest of these is in Glasgow, where 813 trams and 1,118 buses and trolleybuses carried some 530 million passengers in 1957-58. In Birmingham, the number of passengers carried in 1957-58 was 462 million and in Manchester it was about 449 million.

The main country bus services are operated by some 50 local concerns, nearly all of which belong to three main groups—British Electric Traction, Tilling, and Scottish. Tilling and Scottish are owned by the British Transport Commission; British Electric Traction is a private concern; the Commission has substantial shareholdings in a number of companies in this group, but no controlling interest. There are also nearly 100 operators of express long-distance day and night coach services, many of which are also under the control of one of the three major groups. In 1957, 4,800 million passenger journeys were made on the buses and coaches operated by local authorities and 5,400 million passenger journeys on those belonging to other operators; these figures exclude the operation of the London Transport Executive (see p. 357).

Road Haulage Industry

At the end of 1957, 1,257,000 goods vehicles were authorised under carriers' licences, consisting of 116,500 under 'A', or contract 'A', licences; 70,500 under 'B' licences; and 1,070,000 under 'C' licences. The number of road haulage vehicles licensed has more than doubled since 1938, and the net ton-mileage performed by road goods vehicles is almost as great as that of the railways. Many of the big industrial centres and the major ports, particularly London, now rely to a great extent on motor goods transport. The number of 'C' licence vehicles has increased threefold since 1938. This class includes a large number of small vehicles used locally in the delivery of groceries and other goods. Other vehicles in this class are engaged in long-distance haulage of the traders' own goods, particularly food, special machinery and equipment, fragile goods, and milk, oil and chemicals in special tanker lorries.

National Road Transport Federation

The National Road Transport Federation is the body which represents all sections of private enterprise road transport. Its member organisations are the Road Haulage Association, representing 'A' and 'B' licence holders, the Traders' Road Transport Association, representing 'C' licence holders, and the Passenger Vehicle Operators' Association, representing operators of public service vehicles, car hire operators and proprietors of taxicabs.

Road Safety Measures

With 7½ million motor vehicles on its roads, Britain has the highest density of traffic in the world. This has brought about serious problems of road safety. In 1957, 5,550 people were killed on the roads and 268,308 injured. This compares with 7,343 persons killed and 231,603 injured in 1934 when there were only 2½ million motor vehicles on the roads—a reflection of the extent to which the problem has been alleviated by road safety measures introduced under the Road Traffic Acts of 1934 and 1956. Among these are a speed limit of 30 miles an hour in built up areas, modified recently by the introduction of a 40-mile-an-hour limit on certain main roads on the outskirts of London; a requirement that all new drivers must pass a driving test, and the provision of a system of pedestrian crossings, including some illuminated by flashing beacons and marked with conspicuous white stripes—hence the name 'zebra crossings'.

In addition, vigorous road safety campaigns are conducted by local authorities with the aid of Government grants. The Royal Society for the Prevention of

Accidents, which acts as agent for the Government in this connection, assists and co-ordinates these campaigns. The police and education authorities are all actively at work in the cause of road safety. The standard of conduct for all road users—pedestrians and drivers—is set out in the *Highway Code*, the third edition of which was published in May 1957. A failure to observe the provisions of this code does not of itself render a person liable to criminal proceedings of any kind but it may be taken into account in any such proceedings. All drivers of motor vehicles—including motor cycles, motor scooters and powered pedal cycles—have to pass a driving test before being granted a substantive licence to drive; until they pass the test they must obtain a 'provisional' licence which necessitates their displaying 'L' (Learner) plates and, in all cases of vehicles constructed to carry passengers, other than pillion passengers, they must be accompanied by a qualified driver.

INLAND WATERWAYS

In 1761, James Brindley completed the Bridgewater Canal to take coal from the collieries owned by the Duke of Bridgewater at Worsley to Manchester. This marked the beginning of canal building in modern Britain which played an important part in promoting the industrial and commercial expansion of the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries. Most of the present network—except, notably, the Manchester Ship Canal which was built between 1888 and 1894—was completed by 1840 when the development of railways brought to an end the golden age of canals. As railway competition developed, many canal companies were reduced to a precarious position, and, often at the instance of the companies, about one-third of the canal mileage passed to the control of the railways. During the first world war, Government control of railways included railway-owned canals. In 1917, the main canals not owned by the railway companies were placed under the control of a Canal Control Committee of the Board of Trade, being returned to their owners at the end of the war. Government control was again the rule in the second world war and, in 1948, the canals passed direct from Government control to the British Transport Commission.

The System

There are some 2,600 miles of navigable inland waterways in Great Britain, nearly all of which belong to the British Transport Commission; although some 400 miles of canals are still in the hands of local authorities or private companies. About 1,000 miles are narrow waterways which can generally be used only by boats not exceeding 7 feet in width, capable of carrying a load varying from 25 to 30 tons. The remainder are broad waterways and canalised rivers which can be used by craft of up to 400 tons capacity. The canals in Scotland are all broad waterways.

The Transport Act of 1947 placed under the jurisdiction of the British Transport Commission 2,170 miles of inland waterways, of which 280 miles have been closed to navigation or abandoned, leaving some 1,890 miles still open, of which 1,420 miles are in commercial use. Since 1955, the canals have been managed separately by the Waterways Division of the Commission, known as British Waterways. For administrative purposes the canals in England and Wales are grouped into four divisions, based on the main navigable river estuaries, each group under a Divisional Manager. In Scotland, the Caledonian Canal and the Crinan Canal each have a separate manager, and the Forth and Clyde, Monkland and Union Canals are grouped together under another manager.

In 1957, total traffic on British Waterways amounted to 9.9 million tons, of which 4.6 million tons were coal, 2 million tons liquids in bulk and 3.3 million tons general cargo. Some two-thirds of the total traffic is carried on 325 miles of the broad waterways, which are mainly canalised rivers (see below).

Although British Waterways is the largest single operator, most of the traffic is handled by independent carriers, or by traders in their own craft. The British Transport Commission, at the end of 1957, owned 23 tugs and 1,200 carrying craft with a carrying capacity of 47,700 tons, including 220 power-driven craft with a carrying capacity of 9,600 tons.

Development

Since assuming control, the British Transport Commission has taken steps to strengthen the commercial organisation so as to secure increased traffic. It has improved dredging methods and equipment, brought better types of craft into service, established a research organisation and undertaken various development works. Following the report, made in 1955, of a specially appointed Board of Survey, a comprehensive five-year development plan was begun in 1956. Under this plan, £5.5 million is being invested in the improvement of navigation and the provision of modern equipment on the seven major waterways that carry most of the traffic—the Aire and Calder Navigation, the Sheffield and South Yorkshire Navigation, the Trent Navigation, the river Lee, the river Severn, the river Weaver, and the Grand Union Canal (in the stretch below Berkhamsted). In addition, since 1955, British Waterways have spent over £500,000 in extending and improving warehousing and terminal facilities, on the building of new traffic craft and the modernisation of existing vessels. Annual maintenance expenditure on the other canals of commercial importance has increased from £582,000 in 1954 to over £745,000 in 1957.

On 28th July, 1958, the report was published of the Committee of Inquiry into Inland Waterways appointed by the Minister of Transport and Civil Aviation in 1956 to examine the future of the country's system of inland waterways. The Committee recommended that 1,300 miles of the British Transport Commission's inland waterways in England should be made an integrated and efficient system of inland navigation. The Committee divided the system into two categories: 380 miles of Class A waterways which currently earn a working surplus, and 930 miles of Class B waterways which currently incur a deficit of £300,000 yearly. The Committee considered that Class A waterways, most of which are benefiting from the Commission's £5.5 million improvement programme, will continue to pay their way and recommended that any surplus should be devoted to their maintenance and further improvement. As regards the Class B waterways which are mainly narrow canals, the Committee recommended that they should be restored over 5 years (at an estimated cost of £3.5 million); that insecurity should be removed by a commitment to maintain the navigable system to prescribed standards for 25 years; and that a system of annual licence fees for each vessel should replace the present system of tolls levied on goods carried. For Scotland, the Committee recommended that the Caledonian and Crinan canals should be kept in being as navigation canals and that the Crinan canal should be improved. Other recommendations concerned the use of the canals for water supply and recreational purposes, and the future administration of the canals.

LONDON TRANSPORT

London is, with Tokyo and New York, one of the world's three largest cities. The area known as Greater London, within a radius of about 15 miles from Charing

Cross, in the centre of London, contains over 8 million people. The London Transport Executive¹ operates and manages, on behalf of the British Transport Commission, all bus, coach and underground railway services in the London area in conjunction with British Railways which provide the main-line and suburban railway services. Some 6,000 taxicabs that ply for hire in the streets are privately operated by companies or owner-drivers and are licensed annually by the Metropolitan Police. London Transport's operations extend beyond Greater London to cover an area of 2,000 square miles (known as the London Passenger Transport Area) with a radius of about 25 miles from Charing Cross and with a population of some 10 million. In 1957, 3,800 million passenger journeys were made on the London Transport system.

London's transport system, in its modern sense, began in 1829 when the first omnibus, horse-drawn, appeared in the London streets. The first regular tram service, also horse-drawn, began in 1870. In 1863, the first underground steam railway, the Metropolitan, was built by digging a great trench for the line and roofing it over. In 1870, the world's first tube railway, the Tower Subway, was constructed under the river Thames; it was cable-operated and ran for only a few months. In 1890, the first electric tube railway in the world was opened, the City and South London line, and this was followed in 1900 by the Central London Railway. Gradually the whole underground system was electrified. Meanwhile, horse-drawn buses and trams were being replaced by motor buses and electric trams.

Until 1933, there were many separate undertakings providing passenger transport facilities in London, but in that year these were all vested in a single public corporation, the London Passenger Transport Board. In 1948, with the establishment of the British Transport Commission, the London Transport Executive took over control.

London Transport's railway network stretches 18 miles from north to south, 32 miles from east to west, and 49 miles from north-west to east. The total length of the railway over which London Transport trains operate is 253 miles, of which a third is underground, including the longest tube tunnel in the world, 17½ miles long. London Transport trains serve 277 stations.

Diesel buses and coaches travel over roads which have a total length of nearly 3,000 miles, and trolleybuses (which use electricity) over 250 miles of road.

To carry traffic over all this area, the London Transport Executive in December 1957 owned 4,000 railway cars, 7,742 buses and coaches, and 1,585 trolleybuses. The total staff employed at the end of 1957 was 86,644, of whom 11,772 were women.

The challenge to the efficiency of London transport presented by this vast traffic is being met by a continuous process of development. Thus, since the end of the war, all remaining trams have been replaced by buses, extensions to the underground railway have been built and more efficient light alloy trains are being introduced. Current development plans include a new tube railway from the north-east to the West End of London, and replacement of most of the remaining trolleybuses by diesel buses.

PUBLIC TRANSPORT IN NORTHERN IRELAND

With the exception of passenger transport in the city of Belfast, which is provided by the Corporation, public road passenger and freight transport and rail services within Northern Ireland are provided by the Ulster Transport Authority, a public body which was established under the Transport Act (Northern Ireland), 1948.

¹ The London Transport Executive consists of a chairman and from four to eight members.

The road passenger section of the Authority's undertaking operates a wide network of omnibus services and an extensive programme of coach tours. The road freight section provides a comprehensive service for the carriage of merchandise of all descriptions (including heavy indivisible loads and livestock) and can supply vehicles under contract for the exclusive use of traders. A chain of hotels is also owned by the Authority.

Since October 1958, when the Authority took over the Northern Ireland section of the Great Northern Railway undertaking, the Authority has operated 336 route miles of railway.

The following figures relate to the Authority's undertaking during the year ended 30th September, 1957; they do not cover the additional 169 route miles of the Great Northern Railway system nor the traffic on that system.

Railway (open for operation)	167 miles
Locomotives	46
Diesel rail cars and trailers	66
Railway coaching vehicles	259
Railway freight vehicles	2,349
Road route mileage (omnibus)	2,620 miles
Omnibuses and coaches	1,042
Goods motor vehicles and trailers	1,300
Passengers carried during year (rail and road)	..	95,651,511
Merchandise carried during year (rail and road)	..	1,577,456 tons
Livestock carried during year (rail and road)	..	956,959 head

Roads

There are 13,688 miles of public roads in Northern Ireland, comprising 348 miles of trunk roads, 960 miles of Class I roads, 1,753 miles of Class II roads, 2,762 miles of Class III roads and 7,865 miles of unclassified roads. The Ministry of Commerce is responsible for the maintenance and improvement of the trunk roads and makes grants from the Road Fund (which is derived from such sources as the proceeds of taxation of mechanically propelled vehicles registered in Northern Ireland and from driving licence fees) to help the local authorities who are responsible for the other roads. During the four years ended 31st March, 1957, a total of £16.6 million was spent on work on all types of roads in Northern Ireland.

CIVIL AVIATION

United Kingdom civil air services are provided by the two public corporations British Overseas Airways Corporation (BOAC) and British European Airways (BEA) and by some 20 independent air transport companies. Most of the regular scheduled air services operated from the United Kingdom are reserved to BOAC and BEA. The independent companies are permitted to operate certain scheduled services as associates of the two Corporations, but by far the greater part of their operations consists of charter work, particularly the carrying of troops. The Corporations may also undertake charter work as opportunity offers, though they do not maintain aircraft specially for this purpose.

The development of United Kingdom civil air services since 1947 is shown in Table 26.

TABLE 26
UNITED KINGDOM AIRWAYS OPERATIONS ON SCHEDULED SERVICES

<i>Domestic Services</i>					
Calendar Years	BEA		Independents		
	Passengers Carried '000	Total Load Short Ton-Miles '000	Passengers Carried '000	Total Load Short Ton-Miles '000	
1947 (a)	342	4,252	—	—	
1949 (a)	453	6,971	61	481	
1952	669	11,087	70	907	
1955	1,212	21,694	220	3,186	
1957	1,237	24,835	350	5,216	
<i>International Services</i>					
Calendar Years	BEA & BOAC		Independents		
	Passengers Carried '000	Total Load Short Ton-Miles '000	Passengers Carried '000	Total Load Short Ton-Miles '000	
1947 (a)	244	61,879	—	—	
1949 (a)	468	87,734	11	293	
1952	1,064	164,203	52	2,370	
1955	1,782	222,924	275	17,030	
1957	1,973	263,885	410	18,737	

Source: Ministry of Transport and Civil Aviation.

(a) Figures for international services in these years include the operations of British South American Airways, which was merged with BOAC in 1949.

Early Development

British airmen were among the first to carry mails (at the time of the Coronation of H.M. King George V in 1911) and among the first to operate regular mail and passenger services. The actual inauguration of British civil air transport came on 25th August, 1919, when a daily passenger service was opened between London (Hounslow) and Paris (Le Bourget) by a company called Aircraft Transport and Travel Limited. The year 1919 was also marked by notable pioneer flights including the crossing of the Atlantic by John Alcock and Arthur Whitten Brown in June (both were later knighted for their achievement) and the first flight between England and Australia by Captain (later Sir) Ross Smith and his crew in November and December.

In 1923, a Civil Air Transport Subsidies Committee recommended the merger of the four existing small British companies into one organisation capable of developing overseas routes. In April 1924, the merger took place and there came into being Imperial Airways Limited, which received a Government grant of £1 million spread over the next ten years. As a substantial shareholder the Government was represented on the Board of Directors.

Imperial Airways Limited proceeded to pioneer the commercial development of intercontinental air routes, following up, in most cases, the exploratory work of the Royal Air Force. Pioneering involved the organisation of ground services upon which civil aviation could rely. The route to the Far East came first. In 1927 a link was established between Cairo and Basra and by 1929 there was a through service from England to India. In 1931, the first service was established to Central Africa. The first mail service between London and Australia was begun in December 1934, followed by a passenger service in 1935.

In 1937, crossings of the Atlantic were made simultaneously by Imperial Airways with the modified 'Empire' class flying-boat and by Pan American Airways. In 1939, Imperial Airways operated an experimental transatlantic service for mail and Pan American Airways operated one for passengers. The British Overseas Airways Corporation was established by the British Overseas Airways Act, 1939, and took over the undertakings of Imperial Airways Limited and British Airways Limited in 1940.

During the second world war, the British Overseas Airways Corporation operated essential overseas air services in support of the war effort. By the end of the war it was carrying more than twice as many passengers as in 1939 and more than three times as much freight. The routes, moreover, had efficient radio and radar systems which had been installed for war purposes and which were adapted for civilian use. There were also about 700 aerodromes in the United Kingdom, although most of them, having been constructed for war purposes away from large towns, were unsuitably placed for civil use.

The one serious obstacle to a continued expansion of British civil air transport after the war was the absence of any new British civil aircraft to take the place of the pre-war types. The British aircraft industry throughout the war had concentrated entirely on the production of fighters and bombers for the Allied Forces, leaving the production of all transport aircraft to the Americans. Since the evolution of a new airliner takes from five to ten years, there was an awkward gap in the natural development of British civil air services which could be filled only by the use of uneconomical converted military types, or the purchase of foreign aircraft. Both these expedients were adopted, together with the use of the highly successful interim short-range *Viking* aircraft, while the British aircraft industry concentrated on the development of the turbo-prop *Viscount* and *Britannia* airliners that are now in service, and the *Comet* turbo-jet airliner that was expected to return to regular commercial service at the end of 1958.

The Role of the Government

Responsibility for the general development and supervision of United Kingdom civil aviation rests with the Minister of Transport and Civil Aviation.¹ The Civil Aviation Act of 1949, which superseded both the Ministry of Civil Aviation Act, 1945, and the Civil Aviation Act, 1946, gives the Minister the duty of 'organising,

¹ Up to 1945, civil aviation was administered by the Department of Civil Aviation of the Air Ministry. Between 1945 and 1953 the Ministry of Civil Aviation was the responsible Government Department and, in October 1953, the Ministries of Civil Aviation and of Transport were amalgamated. In the rest of this section, reference will usually be made only to 'the Minister' or 'the Ministry'.

carrying out and encouraging measures for the development of civil aviation, for the designing, development and production of civil aircraft, for the promotion of safety and efficiency in the use thereof, and for research into questions relating to air navigation'. The supervision of design, development and production of civil aircraft has been delegated to the Ministry of Supply, which is also responsible for the provision of all Service aircraft and carries on an extensive programme of research and development to meet civil and Service needs. The Minister of Transport and Civil Aviation is specifically debarred from 'producing' aircraft and any dealings he may have in aircraft, engines and equipment are subject to Treasury approval.

In the international sphere, the Minister is responsible for participation in the work of the International Civil Aviation Organisation (ICAO) of the United Nations and, with the Foreign Office and the Commonwealth Relations Office, for dealings with other countries in civil aviation matters. He also advises the Colonial Office on civil aviation matters.

The Government's relations with the air corporations and with the independent operators are described on pp. 362-3. There are also three special bodies that advise the Minister in the exercise of certain of his responsibilities: the Air Transport Advisory Council, the Air Registration Board and the Air Safety Board.

The Air Transport Advisory Council. The Council was established by the Civil Aviation Act of 1946 primarily to bring to the Minister's notice important representations from the public concerning any inadequacy in the services provided by the Corporations. The Minister has also given the Council the task of considering and making recommendations to him on applications from independent companies to operate scheduled services as associates of one of the Corporations. Since the Government's decision in 1952 to increase the opportunities available to independent operators, this has provided most of the Council's work.

The Air Registration Board. The Board is an independent non-profit-making limited company to which the Minister has delegated certain functions relating to the design, construction and maintenance of civil aircraft, and which advises him on airworthiness matters. It was set up in 1937 and consists of 18 members, of whom 16 represent the interests concerned with civil aviation and two are appointed by the Minister. The work of the Board includes the investigation by its surveyors of aircraft and their associated equipment for the purpose of making recommendations to the Minister with regard to the issue and renewal of Certificates of Airworthiness. It also undertakes the technical examination of aircraft maintenance engineers, flight engineers and commercial pilots in relation to the issue of appropriate licences.

The Air Safety Board. The Board is a standing advisory body of experts responsible to the Minister for keeping under continuous review the needs of safety in British civil aviation and for recommending measures calculated to promote safety in respect both of the operation of British civil aircraft throughout the world and of the efficiency of the system of ground facilities provided for all civil aircraft operating over the United Kingdom. In exercising his responsibility for safety, the Minister, advised by the Board, regulates the operation of aircraft, the conditions under which passengers and cargo may be carried, the licensing of flight crews, the effectiveness of air traffic control and of navigational aids (see pp. 368-9).

The Corporations: Powers and Constitutions

The British Overseas Airways Corporation (BOAC) was set up in 1939. The Civil Aviation Act, 1946, created two additional public corporations: British European Airways (BEA) to cover the United Kingdom and Europe, and British

South American Airways (BSAA) to operate to South America and the Caribbean. In 1949, BSAA was merged with BOAC by the Air Corporations Act of that year. The existing powers and constitutions of BOAC and BEA are laid down by the Air Corporations Acts 1949 to 1956. Each Corporation consists of a chairman, deputy-chairman and from 5 to 11 members, all of whom are appointed by the Minister. In the case of BOAC the Minister may, if he wishes, appoint two deputy-chairmen.

Statements of accounts in a form approved by the Minister and the Treasury have to be prepared by the Corporations for each financial year. The auditors of the accounts are appointed annually by the Minister. Each Corporation must also make an annual report to the Minister, and the Minister must lay a copy of this report and of the accounts before both Houses of Parliament. In addition, each Corporation must submit before the beginning of every planning period (i.e. each three-year period, beginning at 1st April, 1947) a programme of the services it proposes to provide and of any other activities it proposes to engage in, as well as an estimate of its receipts and expenditure on revenue and capital account during the period.

Finance. Each Corporation may, with Treasury consent, borrow either by raising temporary loans or by issuing stock. The Treasury may guarantee redemption or repayment of, and payment of interest on, any stock issued and temporary loans raised. In addition, the Finance Act, 1956, permitted the Corporations, until 31st March, 1958, to raise money by means of interest-bearing redeemable loans from the Exchequer and these powers were renewed until 31st August, 1959, under the Finance Act, 1958. Under the Air Corporations Act, 1956, the borrowing powers of BOAC and BEA are limited to £160 million and £60 million respectively. This Act also provides that BOAC may, with the consent of the Treasury, borrow from the International Bank or the Export-Import Bank of Washington in order to buy aircraft manufactured in the United States of America and spare parts and equipment for such aircraft. Provision was made in earlier Acts for Exchequer grants up to a limit of £8 million a year (for both Corporations together) until April 1956, so as to enable the Corporations to build up their organisation and services over a period of years. (For 1946-47 and 1947-48 the maximum was £10 million each year.) BOAC has operated without Exchequer grant since 1952-53 and BEA since 1955-56. The Corporations are not exempt from liability for any taxes or rates.

Ministerial Control. The Corporations conduct their own affairs as commercial businesses. The Minister can give general directions on matters affecting the national interest but in practice this power is rarely, if ever, used, since it has been found much more suitable to proceed by means of close consultation and discussion with the Corporations. In fact, the Minister has maintained closer control over them than has been the case for the other nationalised industries. During the Exchequer grant period (1946-56) the Minister had to decide in consultation with the Treasury the grants which, within the ceiling of £8 million, should be given to each Corporation in any particular year. This necessitated examination of the Corporations' programmes of air services and financial estimates. The Minister also keeps in touch with the Corporations regarding plans for new aircraft and new routes since he has to negotiate the necessary rights with foreign governments. He also provides most of the aerodromes from which the Corporations operate and the navigational aids and communications necessary to the conduct of their flights. Contact between the Corporations and the Ministry consists mainly of daily informal exchanges of information between their staffs.

Labour Relations. Each Corporation must, unless it is satisfied that adequate

machinery already exists, consult with any organisation which it considers appropriate with a view to establishing machinery for settling terms and conditions of employment and for discussing matters affecting the safety, health and welfare of its employees and other matters of interest to both parties, including efficiency in operating the Corporation's services. In 1946, the *National Joint Council for Civil Air Transport* was set up as the body through which terms and conditions of service between the Corporations and the 18 trade unions representing the employees are negotiated. A number of the independent air transport companies have since become members of the Council.

Government Policy for Independent Airline Companies

The policy of the Government is to achieve a fair and reasonable balance between the Air Corporations and the independent operators. Charter work has been the main province of the independent companies, but, since 1948, they have been permitted to operate scheduled services under associate agreements with the Corporations. At first, these agreements were mostly of short duration and limited to comparatively few internal and European routes that the Corporations did not intend to operate. In 1952, however, the Government introduced a new air services policy designed to combine public and private enterprise in the best interests of British civil aviation. It aimed to help forward the sound development of civil aviation, to reduce the cost to the taxpayer and to give greater opportunities to private enterprise without impairing the competitive strength of Britain's international services and without undermining the existing international networks of BOAC and BEA.

Independent companies seeking to operate scheduled services as associates of one of the Corporations must apply to the Air Transport Advisory Council which, under its terms of reference received from the Minister in July 1952, must reserve to the Corporations the right to provide both first and second (or tourist) class services on their existing international networks. Independent companies and the Corporations alike, however, are eligible to apply for the right to develop new routes not so reserved and new types of scheduled services. In particular, the new policy allowed for the development of a less costly class of service than the normal scheduled services which would be of such a nature as to generate a new class of passenger traffic without material diversion of traffic from existing services. The air services that the independent companies have developed during the years since 1952 are described on pp. 366-7.

The Air Transport Advisory Council considers applications in the light of its terms of reference and, after hearing evidence from interested parties, makes recommendations to the Minister. Approval of the regular scheduled services (but not the seasonal scheduled services) of independent companies operating as associates of the Corporations is now normally given for seven years with extension to ten years in special circumstances, for example, where the purchase of new aircraft is involved. In this way, it is intended to give independent companies sufficient long-term security to justify capital outlay and expansion.

Operations

The latest available information about the services, fleets and results of the two Corporations, and the activities of the independent companies are summarised below.

British Overseas Airways Corporation

The British Overseas Airways Corporation (BOAC) operates scheduled services to the Middle and Far East and to Australia, with terminals at Sydney, Tokyo, Hong Kong, Singapore, Karachi, Bahrain, and Aden; to Africa with terminals at

Johannesburg, Nairobi, and Accra/Lagos; and to North America and the Caribbean with terminals at New York, Chicago, San Francisco, Montreal, Jamaica and Trinidad. The service to Trinidad was due to be extended to Caracas and Bogota, in South America, in the autumn of 1958. There are regional services between New York and Bermuda, Nassau and Jamaica; these services operate as extensions of the London-New York route. The routes to Central and South Africa are operated in pool-partnership with Central African Airways and South African Airways. Services to West Africa and East Africa are similarly operated in pool-partnership with Ghana Airways, the West African Airways Corporation (Nigeria) Ltd., and the East African Airways Corporation, respectively. Services to Sydney via the Middle and Far East continue to be operated in pool-partnership with Qantas Empire Airways of Australia. Qantas carries on the service from Australia by operating services across the Pacific, the United States and the Atlantic to the United Kingdom, thus providing a Commonwealth round-the-world air service; the sector between San Francisco and London is, at present, operated in pool-partnership with BOAC. Tasman Empire Airways, jointly owned by the Australian and New Zealand Governments, operates services between Australia and New Zealand and from New Zealand to Fiji and other islands of the South Pacific.

This network of services is supplemented by the activities of subsidiary and associated enterprises overseas in which BOAC participates financially or with which it has technical or management agreements.

The airlines in which BOAC has a controlling financial interest include *Aden Airways Ltd.*, operating in the southern Red Sea area; *Bahamas Airways Ltd.*, providing services between the islands of the Bahamas and to Florida (USA); *British West Indian Airways Ltd.*, which provides services throughout the Caribbean area; and *Gulf Aviation Company Bahrain Ltd.*, which operates in the Persian Gulf area. Companies with which BOAC is associated either financially or through advisory and other agreements include *Middle East Airlines Company*, which operates services from the Lebanon through the Middle East and to Europe; *Ghana Airways*, the *West African Airways Corporation (Nigeria) Ltd.*, and the *East African Airways Corporation*, serving West and East Africa; *Malayan Airways Ltd.*, which operates services in the Federation of Malaya, Singapore, North Borneo, Brunei and Sarawak; *Hong Kong Airways*; *Cyprus Airways Ltd.*; *Turkish Airlines*; *Iraqi Airways*; *Kuwait Airways*; and *Arab Airways (Jerusalem)*, which provides services for Jordan.¹ BOAC, like BEA, is also associated with *International Aeradio Ltd.* (see p. 369).

To implement its policy of extending the benefits of air travel to a wider public by charging lower fares, BOAC has introduced tourist services on many routes; in 1957-58 tourist passengers accounted for 60.4 per cent of those who travelled on the Corporation's services. In April 1958, BOAC, in common with other airlines, introduced 'economy' class fares, which are 20 per cent below the existing tourist rates, on its North Atlantic services.

On all its services, BOAC carried, in the calendar year 1957, 459,091 passengers, 8,986 tons of freight and 4,335 tons of mail. The figures in 1948 were 115,675 passengers, 2,447 tons of freight and 2,088 tons of mail.

BOAC's fleet in May 1958 consisted of: 15 medium-range Mark 102 *Britannias*; 12 long-range Mark 312 *Britannias*; 16 *Argonauts*; 6 *Constellations*; 16 *Strato-cruisers*; and 10 *DC.7Cs*. In May 1958, orders for the following British aircraft were outstanding: 6 Mark 312 *Britannias*; 19 Mark 4 *Comets*; and 35 Vickers *VC.10s*. In addition, orders had been placed in the United States of America for 15 Boeing jet aircraft.

¹ The information in this paragraph relates to the position at the end of July 1958.

The *Britannia 102* was introduced on BOAC's eastern hemisphere services during 1957. On 19th December, 1957, BOAC's first *Britannia 312* inaugurated the world's first gas-turbine scheduled passenger transatlantic service from London to New York.

The Mark 4 *Comet* turbo-jet airliners were expected to come into service on BOAC's North Atlantic route at the end of 1958 and on BOAC's eastern hemisphere services at the beginning of 1959. The Mark 1 *Comet* (with which the world's first scheduled jet air service was started on 2nd May, 1952) had been progressively introduced into the Corporation's fleet until April 1954 when, following accidents involving total loss, *Comets* were withdrawn from service. Various modifications and improvements in structural design have been incorporated in the *Comet* Mark 4.

In 1951-52, BOAC for the first time made a net profit of £275,000, after payment of interest on capital and before crediting the Exchequer grant in that year of £1.5 million. Since 1952-53 it has operated without Exchequer grant. From 1953-54 to 1956-57 the annual profit varied from £1 million to £117,000. In 1957-58 it suffered what is expected to be a temporary setback and showed a loss of £2.8 million. This loss is attributed mainly to a fall in revenue, due partly to the late delivery of new aircraft and to the recession in North America and also to a level of engineering costs higher than those of comparable foreign air lines.

From 1947-48 to 1957-58, the capacity on BOAC services increased from 89.5 million to 329.7 million capacity ton-miles, operating revenue increased from £14.6 million to £53 million, and operating costs were reduced from 57.7 pence per capacity ton-mile to 38.7 pence.

British European Airways

British European Airways (BEA) is the seventh largest airline in the world judged by the annual number of passengers carried: 2,751,721 in the calendar year 1957, when it operated on its own behalf, in conjunction with its associated companies and subsidiaries, a network of services covering 36,556 unduplicated route miles serving 75 airports in the United Kingdom, Europe and North Africa, within a periphery on which the farthest points to the north, south, west and east are Bergen, Benghazi, Lisbon and Beirut. Its services within the United Kingdom include a number which cannot be operated commercially with the equipment now available, but which meet a vital social need. These include services to the Highlands and Islands of Scotland, and winter services to the Isle of Man. Tourist fares have been introduced on all BEA's routes. BEA maintains a close working relationship with BOAC, whose aircraft of necessity use a number of European stopping points on their way east and south. BEA also co-operates with other airlines in order to create 'through travel' facilities. In addition to 2,751,721 passengers, BEA carried 27,980 tons of freight and 7,532 tons of mail in the year 1957. The figures in 1948 were 511,522 passengers, 2,610 tons of freight and 1,558 tons of mail.

A subsidiary of BEA, *Gibraltar Airways Ltd.*, operates services between Gibraltar and Tangier. BEA is associated financially with *Aer Lingus*, working primarily between the Irish Republic and the United Kingdom; *Aerolinee Italiane Internazionali (Alitalia)*, which operates services within Europe and also to the Sudan, East and South Africa, the Middle East and South America; *Cyprus Airways Ltd.*, on whose behalf BEA under a Charter agreement operates services to Turkey, Greece, the Middle East and North Africa; and *Malta Airways Company Ltd.* BEA is also associated with *Société Internationale de Télécommunications Aéronautiques (SITA)*, a Belgian company which provides communications circuits

for subscribing operators; and, like BOAC, with *International Aeradio Ltd.* (see p. 369).

BEA's fleet in May 1958 comprised 25 *Viscount 701s*, 20 *Viscount 802s*, 12 *Viscount 806s*, 11 *Elizabethans*,¹ 38 *Pionairs*, 7 *Pionair Leopard* freighters, 2 *Herons*, and 3 *Rapides*. Aircraft on order at that date consisted of: 6 *Viscount 806s*, 20 *Vanguards* and 6 Mark 4B *Comets*.

The *Viscount V.701* 'Discovery' class was brought into regular scheduled service on 18th April, 1953, on the routes to Istanbul and Cyprus, thus inaugurating the world's first commercial operations with propeller-turbine aircraft. A larger version of the *Viscount*, the *Viscount 802*, was brought into service in February 1957 between London and Paris. By September 1958, practically all BEA's international services were being operated by *Viscounts*. In 1960, BEA will be taking delivery of the larger and more powerful turbo-propeller *Vanguard*. In the same year it will also inaugurate its first turbo-jet service with the 500 m.p.h. *Comet 4B* which will pave the way for the 600 m.p.h. *DH.121* jet airliner, 24 of which have been ordered by BEA for delivery between 1964 and 1966.

From 1950 to 1956, BEA operated various experimental scheduled services with helicopters in order to obtain experience in the civil operation of helicopters which can be used to assist the design and production of a commercial British helicopter that can be operated economically and also to assist the development of navigational aids and ground facilities. Two British helicopters are being developed—the Westland *Westminster* and the Fairey *Rotodyne* vertical take-off airliner—which may prove suitable for airline service within the next few years.

Over the period 1947–48 to 1957–58, BEA's capacity increased from 22 million to 160 million capacity ton-miles, operating revenue from £4 million to £28.3 million, and total costs were reduced from 83.6 pence per capacity ton-mile to 40.9 pence. BEA is faced with the problem of securing adequate revenue from short-haul routes aggravated by a marked seasonal variation in its traffic.

In 1954–55, BEA achieved its first net profit of £63,000. In 1955–56 it earned a net profit of £603,614, which was sufficient to wipe out its accumulated deficit and leave a surplus of £64,528. In 1956–57, a year of political and economic difficulties, BEA's net profit was £216,770. In 1957–58, BEA achieved a record profit of just over £1 million.

Independent Airline Companies

Because the Air Corporations were already operating services on all the major international routes in 1952, most of the opportunities for the independent companies to undertake scheduled services have been in the operation of secondary routes and the provision of special types of services. The secondary routes on which the independent companies provide passenger services consist mainly of domestic routes and routes from United Kingdom provincial centres to Europe, the Channel Islands, Madeira and the Canary Islands. They also operate third-class services (known as Colonial Coach Class services) to points in the Colonies, and tourist class services to Ghana; these services are provided along routes already covered by the scheduled services of BOAC but the independent operators' services are operated at a lower class as regards type of aircraft, passenger amenities and shorter stage lengths. The special services include vehicle ferry services from the United Kingdom to Europe, inclusive holiday tour services to Europe and to Africa, and all-freight services, also to Europe and Africa.

¹ BEA expected to have sold all the *Elizabethans* before the end of 1958, as these are being replaced by *Viscounts*.

Passenger traffic on the independent companies' scheduled services has risen from 122,000 in 1952 to 760,815 in 1957. The number of cars carried on the vehicle ferry services has risen from 6,797 in 1952 to 46,723 in 1957.

The greater part of the independent companies' operations still consist of general charter work, notably air trooping which accounts for about 60 per cent of the total passenger miles flown by independent airlines on all operations, both scheduled and charter. Other charter work includes the carrying of ships' crews to and from overseas ports; transporting the staff of public or private concerns operating overseas; taking parties to football matches and race meetings in the British Isles; carrying livestock, machinery, foodstuffs, flowers and other valuable, fragile or perishable cargo. There are also several firms that specialise in non-transport aerial activities, notably aerial survey and pest control.

The independent air transport operators have a total fleet of 81 four-engined, 212 twin-engined and 142 single-engined aircraft. The types include *Viscounts*, *Hermes*, *Yorks*, *Hérons*, *Vikings*, *Dakotas*, *DC.4s*, *Rapides*, *Bristol Freighters* and *Solent* flying boats. Most of the companies are members of the British Independent Air Transport Association Ltd. The larger operators have subsidiary companies abroad, and in some cases provide the management of small foreign airlines. Much charter business is now arranged through the Air Section of the *Baltic Exchange*, the London market for shipping space (see p. 338), where business from any part of the world is handled between brokers representing, on the one side, the owners of aircraft available for hire and, on the other, the prospective shippers of cargo or organisers of passenger trips. Inquiries for the charter of aircraft were first received on the Exchange as long ago as 1925, but it was not until 1947 that an Air Section was formed. To assist the market, the Baltic Exchange set up an air freight advisory committee but this was dissolved on 1st February, 1949, when the *Airbrokers Association* was formed. Among other aims, the Association seeks to promote and establish uniformity in transactions and usages in the airbroking trade, to establish in London a world market for chartering aircraft to carry cargo and passengers, to represent the interests of its members to Government Departments and other bodies, and to provide commercial arbitration machinery for the assistance of its members.

Aerodromes

The Minister is authorised to establish and maintain aerodromes for civil aviation; so may local authorities, subject to the Minister's approval. All aerodromes used for commercial operations are subject to the Minister's licensing, inspection and regulation. The Minister is jointly responsible with the Minister of Health for sanitary control at his aerodromes, and he assists the appropriate Departments in the application of customs and immigration regulations.

There are approximately 100 civil aerodromes in the United Kingdom and, in addition, about 70 Service aerodromes are available for civil use. Those under civil control include 26 directly controlled by the Ministry, three in the Channel Islands and one in the Isle of Man administered by the local island governments, and 25 aerodromes licensed for public use, of which 15 are owned by municipalities. Customs facilities are provided at 13 of the Ministry's aerodromes and at 9 others.

The main airports used by international scheduled services in 1957-58 were:

- for European services: London, Renfrew, Birmingham (Elmdon) and Manchester (Ringway);
- for North Atlantic services: London, Prestwick, and Manchester (Ringway);
- for Middle East, African and Far East services: London.

Aircraft and passenger movements at the principal aerodromes continue to increase. In 1957, all United Kingdom civil aerodromes handled 7 million passengers. Of this total, London Airport dealt with 3.5 million. Outside the London area, Manchester (Ringway) handled the largest number, 478,000; followed by Glasgow (Renfrew), 436,500; Belfast (Nutt's Corner), 284,100; Prestwick, 260,200; and Isle of Man (Ronaldsway), 246,700. The number of movements of aircraft engaged on commercial transport operations in 1957 was 328,700 for all United Kingdom aerodromes.

Development

London Airport, already the largest and busiest airport in Western Europe, will be strained to capacity within the next few years owing both to the increasing number of passengers and to the increased size of the new jet aircraft that many international airlines will bring into service shortly. A special committee appointed to consider the future of London Airport has proposed a development plan that would involve an expenditure of £17 million. The Government has accepted the committee's recommendations as the framework of future development at London Airport. Most of the European short-haul services are now handled at the new passenger buildings in the central terminal area opened in April 1955. Another passenger building, for the long-haul operators, at present handled at the north terminal, is to be built in the central terminal where additional aircraft stands are also being constructed. The new airport at Gatwick, 25 miles south of London, which was opened by H.M. the Queen on 9th June, 1958, is being developed as the second airport for London. Initially it will be used as the main bad weather alternate to London Airport, and for services to the Channel Islands by BEA and some of the independent operators; eventually many more European services will operate from this airport. Built alongside the main London to Brighton railway, it is the first airport in the world to contain road, rail and air transport in one unit.

Prestwick (near Ayr, in Scotland), the second international airport in the United Kingdom, is to be developed so that it can accommodate the new large jet aircraft. The runways at Ringway airport, near Manchester, have been lengthened and a new terminal building is planned.

Air Traffic Control and Navigation Services

The Ministry of Transport and Civil Aviation is responsible for providing efficient navigation and traffic control services for all civil aircraft flying over or near the United Kingdom. Meteorological information is provided by the Air Ministry. The Ministry of Transport and Civil Aviation's Air Traffic Control Service is responsible for the safe, orderly and expeditious movement of all civil airliners flying into the United Kingdom along the corridors of controlled airspace called airways. The Ministry introduced a system of airways covering the main traffic routes and associated with controlled zones around the major airports in 1950. During 1957 and 1958 a revised and extended airways system was brought into use.

There are three main air traffic control centres, operated jointly by the Ministry's Air Traffic Control Service and by the Royal Air Force, at London Airport for Southern England, at Preston for the North of England and Wales, and at Prestwick for Scotland and the Atlantic. The Southern Air Traffic Control Centre, situated on the boundary of London Airport, is one of the most advanced control centres in the world.

In order to provide the means by which the Air Traffic Control system can accept the increasingly heavy load of air traffic, the Ministry has provided a variety of

radar installations and equipment. The United Kingdom was the first country to use radar for the control of civil air traffic. The radar approach system known as Ground Controlled Approach (GCA) is now in use at all major airports in the United Kingdom, in addition to the Instrument Landing System (ILS). A series of long-range radar stations that is being set up will extend radar coverage very widely.

The Ministry has provided a number of radio navigational aids, many of them operating on very high frequency (VHF), to help aircraft to remain safely within the controlled airspace and to make accurate estimates of their time of arrival. In addition, the Ministry has supported the Decca Air and Marine Navigator System now operating over a wide area of the United Kingdom and Northern Europe which can be used, by arrangement with the Decca Company, by any aircraft fitted with the appropriate receiving equipment.

Radio stations maintained by the Ministry provide air to ground communications for the use of the Air Traffic Control Service. There is also a network of communications between ground stations in the United Kingdom and between United Kingdom and overseas ground stations.

On routes outside the United Kingdom, British airline operators rely upon ground organisation provided by the countries over which they fly. In January 1947, the Airways Corporations took the initiative in forming a company, registered in the United Kingdom, called *International Aeradio Limited* (IAL), for the purpose of helping countries in need of assistance by providing radio communications, air traffic control and navigational facilities for civil aviation. Airlines of other countries have accepted invitations to become shareholders, and the membership is broadly representative of international civil aviation. IAL operates by entering into contracts with Governments to provide whatever degree of assistance is required to enable States or Administrations to fulfil the international obligations resting on them under the Chicago Convention on Civil Aviation for the provision and maintenance of ground facilities for civil aviation. In 1958, International Aeradio Ltd. was operating, either directly or through subsidiary or associated companies, in 27 countries. It has over 40 overseas stations all over the world as well as at Yeadon (Yorkshire), Cranfield (Bedfordshire) and London in the United Kingdom. In all overseas areas, IAL trains locally engaged staff up to the standards required for the services it provides; this policy has been so successful that more than 80 per cent of overseas staff are locally recruited.

THE POST OFFICE

The Post Office with its staff of some 371,000 is a Government Department. It is also the oldest of Britain's State undertakings. In 1657, under the Protectorate of Cromwell, an Act of Parliament was passed which declared that 'there shall be one general post-office and one officer, styled the Postmaster General of England and Comptroller of the Post Office'.¹

The ministerial head of the Post Office is the Postmaster General who, with the Assistant Postmaster General, is responsible to Parliament for his Department. Under the Postmaster General, the permanent head of the Post Office is the Director General, who is supported by three Deputy Directors General, one of whom is the Comptroller and Accountant General, and an Engineer-in-Chief. At the next level there are eight Directors responsible respectively for Postal Services, Inland Telecommunications, Finance and Accounts, Radio Services,

¹ Charles II declared all Cromwellian Acts null and void at the Restoration, but his Parliament passed a similar Act in 1660.

Mechanisation and Buildings, External Telecommunications, Establishments and Organisation, and Personnel. There is also a Public Relations Officer.

Six of the main divisions of work at Headquarters are carried down into the organisation of three directorates—Scotland, Wales and the Border Counties, and Northern Ireland—each under the control of a Director of the Post Office, and in England, seven regions, each under the control of a Regional Director; London is divided in two regions, one for postal services and one for telecommunications. In the United Kingdom there are 470 head post offices and over 24,000 subordinate post offices, and at 31st March, 1958, some 6,000 telephone exchanges. The Post Office Headquarters is in St. Martin's-le-Grand in the City of London.

The Postmaster General normally presides over meetings of the Post Office Advisory Council, on which the principal users of the Post Office services are represented. In addition, there are about 180 local Post Office Advisory Committees, which represent various local interests; these committees are formed on the initiative of, and are maintained by, the local interests, and are not organs of the Post Office.

The staff at headquarters and in the directorates and regions is divided into two main groups: general Civil Service grades (administrative, executive and clerical) and special grades recruited directly by the Post Office for its engineering and operational activities.

The work of the Post Office falls into two main categories: (1) direct services—mail services, telecommunications, remittance and savings bank business; (2) agency services—broadcasting services and business undertaken on behalf of other Government Departments.

Post Office Finance

Although a Government Department, the Post Office is also a trading concern, and is required to ensure that its income is sufficient to meet its expenditure, taking one year with another. For most of Post Office history, any surplus of income over expenditure has been handed over to the Exchequer. A different procedure was set out in the Report on Post Office Development and Finance, 1955 (*Cmd. 9576*), and became operative in the financial year 1956–57. The Post Office is now required to contribute £5 million a year to the Exchequer—this being broadly the amount which it would pay in general taxation but for its exemption. Any surplus or deficit remaining after this contribution has been made is carried to a General Reserve Account.

Mail Services

The development of postal communications in Britain can be traced from the time when horsemen carried dispatches to the Tudor Court up to modern airmail transport. There was a great expansion in the postal services in the eighteenth century with the introduction of mail-coaches in 1784. In the first half of the nineteenth century, the Post Office was quick to take advantage of Britain's vigorous period of engineering and railway development, and the first dispatch of mails by train was made in 1830 between Liverpool and Manchester.

The heavy charges, based upon the actual distance a letter was carried, were among the factors which inspired Rowland Hill in his great work of postal reform that led to the establishment of a uniform postage rate. In 1840, a uniform inland rate of postage of one penny per half-ounce payable in advance came into operation, prepayment to be made by means of adhesive postage stamps. Since the business world found cheap postage a boon and since it proved ultimately a great financial success, it was imitated by almost every country in the world.

The inauguration of the penny post (the rate remained unchanged until 1918)¹ was followed by a rapid extension of the scope of the postal services, beginning in 1841 with the introduction of the registered post to ensure additional safety for valuable mail. In 1845, Rowland Hill became the permanent head (the Secretary) of the Post Office, and it was during his term of office that the Post Office Savings Bank was established in 1861 to meet the needs of the small investor. The money order system, which had operated as a private venture from 1792 to 1838, was supplemented in 1881 by the issue of postal orders for fixed amounts. Letterboxes had been instituted in London in 1855 to facilitate the increased postal traffic, and in 1883 the parcel post was introduced. By the end of the nineteenth century a regular delivery of letters was assured to every house in Britain. During the twentieth century the volume of mail has steadily increased. In the eighteen years from 1938-39 to 1956-57, the parcel post increased from 185 million items a year to 249 million, registered postal traffic from 62 million to 115 million and other postal correspondence from 8,240 million to 9,700 million. Every day the Post Office handles over 27 million letters and parcels. Each year the Post Office deals with an ever-increasing volume of Christmas mail; during the Christmas-New Year season, 1957-58, more than 821 million letters and cards were posted.

The Post Office's services have been developed to match the needs of the traffic. Improvements include the provision of motor mail vans² serving many districts, postal-sorting carriages on the railways, special mail trains on certain routes and the ingenious apparatus by which bags of mail are delivered and collected by trains running at express speed. For quick transmission of mails within the central area of London, the Post Office has for 30 years operated an automatically controlled underground railway that runs for 6½ miles connecting Paddington in the west with Whitechapel in the east and serving six intermediate stations; a seventh station is under construction. The Post Office has set up a Mechanisation and Buildings Department at Headquarters, particularly to speed the further mechanisation of the postal services and to ensure that new buildings are designed to accommodate mechanisation plant. Attention is being given to the use of electronics in handling the mails.

The Post Office Research Station has developed a partly electronic letter-sorting machine. Twenty prototype machines are being tested at busy centres, and at Norwich all the sorting of small envelopes will be mechanised. A parcel-sorting machine has been developed, and new parcel offices being erected in London, Leeds and Manchester are designed to accommodate units. Field experiments are being carried out with machines for separating letters and packets, and for 'facing' letters, i.e. stacking them with all the stamps in the same corner. Experiments are being undertaken with machines for selling postal orders. The main post offices are being equipped with machines for issuing parcel post labels printed with the appropriate value, and the date and name of the office, thus avoiding the use of stamps and eliminating the operation of cancelling the stamps.

Two large electronic computers are to be provided to process pay data for Post Office employees in the London area. A smaller computer will expedite the documentation relating to engineering stores, and will facilitate the control of stock.

Airmail Services

Railways and motor vans as means of transport for mails are supplemented by ships and aeroplanes. The figures for the year ended March 1957 show that total

¹ The minimum postage rate for inland letters is now 3d. for one ounce.

² In 1919, the Post Office inaugurated its own motor transport fleet with 48 vehicles; this fleet now numbers over 37,000, of which about 14,000 are mail vans.

overseas correspondence amounted to 524 million items, 50 per cent of which travelled by air. First-class mail to all European countries is sent by air or by surface transport, whichever offers earlier delivery, without payment of any air surcharge. The Post Office dispatches about 31 tons of letter mail a week to European destinations by this 'all-up' service, mainly in aircraft of British European Airways, whose network of services enables many of the letters posted in London for Europe to be delivered the following day. The air parcel service now operates to all countries in Europe except Roumania, and about 7 tons of parcel mail are dispatched weekly to Europe by air.

First-class mail and second-class mail are dispatched by air to countries outside Europe upon payment of special airmail rates of postage. Air parcel services are also available to over 150 countries outside Europe. Light-weight air letters costing 6d. each are popular, and 52 million were posted in the year ended March 1957.

Telegraphs

All private telegraph systems in Britain were transferred to the control of the Postmaster General in 1870. Teleprinter-working for the transmission of inland telegrams was introduced generally in 1928 and conversion to the present automatic switching system was completed in mid-1954. It is now one of the most up-to-date systems in the world and gives direct connection between any of the 500 larger telegraph offices. The Post Office accepted 16.8 million inland telegrams in 1956-57, and the average time between handing in an inland telegram and its receipt at the delivery office was 17 minutes, compared with 48 minutes in 1946.

Telex

The Telex Service provides communication between subscribers with the speed of the telephone and the authority of the printed word. The printed copy of the message is produced on the teleprinters at both the sending and receiving subscribers' installations. Calls may be made between telex subscribers in the United Kingdom, and to subscribers in many countries overseas. At the end of March 1958 there were 4,300 inland subscribers; the number of subscribers is increasing rapidly. The inland and overseas services are integrated, and British subscribers have access to some 80,000 subscribers in other countries. The service is available day and night except on a few routes outside Europe, and messages may be transmitted to a subscriber even though his teleprinter is unattended, and thus are available for attention when his office reopens.

The United Kingdom is divided into 50 charging areas, each with its telex centre. The call charges are based on the distance (measured in a straight line) between the telex centres, the minimum charge being for a three-minute call. Calls are connected at telex exchanges, most of which are staffed by telegraphists; but in 1958 the first automatic telex exchanges were opened, and a completely automatic service will be achieved by 1961, when subscribers will be able to dial all calls within the United Kingdom, and many overseas calls, for themselves.

Inland and overseas telegrams may be sent to the Post Office by telex; no charge is made for the calls, and the telegrams are charged for at normal rates. Arrangements can also be made for incoming telegrams to be received by telex.

Telephones

When the Post Office bought the property of the National Telephone Company in 1912 it became the owner of almost the whole telephone service in the country. Local authorities were permitted to operate their own telephone services, but only in Hull has a municipal system survived the difficulties of efficient operation on a small scale. Hull's telephone service is now integrated with, but independent of,

the national system. Local telephone service in the Channel Islands is provided by their Governments' Telephone Departments.

At the end of March 1957, there were 6,000 telephone exchanges in the United Kingdom. There were some 7.25 million telephones, including 70,000 telephone call offices for public use. Four-fifths of the telephones are connected to automatic exchanges. In January 1958, a scheme of simplified charges was introduced as a first step towards the goal of a fully automatic telephone service. A system of national telephone numbers is planned, which will make it possible to dial trunk calls. Trunk dialling by subscribers was due to begin in Bristol by December 1958; by the end of 1960, about forty other towns will have similar equipment and, by 1970, it is hoped that three-quarters of all trunk calls will be dialled by subscribers. The introduction of the new system will constitute the most radical reform of the telephone service since the Post Office assumed national responsibility for it.

In two areas, special punched card equipment is now in use for the preparation of subscribers' telephone bills.

During the year ended 31st March, 1939, the total trunk calls amounted to 112 million; in the year ended 31st March, 1957, the Post Office handled a total of 321 million; of these, 77.5 million were at the cheap night rate, which was instituted in 1934 and extended on 1st July, 1958, to be available from 6 p.m. to 6 a.m., and on Sundays from 2 p.m. The number of local calls handled during the year ended 31st March, 1957, was 3,743 million, an increase of 76 per cent compared with the year 1938-39.

There are several specialised services available by telephone. Well over 90 per cent of subscribers connected to automatic exchanges can use the 999 emergency dialling service. Callers using this service are connected as quickly as possible to the police, ambulance or fire brigade, and in certain coastal districts to lifeboat and coastguard stations. The automatic time service enables callers in 110 cities and towns to obtain the correct time by dialling the three-letter code TIM or a figure code which connects to speaking clocks. A telephone weather forecast service is available in eight cities. In 1958, a telephone information service for summer visitors in London was introduced. Details are provided, in English, French and German, of all important events being held in the capital on the day of the call.

Overseas Telecommunications

All the overseas telephone services from the United Kingdom have for a great many years been developed and operated by the Post Office. The overseas telegraph services, on the other hand, were shared until 1950 between the Post Office and Cable and Wireless Ltd. This company, which was brought into public ownership on 1st January, 1947, had developed a large and valuable telegraph cable network (some 150,000 nautical miles of submarine cable) of world-wide extent, and a large number of radio circuits. Between 1947 and 1951 the Governments of the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, India, Ceylon and Southern Rhodesia took over the operation of the overseas telegraph services in their own countries; in Pakistan, the Government took over these services on 1st July, 1957. Cable and Wireless Ltd. retained its cable network and continued to operate its cable and wireless service in many Colonial and foreign territories. With the acquisition of the Company's United Kingdom services, the Post Office operates all overseas telecommunications services from the United Kingdom, except for those provided by foreign telegraph companies.

The overseas telegraph, telex and telephone services are operated, under the general title of *Post Office Cable and Wireless Services*, through five London stations having international circuits.

Telegraphs. Most of the telegraph services to European countries are worked from the Central Telegraph Office in St. Martin's-le-Grand, London, from which there are direct circuits to most countries on the Continent. The services to countries outside Europe, some services to Europe, and the picture telegraph service, are operated from Electra House, Victoria Embankment, London. In the year ended 31st March, 1957, the Post Office transmitted 12 million telegrams to countries abroad and received a similar number.

Telex. The International Telex Exchange, in the Central Telegraph Office, provides a teleprinter service to 34 countries abroad. In 1956-57, 1.4 million outgoing international calls were made.

Telephones. Telephone service to European countries is through the Continental Exchange in London, from which some 612 direct telephone circuits radiate to 20 continental countries. These circuits, over which calls can be connected to almost every country in Europe, are also used to send and receive pictures, and special circuits are used for broadcast transmissions. In 1956-57, over 2 million outgoing calls were made. Automatic dialling by operators to subscribers in certain European countries has been introduced on a small scale, and will be developed progressively. Radio circuits which provide service with most countries outside Europe and with many of the larger liners at sea are connected through the International Exchange (also in London).

On 25th September, 1956, the first transatlantic telephone cable—also the first long-distance submarine telephone system in the world—was inaugurated. The cable was designed to provide 29 telephone circuits with the United States of America, and six to Canada, but subsequently it proved possible to accommodate two additional telephone circuits, making 30 with the United States and seven with Canada. Still further increase in capacity has since been obtained by splitting certain of the channels into two. Eight circuits are used to provide direct telephone communication between the United States and seven continental countries. In addition to the telephone circuits, the cable carries 22 telegraph channels to Canada, thereby supplementing the existing telegraph cables and improving communications with Australia and New Zealand via Canada. The system provides a secure service that is dependable day and night and quite free from uncertainties, distortions and fadeouts that affect the transatlantic radiotelephone circuits. The whole project was undertaken jointly by the United Kingdom Post Office, the American Telephone and Telegraph Company and the Canadian Overseas Telecommunication Corporation, which jointly maintain it. Before the cable was used, the weekly averages of radio calls between London and Canada and between London and the United States were 530 and 2,320, respectively. At the end of the first year of the new cable's service, traffic had risen to weekly averages of 1,600 and 4,300.

In April 1957, officials of the Governments of Canada and of the United Kingdom, representatives of Cable and Wireless Ltd. and the Canadian Overseas Telecommunication Corporation discussed plans for another transatlantic telephone cable with 60 two-way circuits. This will be laid by the Post Office cable ship H.M.T.S. *Monarch*, and should be completed by 1961. It will be owned by Cable and Wireless Ltd. and the Canadian Overseas Telecommunication Corporation. A new Anglo-Belgian telephone cable was laid in March 1958. The first telephone cable between the United Kingdom and Sweden is to be laid in 1960; the cost is to be shared equally between the United Kingdom Post Office and the Swedish Telecommunications Board. Further extensions of the Commonwealth and other overseas telecommunication services are in progress.

The United Kingdom is a member of the International Telecommunication Union, which is the co-ordinating body for telecommunications throughout the world, and has its headquarters at Geneva.

Ship-to-Shore Radio Communications

In addition to the radio stations for overseas telecommunications, the Post Office has 12 coast radio stations in the United Kingdom. These stations provide for radiotelegraph and radiotelephone communications with ships at sea at ranges of up to some 300 miles. The long-distance radiotelegraph station at Burnham-on-Sea communicates with ships in all parts of the world.

These coast stations play an important part in the services concerned with safety of life at sea. They keep continuous watch on the international radiotelegraph and radiotelephone frequencies for distress calls from ships or aircraft and take immediate action to obtain assistance for any vessel in distress. During 1957, the stations handled 212 urgent and SOS calls from ships and aircraft.

In addition to the services for safety of life at sea, the stations exchange radiotelegrams with ships, connect radiotelephone calls between telephone subscribers ashore and suitably equipped ships, broadcast navigational warnings and weather bulletins, and operate direction-finding services for ships.

The stations also operate a free medical advice service whereby the Master of a ship of any nationality may obtain advice on the treatment to be given in cases of sickness or injury aboard ship. During 1957, the stations dealt with 368 medical messages in this service.

The Post Office Counter: Agency and Direct Services

At the post office counter the citizen can draw his pension (an agency service which started fifty years ago in 1909) and his family allowance, buy a licence for his gun, dog, sound radio or television receiving set, renew his car licence and buy National Insurance stamps. In most of these and many similar transactions the Post Office is an agent for other Government Departments or local authorities. Largely as a result of the extension of social legislation and the widening scope of the social services, the volume of work measured on a time basis at post office counters has increased greatly compared with the total for 1938-39. In the 18 years to 1956-57 the value of transactions with the public increased from just over £1,000 million to £5,085 million. In 1956-57, the Post Office paid out 48 million postal drafts in payment of benefits under the National Insurance Scheme.

Counter sales include also an increasing volume of direct Post Office business: during the year ended 31st March, 1957, about 631 million postal orders were issued by post offices. The work of the Post Office Savings Bank is described in Chapter XII (Finance) on pp. 417-8.

XI. LABOUR

MANPOWER

The total working population of Great Britain at end-June 1958 was just over 24 million, some 48 per cent of the total population, and included about 73 per cent of persons of normal working age (15 years to 59 years for women, 15 years to 64 years for men). In fact, about 96 per cent of British men of working age are today in or seeking gainful work. The remaining 4 per cent consist mainly of those continuing their education, of the severely disabled and of some persons of private means. The proportion of women of working age in or seeking gainful work is much lower, about 49 per cent, as many housewives have no wish to take employment outside the home, or if they have, are prevented by household duties from doing so. Besides those of normal working age, there are more than a million older men and women still at work. The great majority of the working population work for a wage or salary, but between $1\frac{1}{2}$ and $1\frac{3}{4}$ million are employers or self-employed.

The situation in Northern Ireland is markedly different, but as Northern Ireland has under 3 per cent of the United Kingdom population, the figures for Great Britain are broadly representative of the position in the United Kingdom as a whole.

The make-up of the working population has been affected during the century by decreases in both birth and death rates, the result of which has been that the proportion of both the total population and the working population over the age of 35 has increased considerably. Changes in social habits have also had their effect. The minimum working age has been raised to 15 years. The proportion of those over the normal working age who are occupied has declined (though the great increase in the number of older persons has meant that the actual number who are working has increased). The proportion of men aged 20 to 64 who are at work has remained high and fairly uniform. Among women, on the other hand, there has been a steady increase during the century in the proportions employed in the age groups 15 to 59, but this has been offset by the raising of the minimum working age and by a decrease in the proportion of women employed above the age of 59. There has been a considerable increase in the employment of married women during this century, most noticeably in the last twenty years.

The proportion of women at work is generally higher for single than for married women of the same age and for younger as compared with older women of the same marital status. Thus in 1951 only 16 per cent of married women aged 55 to 59 were at work compared with 37 per cent of married women aged 20 to 24. About one-half of the female labour force is under 35 years of age, though an increasing number of middle-aged women have recently been taking work, including part-time work.

The total working population (including men and women in the armed forces) rose considerably during the second world war when housewives, including mothers of young children, manned war factories at great personal inconvenience, while men served in the armed forces. From the end of the war until mid-1947 the size of the working population declined as women left industry. At the same time the expansion of the population of working age, a feature of the British economy for two centuries, slowed down, largely as a result of the low birth rates of the 1930s, and in the case of women it actually halted. Further, the raising of the school-leaving

age in 1947 removed the 14 age group from the working population. However, after remaining fairly steady from mid-1948 to mid-1949, the total working population has been rising slowly, apart from seasonal fluctuations and from checks which occurred in 1952 and in 1957-58. Owing to the high birth rate in the years 1944-49, a fairly rapid increase in the population of working age, and therefore in the working population, is expected in the next five years.

The broad changes in the manpower position in Great Britain between mid-1948 and mid-1958 are shown in Table 27. Figures for mid-1958 are provisional.

TABLE 27

GENERAL MANPOWER POSITION IN GREAT BRITAIN

Thousands

	End- June 1948	End- June 1957	End- June 1958
Total Working Population: (a)			
Men	15,657	16,225	16,166
Women	7,123	7,963	7,904
TOTALS	22,780	24,188	24,070
H.M. Forces (including Women's Services):			
Men	807	687	600
Women	39	15	14
TOTALS	846	702	614
Registered Unemployed: (b)			
Wholly unemployed	273	235	370
Temporarily stopped (c)	9	15	62
Number in Civil Employment:			
Men	14,549	15,367	15,294
Women	7,020	7,878	7,786
TOTALS	21,569	23,245	23,080

Source: Ministry of Labour and National Service.

(a) The total working population represents the estimated total number of persons aged 15 and over who work for pay or gain, or register themselves as available for such work. The total comprises the armed forces, men and women on release leave not yet in employment, all persons—employers and workers on their own account as well as employees—in civil employment (including persons temporarily laid off but still on the employers' pay-rolls) and wholly unemployed persons registered for employment. Part-time workers are counted as full units. Owing to the small numbers now involved (6,000 at end-June 1958), men and women on release leave are not shown separately in the lower half of the Table.

(b) The unemployment figures are end-month estimates.

(c) The figures for the 'temporarily stopped' have been excluded from the computation of the total working population, as they are already included in civil employment.

Deployment of Labour

Nearly 44 per cent of those in civil employment are employed in the mining and manufacturing industries and only about 4½ per cent in agriculture and fisheries, even at the height of summer. Over half of those in manufacturing are in the metals, engineering, vehicles and chemicals groups of industries, in which the total labour force has approximately doubled in the last 20 years.

Most industries employ women as well as men, but there are jobs, such as underground work in coal mines, which are forbidden to women. The industrial groups in which women are chiefly employed are in the metal-using industries, in the manufacture of textiles and clothing, in the food, drink and tobacco industries, and in the distributive trades and professional and miscellaneous services.

An analysis of the total number in civil employment by broad industrial groups is given in Table 28. Figures for mid-1958 are provisional.

TABLE 28
ANALYSIS OF CIVIL EMPLOYMENT IN GREAT BRITAIN

Thousands

Industry or Service	End- June 1948	End- June 1957	End- June 1958
Agriculture and fisheries	1,178	1,025	1,002
Mining and quarrying	876	868	854
Manufacturing industries:			
<i>Chemical and allied trades</i>	441	534	529
<i>Metals, engineering and vehicles</i> ..	3,944	4,618	4,584
<i>Textiles</i>	931	934	864
<i>Clothing</i>	649	678	648
<i>Food, drink and tobacco</i>	750	916	929
<i>Other manufactures</i>	1,422	1,591	1,565
Totals, manufacturing industries	8,137	9,271	9,119
Building and contracting	1,450	1,519	1,495
Gas, electricity and water	321	379	378
Transport and communications ..	1,787	1,723	1,715
Distributive trades	2,484	2,945	2,979
Professional, financial and miscellane- ous services	3,954	4,217	4,247
Central Government Service	682	543	530
Local Government Service	700	755	761
TOTALS IN CIVIL EMPLOYMENT ..	21,569	23,245	23,080

Source: Ministry of Labour and National Service.

The figures in Table 28 include those engaged on administrative and clerical work, so that the numbers engaged on productive processes are smaller than those given for the industries as a whole. The 1951 Censuses of Population showed that less than a third of men at work and less than a quarter of women at work were employed in manual occupations in mining or manufacturing industry. On the other hand, there were in Great Britain at the time of the 1951 Censuses of Population

over 1,400,000 women clerical workers (including typists), over 800,000 in retail trade, over one million women domestic workers or charwomen (including those in hotels, institutions and offices), 500,000 women in various other forms of personal service (including catering), nearly a quarter of a million nurses, and 220,000 women teachers.

Considerable changes in the distribution of persons between various industries and occupations have taken place during the twentieth century. Some short-term changes were brought about by the two world wars and by the severe trade recession and unemployment of the inter-war years, but the following appear to be the main long-term trends:

1. A continuance at a decreasing rate of the decline in agricultural employment which was rapid at the end of the nineteenth century.
2. A general increase in administrative and clerical employment, including public administration, and a very large increase in the employment of women in clerical work, including typing.
3. A decline in employment in certain large old-established industries, notably coalmining and cotton textiles.
4. A very large increase in employment in the metals, engineering and vehicles group of industries and the chemicals group of industries. Employment in these industries approximately doubled between 1931 and 1951. Expansion has been most marked in those sections of the industries making relatively new types of products, e.g., cars, aircraft, electrical and electronic apparatus and plastics. The rate of increase in certain branches of these industries was accelerated during both world wars.
5. A decline in indoor private domestic service in which the number of women employed has fallen by about a million since 1900.
6. A considerable increase in the numbers employed in the distributive trades. This trend was reversed during both world wars—e.g., the number in the distributive trades fell by 930,000 during the last war, and although increasing is still below the 1939 level—but appears to be fairly continuous in time of peace.

Unemployment and Labour Demand

Unemployment in all areas has been very much less than in the period between the two world wars, when the general rate ranged between 9 and 22 per cent. The improvement is due not only to changes in the general economic situation but to specific measures taken by the Government to develop and diversify industry in those areas scheduled as Development Areas (see pp. 241–2). Since the second world war, unemployment has usually ranged between one and two per cent, except during January and February 1947 when, because coal supplies failed, the unemployment rate reached a temporary peak of over 11 per cent (although the average rate for the year was about $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent), and during the textile slump in the second quarter of 1952 when it was 2.3 per cent. The diagram on p. 380 shows the annual unemployment rates from 1922 to 1957.

Unemployment has been mainly short-term. Long-term unemployment has tended to be concentrated among older persons in particular occupations, and in certain localities (largely, but not entirely, in the Development Areas).

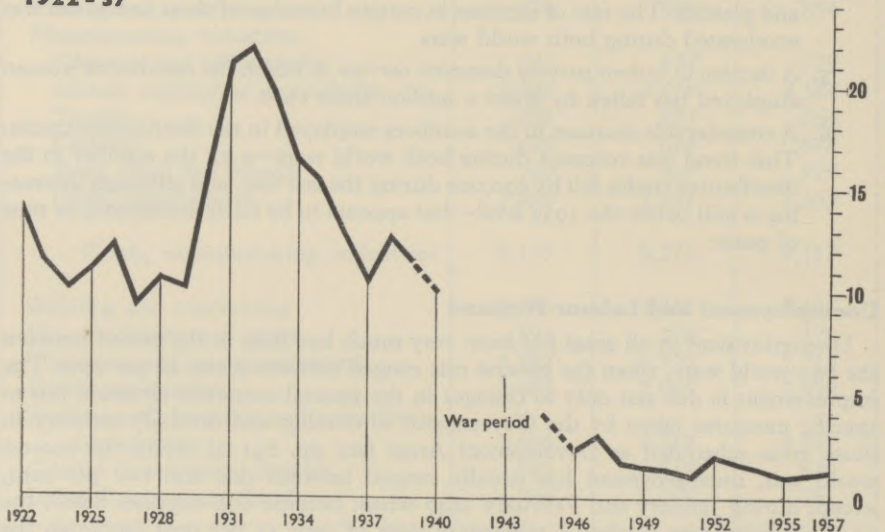
Since the second world war, the number of vacancies on the registers of employment exchanges, in Great Britain as a whole, has usually been greater than the number of unemployed, and the demand for certain types of skilled tradesmen has

far exceeded the supply. The expansion and technological advance of Britain's industry has also increased the need for more scientists, engineers and technicians. Facilities for scientific and technical education are accordingly being expanded (see pp. 160-3 and 194-5).

Towards the end of 1957, however, partly because of Government measures designed to combat inflation and to reduce capital expenditure, there was a slackening in the general demand for labour, and shortages of skilled engineering workers became less pronounced. This situation persisted during the first half of 1958. In consequence, the general unemployment rate rose from 1.5 per cent in mid-December 1957 to 2.1 per cent in mid-May 1958, but fell again, largely because of seasonal influences, to 1.9 per cent in July. The proportion of employees who had been out of work for over 6 months rose from 0.3 to 0.4 per cent during the same period. The increase of unemployment has been unevenly distributed, being relatively severe in Northern Ireland, northern and western Scotland, north-west and south-west Wales, most of Cornwall and certain other areas (mainly coastal) in England. To help alleviate the situation in these areas the Distribution of Industry (Industrial Finance) Act, 1958, was passed and received Royal Assent on 23rd July. This Act empowers the Treasury to give financial assistance to industrial undertakings, both inside and outside the Development Areas, in districts where there is a high rate of unemployment.

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES (Great Britain) 1922 - 57

UNEMPLOYED AS PERCENTAGE
OF INSURED EMPLOYEES



Northern Ireland

The total working population of Northern Ireland—including employers and self-employed, but excluding certain unpaid helpers—is about 570,000, about 40 per cent of the whole population. The Government of Northern Ireland does not at present publish up-to-date monthly estimates of total working population, but, at end-May 1957, the number of male employees was 299,000 and of female employees 177,000. The largest industries are agriculture and textiles. Although the 1957 Census of Employment in agriculture totalled nearly 142,000, most of the

agricultural work in Northern Ireland is done by small farmers and their families without hired help and the number of employees in the industry is only about 20,000. The textile industry, traditionally concerned with linen, now employs about 65,000 people and makes extensive use of man-made fibres as well as natural fibres.

The unemployment rate in Northern Ireland has remained higher than in England, Wales or Scotland. It is currently about 10 per cent of the insured employees and, since 1945, has rarely fallen below 6 per cent. The Ministry of Commerce of the Northern Ireland Government has wide powers (similar to those of the Board of Trade in Development Areas in Great Britain) to assist the development and diversification of industry. It is using these powers vigorously in an attempt to improve the situation (see p. 242).

GOVERNMENT EMPLOYMENT AND TRAINING SERVICES

The provision of employment services in Great Britain has been one of the principal functions of the Ministry of Labour and National Service since its inception in 1916. Northern Ireland has its own legislation in these matters which embodies the main principles of the corresponding legislation in Great Britain, but owing to the much smaller area of administration and the less favourable employment situation, the facilities available are not so comprehensive in their scope as is the case in Great Britain, and administrative arrangements are in some respects on different lines. The responsible Department is the Ministry of Labour and National Insurance.

The following account, therefore, of services in Great Britain applies in general to Northern Ireland except where otherwise stated. The scope of the services in Great Britain has gradually been extended to include the provision of advice on employment and, in suitable cases, of vocational training. The Employment and Training Act, 1948, provided a permanent legislative basis for these wider services. The main services are provided through the country-wide network of some 900 local Employment and Branch Employment Offices, which act as Employment Exchanges. Local Employment Committees, composed of representatives of employers, workers and other local interests, are attached to most Employment Exchanges as advisory bodies to secure for the Department the full benefit of local knowledge and the close co-operation of employers and workers. There are additional services intended to meet the needs of men and women who are qualified, or who are likely to qualify, for professional, administrative, managerial, senior executive and higher technical and scientific posts at home and overseas. These are operated in Great Britain as follows:

1. The Technical and Scientific Register, kept centrally in London, which deals with qualified scientists, engineers, architects and surveyors.
2. Regional Nursing Appointments Offices (11) and Nursing Appointments Offices (over 160), which deal with recruitment for training and employment in nursing, midwifery, radiography, physiotherapy, occupational therapy and medical laboratory technical work.
3. The Professional and Executive Register held at certain of the larger Employment Exchanges of the Ministry of Labour and National Service. At these Exchanges a service is maintained for all other persons qualified for professional and senior executive posts; ex-regular officers of the armed forces; and young men and women suitable for training for management in industry and commerce. Information about this service can be obtained from any local office of the Ministry.

General Services for Adults

All the offices referred to overleaf accept on their registers both employed and unemployed persons seeking employment. Their primary function is to introduce suitable persons seeking employment to employers requiring employees, thus providing an efficient service to employers and job-seekers and meeting the needs of the national economy.

The Employment Exchanges holding the Professional and Executive Register are also ready to give information about the professions and allied occupations to young men and women aged 18 years and over who have not already established themselves in a profession or in the business world, and to older people who wish to change their careers. Information about this service can also be obtained from any local office of the Ministry.

The reduction in the armed forces as a result of the Government's plans for the reorganisation of defence has made necessary a special service to help the many regular officers and other ranks returning to civilian life. A Regular Forces Resettlement Service, assisted by an Advisory Board representative of employers and trade unions, was started within the Ministry of Labour and National Service in 1957.

A special responsibility of the local employment offices is recruitment under the Vocational Training Schemes. Two of these schemes—that for the disabled and that for men and women who need this kind of help if they are to obtain suitable employment after a period of voluntary service in the regular armed forces—are directed to the resettlement of the individual and cover a comprehensive range of skilled trades from agriculture to watch and clock repair, from radio and television servicing to clerical work. Unemployed men and women are also recruited for many of these trades in some circumstances. The third Vocational Training Scheme is directed to the filling of urgent vacancies in industries which are important to the national economy and which at the same time suffer from shortages of skilled labour. Any suitable man or woman without an employable skill may be recruited under this scheme, which comprises about 20 courses including engineering and draughtsmanship.

Training under all these schemes is given mainly at Government Training Centres, of which there are 14 in different parts of Great Britain and, for some trades, in technical colleges or in an employer's establishment. Courses vary in length according to the occupation; most last for six months. Maintenance allowances are paid during training, and men and women with dependants receive higher rates. These maintenance allowances are higher than the rate for unemployment benefit. During the period from the beginning of the post-war training scheme on 2nd July, 1945, to 9th June, 1958, the number of trainees placed in employment was over 137,000.

Training schemes for particular groups of crafts have been drawn up in consultation with representatives of employers and workers, who have agreed that trainees should be accepted in industry for work which makes full use of the knowledge acquired during the course. In trades where it is usual for the employee to provide his own tools he is given these free on taking up a job in his training trade. The job itself is found whenever possible by the Employment Exchange (local office).

The Ministry of Labour and National Service provides a service to industry through its scheme of Training Within Industry for Supervisors. The four programmes which comprise the TWI scheme are: Job Relations, the fostering of good working relationships; Job Instruction, the technique of instructing or directing staff; Job Methods, the steps taken in planning the best way of doing a job; and Job Safety, which seeks to arouse safety consciousness and to train supervisors to detect dangers and deal with them.

The Ministry employs a small staff of TWI officers, whose work is mainly directed to the training of firms' TWI instructors, who then train the supervisors in their own organisations by the group discussion method. The Ministry is prepared to extend a measure of these services to overseas branches of British firms. It is prepared also to train suitable persons to develop the scheme in their own territories. The arrangements may be made by the Government of the country concerned or (where appropriate) by the International Labour Organisation.

In addition, the Ministry's Technical Staff College at Letchworth, Hertfordshire, provides two-week courses in teaching methods for persons responsible for the training of apprentices and other workers. These courses have been made available to all firms and to overseas countries for the training of suitable persons to undertake craft instruction in their own territories.

In recent years it has been the Government's policy, with the support of the representatives of employers' and workpeople's organisations, to promote the employment of older men and women. The National Advisory Committee on the Employment of Older Men and Women, appointed in 1952 by the Minister of Labour and National Service to advise and assist him in carrying out this policy, presented two Reports; the first in October 1953 (*Cmd.* 8963) and the second in December 1955 (*Cmd.* 9628).

The first Report recommended that the following general principles should govern employers' engagement and retirement policy: (1) that the test for engagement should be capacity and not age; and (2) that all who can give effective service should have the opportunity, without regard to age, to continue in work if they so wish. It also made recommendations for overcoming some of the difficulties that might prevent these principles from being applied.

These recommendations were accepted by representatives of employers, workpeople and the nationalised industries on the National Joint Advisory Council (see p. 392), and have been put into practice by the Government and many leading employers. Since the Report was published, evidence has shown a steady increase in the willingness of employers generally to consider older workers for jobs on their merits, and to retain the services of older employees if they wish to remain and can continue to work effectively.

The second Report reviewed the progress made since the first Report and discussed future developments. The Committee recommended that in bringing this Report to the notice of employers and workers the Minister should emphasise the need for firms to examine the age-structure of their establishments, and for industries to promote research into aspects of the employment of older workers.

Services for Foreigners

Foreigners are admitted to the United Kingdom to take up employment with a particular employer, provided they are in possession of a permit issued to the prospective employer by the Ministry of Labour and National Service (the Ministry of Labour and National Insurance for Northern Ireland if the proposed employment is in Northern Ireland). Employment is limited to a maximum of one year in the first instance but may be extended on application by the employer. A foreigner already in the United Kingdom, for example as a visitor, may not enter employment unless official approval has previously been obtained by his prospective employer. Approval is subject to the same conditions and requirements as are applied to the grant of permits to foreigners while still abroad.

The general conditions which must be satisfied before a permit is granted are: that the proposed employment of a foreigner is reasonable and necessary in the circumstances; that adequate efforts have been made by the employer to find suitable

labour from among British subjects (or foreigners long resident in the United Kingdom); and that the wages and conditions of employment proposed for the foreigner are not less favourable than those commonly accorded to British employes for similar work in the district concerned.

In considering applications for permits, various other factors must be considered according to the nature of the proposed employment. Special arrangements have been applied to the admission of foreigners for nursing, teaching, various forms of entertainment, and in particular industries. Permits for unskilled workers in industry are granted only where there is a general shortage of labour. To encourage visits and exchanges of young workers between Britain and other countries, applications from prospective employers for permits for student employes are granted freely under properly sponsored arrangements, organised mostly through unofficial channels.

A foreigner who has been allowed to take employment under a permit, or by official approval when already resident in the United Kingdom, may not change his employment, unless his prospective employer has obtained prior approval from the Ministry to employ the foreigner. From 40,000 to 50,000 permits are issued each year to bring in individual foreigners to work in Britain. Of these, approximately one-half are for domestic workers in hospitals, schools, other institutions and private households, and one-eighth for student employes.

The permit system applies to individual foreigners. In addition, after the second world war, far greater numbers were admitted under various schemes organised by the Ministry of Labour and National Service, notably the resettlement of members of the Polish Forces who felt themselves unable to return to post-war Poland, and the recruitment of European Volunteer Workers from the Displaced Persons' camps in Germany, Austria and Denmark.

More recently, the United Kingdom Government has admitted nearly 22,000 Hungarian refugees who fled from their country following the uprising in October 1956. Over 14,000 of them have remained in the United Kingdom.

It must be stressed that these controls over entry and employment apply only to citizens of foreign countries. Persons from Commonwealth countries and territories overseas (who are British subjects) and citizens of the Irish Republic may enter the United Kingdom at will and are free to seek any employment. As there are no controls, there are no current records of the numbers now resident or in employment, but at the time of the April 1951 Census there were, in the United Kingdom, nearly 600,000 persons born in the Irish Republic and nearly 400,000 born in Commonwealth countries overseas. Since then, the numbers of the latter have certainly increased, partly as the result of a flow of immigrants from the West Indies, West Africa, India and Pakistan, who are now thought to number nearly 200,000.

Youth Employment Service

The Ministry of Labour and National Service is also responsible in Great Britain for two specialised employment services: the Youth Employment Service and the Disablement Resettlement Service.

The purpose of the Youth Employment Service is to help young people leaving school and young workers under 18 years of age at the start of their working life.

The service is under the general direction of the Central Youth Employment Executive, staffed by officers of the Ministry of Labour and National Service, the Ministry of Education and the Scottish Education Department. This joint executive is appointed by the Minister of Labour and National Service, who is responsible to Parliament for the Youth Employment Service as a whole. The Minister has

appointed a National Youth Employment Council and separate Advisory Committees for Scotland and for Wales to advise him on questions relating to the service.

Locally the service is operated in most areas through Youth Employment Offices established by local education authorities (in Scotland by education authorities) in accordance with the schemes submitted by them to the Minister of Labour and National Service and approved by him. In those areas where such schemes are not in operation, the service is operated by the local office of the Ministry of Labour and National Service.

The main functions of the service are to collect and disseminate information on careers, provide talks in schools, give vocational guidance, help to find suitable employment and keep contact with young workers to assist them in settling down. A further function is to assist employers in filling their vacancies for young people. Local Youth Employment Committees, made up of teachers, employers, workers and other appropriate interests, assist the service in an advisory capacity.

In Northern Ireland, the Youth Employment Service is operated by the Ministry of Labour and National Insurance; in addition, local education authorities in some areas provide a Vocational Guidance Service. In these areas, there is close liaison between the Ministry and the authorities.

Disablement Resettlement Service

The Disabled Persons (Employment) Act, 1944, on which all the Ministry's work for disabled persons is based, declares that its purpose is 'to make further and better provision for enabling persons handicapped by disablement to secure employment or work on their own account', and the Disablement Resettlement Service is designed to help disabled persons to get and keep suitable work. The service is available to all persons over school-leaving age who are substantially handicapped as a result of injury, disease or congenital deformity.

The Ministry of Labour and National Service is responsible for the administration of the service. At each of its local offices a Disablement Resettlement Officer, working under the direction of the Manager and in co-operation with other officers, has the special duty of advising and assisting disabled persons in obtaining suitable employment. This officer is in touch with all the hospitals in his area and visits any patient who wishes to discuss the question of future employment. His work involves close co-operation with doctors, local authorities and voluntary welfare agencies.

The help given by the service falls under four main headings:

1. *Vocational Guidance.* This is given at local offices by Disablement Resettlement Officers in consultation, as necessary, with the local Disablement Advisory Committees, Hospital Resettlement Clinics and Medical Interviewing Committees, and also by vocational psychologists in the Industrial Rehabilitation Units (see paragraph 3).

2. *Placing in Ordinary Competitive Employment.* On the basis of a disabled person's qualifications and aptitudes and with medical guidance, the Disablement Resettlement Officer endeavours to find the work most suited to each person, either immediately, or after a course of industrial rehabilitation or vocational training. To a limited extent this is facilitated by the main provision of the Disabled Persons Employment Act, 1944, namely, that all employers of 20 or more persons are required to employ a quota (at present 3 per cent for all industries except fisheries) of registered disabled persons. Registration is voluntary. The number of disabled persons registered at April 1958 was 737,043. At the same date 52,061 registered disabled were unemployed, 48,236 being considered capable of ordinary

employment. This latter figure is estimated as about 6½ per cent of the total number of registered disabled persons. Persons so severely disabled as to be classed as incapable of ordinary employment are to an increasing extent being found work in unsubsidised competitive undertakings by careful selective placement.

3. *Industrial Rehabilitation and Vocational Training.* Industrial rehabilitation is provided at residential and non-residential units run by the Ministry of Labour and National Service where physical and mental toning-up is given and, for those who need it, vocational guidance as to the best kind of employment to take up.¹

There are vocational training facilities for the disabled at Government Training Centres, educational institutions and employers' establishments. For the more seriously disabled there are special residential training colleges run by voluntary organisations with the financial assistance and technical help of the Ministry of Labour and National Service. There are also arrangements for the training of special categories of disabled persons such as the blind.

4. *Sheltered Employment.* Remploy Ltd., a non-profit-making public company, with no share capital, was established in Great Britain in accordance with the provisions of the Disabled Persons (Employment) Act, 1944. Its objects are to provide training and employment facilities for registered disabled persons who are unlikely to obtain work except under special conditions. Its powers are wide enough to cover the provision of special factories and workshops, hostel accommodation and facilities for home workers. The directors are appointed by the Minister of Labour and National Service; funds for capital development and to meet operational costs are provided by loans and grants under the Ministry of Labour Vote. At the end of 1957, Remploy Ltd. operated 90 factories and employed 6,300 severely disabled men and women, including approximately 120 homeworkers.

Facilities for the employment of blind persons are provided by local authorities directly or through voluntary bodies, with the financial assistance of the Ministry of Labour and National Service. At end-December 1957 there were 68 workshops for the blind in which there were 263 blind persons in training and 3,777 in employment. The Ministry also helped to finance the provision of training or employment for 787 severely disabled sighted persons in 42 workshops provided by 35 voluntary undertakings or local authorities. Some 1,200 blind persons were also working at home under homeworkers' schemes.

TERMS OF EMPLOYMENT AND WORKING CONDITIONS

At the beginning of the nineteenth century industrial workers lacked legitimate means of defending their standards of living or of ameliorating their working conditions. The traditional methods of fixing wages had become obsolete, trade unions were regarded as criminal conspiracies, and there was no protective legislation setting minimum standards of safety, health and welfare in places of work.

The first attempt at protective legislation was the Health and Morals of Apprentices Act, 1802, but the first effective Factory Act was that of 1833 which created an inspectorate employed and paid by the central Government to enforce its provisions. Since that date, legislation extending, strengthening, adapting and consolidating the statutory protection for employees has been passed at an accelerating rate. The progress in standards has owed much to the recommendations of strengthened inspectorates, much to the example of progressive employers and much to the persistent pressure of trade unions and disinterested reformers.

¹ For an account of medical rehabilitation of the disabled, see p. 145.

Trade unions ceased to be actionable conspiracies in 1824 but their status as legal entities was not properly established until 1871. This latter step had been made acceptable to public opinion by the leaders of certain craft unions, who had abandoned the revolutionary and financially unsound policies of earlier trade unions to pursue a limited practical objective, i.e. the improvement of their members' wages and conditions through skilful and honest negotiation from positions of financial strength.

After 1880 the organisation of unskilled workers became more extensive and effective and the whole tone of trade unionism became more militant and political. As many employers were still hostile to trade unionism and were unwilling to negotiate with trade unions or to recognise agreements made on an industry-wide basis, many of the first 30 years of the twentieth century were marked by widespread and prolonged strikes. Since 1932, however, the strike rate (in terms of man-days lost) has, in most years, been very much lower, and arrangements for the negotiation of terms of service and the peaceful settlement of disputes have become general and are on the whole satisfactory.

Today, minimum standards have been established by statute or collective agreement for both the terms and conditions of employment and the working conditions of the substantial majority of British workers. The settlement of terms and conditions of employment, however, involves principles, methods and machinery quite different from those for the determination of working conditions. Terms and conditions of employment of the majority of workers are usually settled by collective agreements between employers' associations and trade unions, and the fixing by statute of minimum wages is confined to those trades or industries where the organisation of employers or workers or both is inadequate to negotiate collective agreements and to ensure their observance.

Standards for working conditions, on the other hand, are laid down by statute, e.g., the Factories Acts, 1937 and 1948, and it is the duty of Government inspectors and local authority inspectors to enforce their provisions. The various Acts of Parliament and statutory regulations made thereunder prescribe standards of safety, health and welfare for a large proportion of workers, and regulate the hours of work for women and young persons. Health, safety or welfare requirements, additional to these statutory requirements, have, in some cases, been the subject of collective agreement.

Many employers provide working conditions superior to those prescribed by statute or agreement, and various Government Departments and voluntary bodies advise and assist in improving these standards.

LABOUR RELATIONS

The structure of labour relations in Britain is established mainly on a voluntary basis, and rests on the organisation of employers and workers into employers' associations and trade unions. These organisations¹ discuss and negotiate terms and conditions of employment and other matters affecting the workpeople at their work. In some industries these negotiations are conducted simply by *ad hoc* meetings, which are held when necessary; in others, voluntary joint machinery has been established on a permanent basis. Normally these arrangements for collective bargaining suffice to settle all questions which are raised, but provision is often made for matters not so settled to be referred for settlement to independent arbitration.

¹ The few monopolist employers—the central Government and the public corporations operating the nationalised industries—and some other employers negotiate directly with the trade unions representing their different types of employees.

In certain trades where wages cannot be effectively controlled by voluntary agreement owing to the inadequate organisation of employers or workers, provision has also been made by the State for statutory regulation under the Wages Councils Acts, 1945 to 1948, the Catering Wages Act, 1943, the Agricultural Wages Act, 1948, and the Agricultural Wages (Scotland) Act, 1949.

Employers' Organisations

Many employers in Great Britain are members of employers' associations, some of which have their origins in the nineteenth century. They are generally organised on an 'industry basis', some being purely local in character and dealing with a section of an industry only, while others have a national scope and concern themselves with the whole of an industry. In some cases the local associations are organised into district or national federations.

The central organ of employers' associations is the *British Employers' Confederation*, to which the majority of employers' associations and federations in the principal industries are affiliated. It deals with matters affecting the interests of organised employers in their relations with their workpeople, and is recognised by the Government as the channel of consultation between Government Departments and representatives of private employers as a whole on all such matters.

The Confederation acts for its member organisations in an advisory and consultative capacity, providing them with information and statistics, ascertaining and acting upon their collective views and representing these nationally to the Government and the public, and internationally to such bodies as the International Labour Organisation.

While the main function of employers' organisations consists in the safeguarding of the interests of their members, a number consider that this purpose can be furthered by the provision of advice and assistance to member firms and by such special services as the organisation of general training courses and special courses on, for example, work study and its application. Where employers' organisations do not themselves provide such services they make arrangements for putting their members in touch with the appropriate specialist agency.

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 a great many years, and consequently their form and organisation vary considerably. Trade unions started more than two hundred years ago among the skilled craftsmen and spread later to the general labouring and unskilled classes. More recently trade unionism has increased among clerical, supervisory, technical and administrative workers. A number of associations of professional workers, formed primarily for the preservation and improvement of professional standards, have also come to exercise many of the functions of trade unions, including bargaining about salary and fee scales, and are legally trade unions.

The qualification for membership of some unions is occupational, e.g., they may recruit clerks or fitters wherever employed, while in others the qualification is industrial, i.e. they seek to recruit all persons in an industry, whatever their occupation. In a number of unions recruitment is based on a combination of these principles. A few large unions recruit members in a number of different occupations and industries.

At the end of 1957 the total membership of British trade unions was about 9,700,000. There were 647 separate trade unions, but about two-thirds of all trade unionists were in the 17 largest unions.

The basic unit of organisation in most British trade unions is the local branch or lodge. Every member of the union belongs to a branch or lodge. He may attend its meetings, put forward suggestions about terms and conditions of employment, discuss the work and policy of the union, and take part in the election of branch officers. The branch takes action on certain matters considered purely or mainly of local interest but refers wider issues to the union's national or regional bodies.

Many unions also have shop stewards or other representatives at the place of work to enrol members and collect dues, to report any encroachment on agreed or customary conditions of work and in some cases to act as representatives of members at their place of work for the settlement of grievances.

In most large unions the central organisation is along the following lines. Elected officials, including a General Secretary assisted by clerical and specialist staff, are in charge of the work of the head office and are responsible to a National Executive Council or Committee which may be part-time or full-time, and which is usually elected by, and responsible to, annual or biennial conferences of delegates from the branches.

Executive committees or councils play an important part in the government of the unions; between conferences they are the highest authorities and carry out policy decisions made by delegates.

Most unions also have some kind of regional, district or area organisation, while in large unions there is usually also a system of regional, district or area committees or councils.

Trade unions may affiliate to one or more federations or confederations whose main purpose in most cases is to represent all or most of the trade unions in an industry in negotiation with employers. The scope and authority of these federations and confederations vary greatly in different circumstances.

Nearly all trade unions of any size and importance are affiliated to the *Trades Union Congress* (TUC), the national centre of the British trade union movement. The main exceptions are the National and Local Government Officers Association (NALGO), the National Union of Teachers (NUT), and certain Civil Service staff associations, all of them professional or quasi-professional bodies. The objects of the TUC are to promote the interests of all its affiliated organisations and generally to improve the economic and social conditions of the workers. Its membership comprises 185 organisations, of which about a dozen are federations of some 150 separate unions; approximately 350 unions in all are affiliated directly or indirectly. These represent nearly 8½ million workpeople. 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 at the request of the trade union concerned. The congress of delegates, which constitutes the TUC proper, meets for a week every year to discuss matters of general interest to trade unionists and to employees generally.

It elects annually a General Council which represents it during the remaining 51 weeks of the year. The General Council is responsible for carrying out Congress decisions, for watching economic and social developments, and for providing educational and advisory services. It is also empowered in certain circumstances to mediate in inter-union disputes.

Both the TUC and a number of affiliated trade unions have in recent years paid increasing attention to the education of their members, not only in general economic questions and trade union practice, but also in production and management subjects, including work study and costing. The educational work of the TUC is being considerably expanded. Its new headquarters, Congress House, in London, includes a training college, which aims each year to give some 800 trade unionists courses

lasting one or two weeks on general trade union subjects, on production and management techniques, on industrial finance, on industrial relations and on social insurance.

The TUC also organises week-end schools and summer schools. These are open to members of any affiliated union, usually by nomination from the union. A number of the larger unions hold similar courses. In addition, arrangements are made for union officials to attend courses on production and management at technical colleges. Some unions also make use of industrial consultants for this purpose.

The TUC is recognised by the Government as the channel of consultation between the Government Departments and representatives of organised workers on matters affecting the interests of employees generally.

There is also a separate Scottish Trades Union Congress, to which trade unions may affiliate in respect of their membership in Scotland.

The TUC is a non-political body, but individual trade unions can, by a ballot vote of members, decide to set up a political fund, financed by a separate levy, which any member can refuse to pay without loss of his normal trade union rights and benefits. About 80 trade union organisations, including most of the largest trade unions, have such a fund and, in every case but one, it is used to support the Labour Party.

Branches of various trade unions in a locality generally affiliate to a local trades council, which acts as a forum for the discussion of matters of common interest and as local agent of the TUC, by which it is registered each year. There are more than 500 trades councils in England and Wales alone, grouped together in 22 federations.

Voluntary Joint Negotiating Machinery

At National Level. While in some industries all matters affecting terms and conditions of employment are discussed on an *ad hoc* basis between the employers' organisations and the trade unions concerned, in other industries there are standard procedures for dealing with such matters by joint discussion at a national level. In many industries there are, for this purpose, bodies composed of representatives of both sides of the industry with, in some cases, an independent chairman. Some are known as Joint Industrial Councils, of which there are over 130. The functions of these bodies vary considerably, some being simply negotiating bodies, while others deal with a wide range of subjects affecting the interests of the industry concerned. Provision is sometimes made in the constitution of such bodies that, where it is not found possible to reach agreed terms of settlement in a particular dispute, the matter should be referred to some form of conciliation or arbitration by independent persons, including the methods provided under the Conciliation Act, 1896, or the Industrial Courts Act, 1919.

At District and Factory Level. Similar arrangements exist at district and factory level in many industries, where matters are discussed either between the appropriate representatives of the two sides on an *ad hoc* basis, or through regular machinery provided by District Joint Industrial Councils or similar bodies and Works Councils. Such bodies discuss how agreements reached at a national level may be applied to their district or factory, but as a rule have no power to alter the terms of such national agreements. They also discuss new problems which may arise, and if no solution can be found at factory or district level the matter may be referred to the national body.

Statutory Wage-Regulating Machinery

In certain industries in which, owing to the lack of organisation among employers and workers, voluntary negotiating arrangements do not exist for the effective

settlement of terms and conditions of employment or are inadequate to secure their observance by voluntary methods throughout the industry, statutory bodies known as Wages Councils and Agricultural Wages Boards have been set up. These are composed of equal numbers of representatives of employers and workers in the respective industries, with the addition of certain independent members. Wages Councils are empowered to submit proposals for the fixing of minimum remuneration and of holidays with pay to the Minister of Labour and National Service, who is then required by the Acts concerned to make Orders giving statutory force to such proposals, subject only to his right to return them to the Board or Council for further consideration.

Orders relative to employment in agriculture are made by the appropriate Agricultural Wages Board (England and Wales or Scotland). Such Orders are effective only in the County Agricultural Wages Committee area in respect of which they have been made, but there is a national minimum enforceable in England and Wales and also one for Scotland.

State Provision for Conciliation, Arbitration and Investigation

Matters which prove difficult to settle by negotiation are sometimes referred by agreement to independent conciliators or arbitrators, and one way in which the parties can find such persons is by invoking the help of the Minister of Labour and National Service. Under authority derived from the Conciliation Act, 1896, and the Industrial Courts Act, 1919, the Minister has certain powers to assist industry to settle disputes which it is not found possible to resolve through an industry's own machinery and procedure. These powers are all intended to supplement and not to supersede the industry's own machinery.

To assist conciliation in industry, a staff of conciliation officers forms part of the Ministry of Labour and National Service. The duties of these officers are to keep in touch with the course of relations between employers and workers at national, district, and, in some cases, factory level, and to assist them, if requested, to settle their problems by joint discussion and negotiation.

Disputes which cannot be settled in this way may, at the request of both parties, be referred to voluntary arbitration, either by a single arbitrator, or an *ad hoc* Board of Arbitration, or by the *Industrial Court*, a permanent tribunal established under the Industrial Courts Act. The Court normally consists of three members—the president, one member representing employers and one representing workpeople. At present, provision is also made by an Order under emergency legislation for disputes and 'issues'¹ about terms and conditions of employment to be reported to the Minister in certain circumstances by one of the parties, and to be referred, if all other means of settlement have been exhausted, to an *Industrial Disputes Tribunal*, whose award can be legally enforced. This tribunal consists of a chairman and two other independent members appointed by the Minister of Labour and National Service, together with one member representing employers and one representing workpeople. These representatives are drawn from panels appointed by the Minister after consultation with the British Employers' Confederation and the Trades Union Congress respectively.

The Minister is also empowered to appoint a Court of Inquiry or Committee of Investigation into a dispute, whether existing or apprehended. These procedures are primarily means of informing public opinion of the facts of a dispute and not

¹ A dispute is a disagreement about a proposal to change agreed or recognised terms of employment or conditions of labour. An issue arises from an allegation that a particular employer or group of workers is failing to observe the agreed or recognised terms and conditions of the trade or industry.

means of arbitration. The report of a Court of Inquiry has to be laid before Parliament. Although the recommendations contained in the reports of such bodies are not binding on the parties, they usually provide the basis of a settlement of the difference.

The machinery for negotiation and conciliation of disputes has reduced the need for direct industrial action, i.e. strikes and lock-outs. Time lost by stoppages of work caused by industrial disputes has been substantially less in the last twenty-five years than formerly. Even though two strikes involving exceptionally large numbers of workers made the loss of time in 1957 greater than in any year since 1926, and the time lost through strikes in the first half of 1958 was also exceptionally high, the average time lost per year since 1932 is only $2\frac{1}{2}$ million man-days or about a tenth of a day per worker per year compared with an average of 21 million man-days in the 23 years 1910-32. The reduction has been in the size and duration of strikes and not in their number.

Liaison between the Government and Industry

The Government is in contact with representatives of employers and workers at all levels on matters affecting their common interests. At local and district level the conciliation officers of the Ministry of Labour and National Service keep in touch with the representatives of both sides of industry, while, at national level, officers of the Department attend the meetings of many Joint Industrial Councils as liaison officers. Standing arrangements also exist for consultation between the Government, the British Employers' Confederation and the Trades Union Congress through the *National Joint Advisory Council*, which was set up in 1939 to advise the Government on matters in which employers and workers have a common interest. It meets quarterly under the chairmanship of the Minister of Labour and National Service. Its membership consists of representatives of the British Employers' Confederation and the Trades Union Congress, together with representatives of the managements of nationalised industries. Among the subjects which it has considered in recent years are the machinery for settling industrial disputes, joint consultation in industry, industrial training and recruitment, double-day-shift working, and the economic situation with special reference to production, wages and prices.

Joint Consultation in Industry at Factory Level

In addition to the arrangements already described, the purpose of which is mainly but not exclusively for discussion and settlement of terms and conditions of employment, there are, in many industries, national agreements which recommend the establishment, in firms of sufficient size, of machinery for joint consultation between management and workers on problems of common interest. This generally takes the form of a Works Council. In some industries the constitution and functions of Works Councils are laid down in the agreement, but in others these details have been left to be decided by the individual firms. Even where no national agreement on the subject has been reached, the practice of joint consultation in the factory is becoming increasingly widespread.

The range of subjects which Works Councils can fruitfully discuss is wide and includes hours of work (within the framework of agreements), safety, health, efficiency of production, absenteeism, labour turnover, training, education, recreation and employees' services generally. It is the general practice, however, to exclude all questions relating to wages and conditions of employment, and other matters covered by negotiation between organisations of employers and workers. It is the policy of the Government to foster the development of voluntary joint consultation throughout the industry, not only because of its effect on production but also as

a most important means of maintaining good relationships between management and employees.

At individual factory level, Personnel Management Advisers of the Ministry of Labour and National Service are often approached by firms seeking advice on the establishment of Works Councils or on ways in which their activities can be made more effective.

Labour Relations of Public Authorities

While labour relations in Government service and in the nationalised industries are, in general, organised on the same principles as in private industry, there are some special features.

Non-industrial employees in central Government service, where salaries and conditions of service are under the direct control of the Treasury, are permitted and encouraged to join the appropriate Civil Service staff associations (trade unions) and there is a highly developed system of negotiation and joint consultation by means of the National and Departmental Whitley Councils (see p. 66), corresponding to the Joint Industrial Councils in industry. The two sides of the National Whitley Council are parties to a Civil Service Arbitration Agreement which, subject to certain limitations, provides that if there is failure to reach agreement by negotiation a Department or Association may report the dispute to the Minister of Labour and National Service for reference to the Civil Service Arbitration Tribunal. The Tribunal is an independent one appointed by the Minister by virtue of his powers under the Industrial Courts Act, 1919. Industrial employees of the central Government, however, are organised by trades and not by Departments; negotiations regarding their wages and conditions of employment take place on Trade Joint Councils and Departmental Joint Councils.

In local government services there are separate National Whitley Councils for the main grades of employees (e.g., manual, clerical and technical employees, and road-menders, see p. 73) which deal with wages and conditions of service as well as other matters. There are corresponding Regional and District Councils.

In the nationalised industries, the main corporations, though not subject to detailed governmental control, have a statutory duty to establish satisfactory arrangements for collective bargaining in their industries and for joint consultation with their employees; but in carrying out these duties they are free to choose the arrangements that suit them. In nearly every case a complex system which already existed before nationalisation has been taken over and modified. The arrangements, therefore, as in industry generally, vary substantially. The main difference from private industry is that the corporations are not members of employers' associations. In some industries they are sole or main employers, but even where part of the industry is in private hands, as for example in air or road transport, the corporations are separately and directly represented on wage-negotiating bodies.

Northern Ireland

The system of labour relations in Northern Ireland is based on the same principles as that of Great Britain and, in these matters, the Minister of Labour and National Insurance has powers and duties broadly similar to those of the Minister of Labour and National Service in Great Britain. About 90 per cent of trade unionists in Northern Ireland are members of trade unions whose headquarters are in Great Britain.

WORKING CONDITIONS: THE LEGISLATIVE BACKGROUND

Employers have a duty at common law to take reasonable care of their employees and provide a safe system of working, while employees have a duty of care to each

other. In addition, minimum required standards of safety, health and welfare are laid down in a number of statutes.

The principal Acts involving enforcement of standards of safety, health or welfare are: the Public Health Acts; the Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children Act, 1920; the Children and Young Persons Act, 1933; the Employment of Women and Young Persons Act, 1936; the Young Persons (Employment) Act, 1938; the Factories Acts, 1937 and 1948; the Mines and Quarries Act, 1954; the Shops Act, 1950; and the Agriculture (Safety, Health and Welfare Provisions) Act, 1956. There are a number of other Acts dealing with particular requirements or particular occupations.

Powers of Local Authorities

Local authorities, under the Public Health Acts, have power to regulate the provision of suitable sanitary accommodation in houses and at places of work and to treat workplaces which are dirty or badly ventilated or overcrowded as nuisances whose abatement can be enforced. They have also wide powers under the Children and Young Persons Act, 1933, as modified by the Education Act, 1944, to regulate hours and conditions of employment of children in their areas within the limits laid down by national legislation. Apart from this, national legislation forbids the employment of children under 13 years of age, and forbids the employment of children between the ages of 13 and 15 during school hours, or before 6 a.m. or after 8 p.m. on any day, or for more than two hours on schooldays or on Sundays. The employment of children in any industrial undertaking before they reach the age of 15 is prohibited.

Shops

The Shops Act, 1950, requires local authorities to ensure that shops in their area observe the requirements of the Act with regard to closing hours and the working conditions of employees, which include special requirements about the hours of work of young persons. In general, shops must be closed on weekdays by 8 p.m. (9 p.m. on one late day) except on the early closing day when they must be closed by 1 p.m. With certain exceptions, shops must be closed on Sundays. The hours of work of employees under 16 years of age are restricted to 44 a week, and those of employees between 16 and 18 years of age to 48 a week, with limited provision for overtime. All shop assistants must be given a half-holiday (half a day) every week and, in addition, every Sunday off or another day off instead. Local authorities also have powers to ensure reasonable minimum standards of ventilation, temperature, lighting, sanitary accommodation and washing facilities in shops.

Industrial Premises

About a quarter of a million industrial premises (factories, shipyards, docks and warehouses) and over 25,000 building and civil engineering sites come under the Factories Acts, 1937 and 1948, which are administered by the Ministry of Labour and National Service and enforced by H.M. Inspectorate of Factories, which forms part of the Ministry. Any person intending to use premises as a factory has to notify the Inspector of Factories of his intention not less than one month before he begins to occupy them.

Under the Acts, every accident causing three days' incapacity or more must be reported to H.M. Inspectors of Factories; provision is also made for compulsory notification and investigation of certain industrial poisonings and diseases, and, in addition, a number of general and specific requirements for safety, health and welfare are laid down.

Safety requirements include provisions concerning the fencing of prime movers, transmission machinery and dangerous parts of other machinery; the sale, hire or use

of power-driven machinery without effective guards of certain parts; the cleaning of machinery in motion; the training and supervision of young persons employed at certain machines; the examination of hoists and lifting equipment, steam boilers and steam and air receivers; the construction of floors; precautions against falls, against gassing, and against explosions of inflammable dust or gas; means of escape in case of fire; the protection of the eyes; the handling of dangerous substances; and the lifting of heavy weights.

There are also general requirements with regard to health, including cleanliness of workrooms, the provision and maintenance of proper accommodation and ventilation and of suitable temperatures and lighting, the avoidance of over-crowding and the provision of sanitary accommodation; and with regard to welfare, including the provision of washing facilities, lockers or other accommodation for outdoor clothing, drinking water, first aid and adequate seating arrangements.

All young persons under 18 years of age must, on entry to employment in factories, at docks, or on building operations, be medically examined by doctors appointed by the Chief Inspector of Factories and known as Appointed Factory Doctors (see p. 402), and they must be re-examined annually until they reach the age of 18. The hours permitted to be worked by women and young persons between the ages of 16 and 18 are limited to 48 in a week and 9 in a day, although some overtime is allowed (up to six hours a week but not more than 100 hours a year nor in more than 25 weeks in a year). Young persons under 16 years of age are limited to 44 hours a week. Adequate intervals for meals must be arranged for women and young persons and the employment of women and girls at night is, in general, prohibited. Women and young persons are also prohibited from working in certain specified processes concerned with lead compounds.

These requirements for safety, health and welfare are supplemented or modified by regulations providing for safeguards against special risks to health or safety. The regulations cover particular industries, processes, and types of machinery, and they include provision for the compulsory periodic medical examination of workers in certain specified industrial processes.

Mines and Quarries

The safety, health and welfare of workers in mines and quarries are the subject of comprehensive legislation. Protective legislation in mines began with an Act of 1842, which forbade the employment of women underground; successive measures laid down detailed requirements for the safe conduct of operations and dealt with such matters as ventilation, dust suppression, support of workings, the safe use of electricity, rescue and first aid. The latest stage was reached when the Mines and Quarries Act was passed in 1954. This Act established the basic modern principles of safety, health and welfare, leaving the details to be dealt with in statutory regulations; it both consolidates the previous law and brings it up to date. Apart from technical matters, it also covers such subjects as the general responsibilities of owners and managements, the appointment and duties of officials, training, welfare, the powers of official inspectors, statutory qualifications of managers and under-managers, employment of women and young persons, and inspections on behalf of workmen.

The Ministry of Power is generally responsible for the administration of these enactments, while the Mines and Quarries Inspectorate, which is part of that Ministry, is directly responsible for their enforcement.

Agriculture

In agriculture, special attention has been paid to the protection of workers against risks of poisoning, due to the use of toxic chemicals, and the Agriculture (Poisonous

Substances) Act, 1952, imposed necessary safeguards. The Agriculture (Safety, Health and Welfare Provisions) Act, 1956, provides for securing the safety, health and welfare of persons employed in agriculture by means of regulations made by the ministers concerned with agriculture in Great Britain.

Transport

The general safety legislation covering the main forms of transport protects transport workers as well as members of the public against accidents involving moving vehicles.

The Minister of Transport and Civil Aviation is responsible for the administration of the Merchant Shipping Acts, which cover in great detail the question of marine safety, including navigational procedures, the strength and design of hulls, the safety of machinery, the safety and design of living quarters, life-saving appliances, measures for protection against fire, and the carriage of special cargoes and dangerous goods.

Air safety regulations and orders provide for the registration of aircraft and for the issue of certificates of airworthiness and of competency certificates for aircrew, lay down standards for safety equipment and for safety procedures during take-off, flight and landing, and prescribe maintenance schedules for public transport aircraft. The Minister delegates most of his powers in respect of air safety to an Air Registration Board (see p. 361).

The Minister of Transport and Civil Aviation exercises technical supervision of the safety aspects of railway construction and operation through an inspectorate, whose main functions are statutory approval of new works on railways carrying passenger traffic; accident investigation, including the holding of formal inquiries; and technical advice to the Minister on general railway matters.

In the interests of road safety, the hours of driving and the rest periods of drivers of buses and goods vehicles are regulated by the Road Traffic Acts.

In addition to general safety legislation, there are certain statutory provisions concerned entirely, or mainly, with the safety, health and welfare of employees, for example, railway employees are protected by the Railway Employment (Prevention of Accidents) Act, 1900, and the Statutory Rules and Orders made under it, which sanction the appointment of Railway Employment Inspectors to inquire into the more serious accidents to railway employees and enable the Ministry of Transport and Civil Aviation to require the use of safe plant and appliances, to forbid what is unsafe, and to make rules for safe railway operation. Similarly, the far-reaching and detailed requirements of the Merchant Shipping Acts and the regulations made thereunder include specific provisions for the protection of merchant seamen covering such matters as the engagement and discharge of seamen, limitations on the employment of young persons at sea, standards of crew accommodation, scales of provisions, medicines and medical stores, and the care and repatriation of seamen left behind at ports abroad.

Employment of Young Persons

The Young Persons (Employment) Act, 1938, imposes restrictions on the hours of work of young persons (48 a week under 18 years and 44 a week under 16 years) in certain occupations not covered by the Factories Acts, 1937 and 1948, the Mines and Quarries Act, 1954, or the Shops Act, 1950.

Northern Ireland

The safety, health and welfare of employees in Northern Ireland have been the subject of legislation which, with certain exceptions, is similar to that in Great Britain and is embodied in separate statutes to meet the special requirements of

Northern Ireland. Provision for the safety, health and welfare of workers in factories, workshops, ship and building yards and certain other working premises is embodied in the Factories Acts (Northern Ireland), 1939 and 1949. The Minister of Labour and National Insurance is responsible for the administration of these Acts and for their enforcement by a factory inspectorate, which forms part of his Department.

WORKING CONDITIONS IN PRACTICE

Earnings

Minimum or standard time rates for most British manual workers, as determined by agreements or wages orders, vary between 3s. and 4s. 1d. an hour for men and between 2s. and 2s. 11d. for women. Actual earnings are usually higher. Higher rates are sometimes paid, and piece rates, shift rates and overtime rates raise the level of average earnings. The Ministry of Labour and National Service conducts a six-monthly survey of earnings and hours of work of manual workers in manufacturing industries and in some of the principal non-manufacturing industries in Great Britain. The survey made in October 1957 covered just under 7 million workers and showed the average hourly earnings in all the industries covered to be as follows:

Men 21 years and over	5s. 2·6d.
Youths and boys under 21 years	2s. 5·2d.
Women 18 years and over	3s. 1·7d.
Girls under 18 years	2s. 0·3d.
All workers	4s. 6·9d.

Average weekly earnings were:

Men	251s. 7d.
Youths	108s. 4d.
Women	129s. 6d.
Girls	85s. 2d.
All workers	212s. 5d.

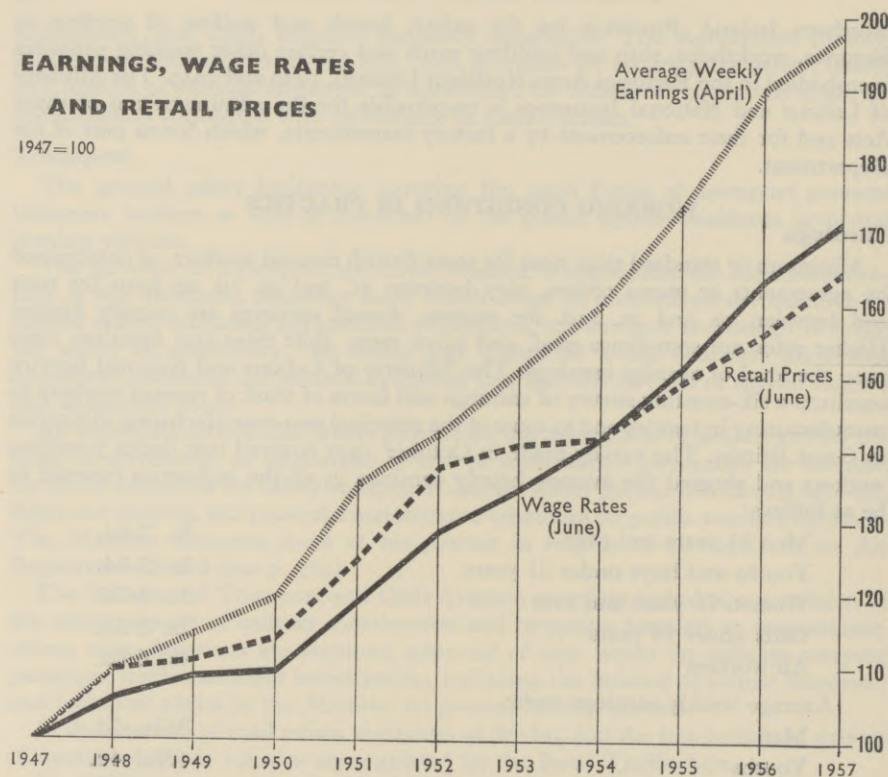
The principal industries not covered by this survey of earnings were agriculture, where the average weekly earnings for regular adult male workers were 184s. 10d. in the half year April 1957 to September 1957; coalmining, where according to information collected by the National Coal Board, the average weekly cash earnings for men were 326s. 4d., plus 16s. 4d. in kind, in October 1957; railway services, in which average weekly earnings in March 1957 (including those of non-manual workers but excluding those of higher paid salaried staff), were 229s. 5d. for men and 137s. for women; and dock labour, in which average weekly earnings of dock workers employed by the National Dock Labour Board for October to December 1957 were 279s. 5d.

Since 1947, average weekly wage rates have increased by about 75 per cent and average weekly earnings have doubled. Most of the increase in wage rates has been offset by a rise in the cost of living. The trends of manual workers' earnings, wage rates and retail prices since 1947 are shown in the diagram on p. 398.

The difference between men's and women's earnings in industry is due mainly to the fact that women are for the most part engaged on different tasks from men and are paid less than men on the grounds that these tasks are unskilled or semi-skilled. In the relatively few instances in the field of manual employment where men and women are employed on the same work, collective agreements frequently provide for equal remuneration.

EARNINGS, WAGE RATES AND RETAIL PRICES

1947 = 100



There are no similarly detailed and comprehensive figures for the rates of pay and earnings of non-manual workers, as these are often based on individual contracts, except in the public service, teaching and retail distribution. The rather limited evidence suggests that the majority of male non-manual workers—the clerks and shop-assistants—have average earnings little different in range from those of manual workers, but the earnings of women in these occupations are somewhat higher than in manual occupations. The pay of shop-assistants is on scales prescribing weekly minima from about £6 15s. to £9 3s. for men and £4 16s. 6d. to £6 12s. 6d. for women. The Office Management Association makes periodical surveys of clerical salaries. The latest survey, of 1st March, 1958, which covers 968 establishments, employing 89,977 clerks, shows that the average weekly salaries for young inexperienced clerks ranged mainly from 7 1s. 4d. to 10 1s. 9d. for youths and from 6 1s. 6d. to 8 8s. 6d. for girls, while average salaries for adult male clerks ranged from £9 4s. 8d. for the lowest grade of skill and responsibility to £15 14s. 5d. for the highest. Corresponding women's salaries were 25–30 per cent less.

The starting salaries in many professional and technical careers are often in the range of £350 to £500 a year; such posts offer increments and opportunities for promotion, but as recently as 1954–55 only about 0.8 per cent of all employees were earning over £2,000 a year, only about 0.3 per cent over £3,000 and less than 0.1 per cent over £6,000. Additional information about the spread of incomes in different occupations is available from unofficial sources; for example, the national sample surveys of personal incomes and savings made in the spring of 1952 by H. F. Lydall and in the spring of 1954 by T. P. Hall. Table 29 is based on their surveys.

TABLE 29
INCOME FROM EMPLOYMENT BY OCCUPATION (a)
percentage distributions

Employment income of income unit (b)	Analysis for 1952 by occupation of head of income unit						All income units in 1952	All income units in 1954
	Self-employed	Managers and technical	Clerical and sales	Skilled manual	Unskilled manual	Retired and unoccupied		
Nil	62	—	—	—	—	69	19.0	18.5
£1— £99	8	*	3	1	7	13	5.2	5.7
£100— £199	19	*	17	6	14	10	10.1	8.2
£200— £299	5	2	18	13	25	5	12.7	9.9
£300— £399	2	4	23	29	32	1	19.5	13.9
£400— £499	1	9	16	25	12	1	13.8	14.2
£500— £599	1	14	11	14	6	*	8.4	12.0
£600— £699	*	15	4	7	3	—	4.5	7.2
£700— £799	1	17	4	3	1	*	2.6	4.4
£800— £999	*	15	2	2	*	*	2.1	3.6
£1,000—£1,499	—	11	2	*	—	1	1.2	2.5
£1,500—£1,999	—	7	—	—	—	—	0.5	
£2,000 and over	*	6	—	—	—	—	0.4	
TOTALS ..	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Number in sample ..	230	259	330	807	388	571	2,598 (c)	2,463
Average Income: Arithmetic mean (in £s) of those employed ..	202	933	383	420	315	168	404	444
Standard deviation (in £s) ..	206	934	220	159	149	204	351	n.a.

(a) Employment income includes income from wages, salaries, pensions from employers, casual earnings of non-professional workers, bonuses, tips, etc.

(b) The income unit is defined as follows: (1) all single persons of 18 years of age or over, whether living alone or with other members of their family, are regarded as separate income units: if they have dependent children of their own (of under 18 years), as may happen in the case of widows and divorced and separated people, their children form part of their income unit; (2) married couples living together are assumed to pool their incomes and each couple is counted as a single unit, and their children of under 18 years are also included in their income unit.

(c) Includes 13 income units in which the occupation of the head was not discovered.

* = less than half of one per cent.

n.a. = not available.

Most of the senior posts in business, the professions and the Civil Service are in the range of £1,000 to £5,000 a year. The posts with salaries of £5,000 to £10,000 a year include those of Cabinet Ministers, chairmen and some other members of the boards of nationalised industries, judges of the High Court and Court of Appeal, and Lords of Appeal, the Permanent Secretaries to certain Government Departments, the clerks of the largest municipal authorities, a few persons outstanding in their professions and the top-management of large businesses. A few persons in business draw still higher salaries.

Women have the same right of entry as men to nearly all public offices, administrative posts and professions. They are paid the same salary for doing the same work in medicine, dentistry, physiotherapy, radiography, university teaching, journalism, broadcasting and architecture, and as Ministers of the Crown, Members of Parliament, salaried magistrates and solicitors, pharmacists working in hospitals, and administrative, professional and technical workers in local government. Women in independent professions are not expected to charge lower fees than men. In most other occupations, however, a woman in Britain doing the same job as a man is at present paid less for doing it, although the position is changing. The Government has stated that it accepts the principle of equal pay, and steps are being taken to put it into effect by stages in the public services. In January 1955, the Chancellor of the Exchequer announced Government acceptance of a scheme for progressive increases in the salary scales of non-industrial women civil servants to make these identical with men's scales by 1961; in April 1955, the Minister of Education announced approval of similar proposals by the Burnham Committee (the advisory body concerned with teachers' salaries) for equal pay for women teachers; and in the same month it was decided that equal pay for all women in administrative departments of local authorities should also be introduced by stages. Since then similar proposals have been agreed for certain other salaried workers, including the staffs of the National Health Service and of the electricity and gas authorities and of the British Transport Commission. Women's salaries outside the public service are beginning to be similarly adjusted.

Hours of Work

While, as already stated, the hours of work of women and young persons between the ages of 16 and 18 in industrial and certain other occupations are limited by law to 48 a week and those of young persons under 16 to 44 a week, normal hours of work for all ages and sexes are usually shorter. Agreed weekly hours mainly vary between 42 and 46, averaging between 44 and 45, and may be worked as either a five-day or a five-and-a-half-day week according to the industry and the rule of the particular establishment. Hours actually worked are somewhat longer owing to overtime working. The survey conducted by the Ministry of Labour and National Service in October 1957 into earnings and hours of manual workers showed that average weekly hours actually worked were as follows:

Men	48·2 hours
Youths and boys	44·5 hours
Women	41·2 hours
Girls	42·1 hours
All workers	46·4 hours

Holidays with Pay

With a few exceptions, manual workers (including shop assistants) in industries covered by agreements or statutory Orders are entitled to paid holidays of twelve

days or two weeks. Moreover, payment is made for bank or statutory public holidays, which are as follows: in addition to Good Friday and Christmas Day, there are Bank Holidays in England, Wales, and the Channel Islands on Easter Monday, Whit-Monday, the first Monday in August and the first weekday after Christmas (Boxing Day), and in Scotland on New Year's Day, the first Monday in May, and the first Monday in August. Northern Ireland observes all the English holidays and, in addition, has a Bank Holiday on St. Patrick's Day, 17th March, and a statutory public holiday on 12th July (commemorating the Battle of the Boyne, 1690), Easter Tuesday is also a customary holiday for industry and trade. Many agreements provide that payment should also be made for specially proclaimed holidays.

Safety

Safety depends in practice at least as much on the education and voluntary efforts of the employers and of the workers as upon safety regulations. There are over a quarter of a million workplaces in Great Britain subject to the Factories Acts. The total strength of the Factory Inspectorate including medical and other specialists was 383 before decisions to strengthen it, and in particular to triple its chemical and engineering staff, were reached in the autumn of 1956. When the decisions have been fully implemented, its strength will be about 440. In June 1958 there were 1,710 mines (including 821 main coal mines) and 4,750 quarries, including 300 opencast coal sites; the total strength of the mines and quarries inspectorate was 146. Except in coal mines, prevention of accidents by frequent inspection is impracticable. The concern of both trade unions and employers' associations with safety helps to maintain safety standards, and the requirements about accident notification (see p. 394) help inspectors to take up the means of prevention with employers, machinery manufacturers and interested organisations. But the voluntary co-operation of managements and employees in individual workplaces is obviously essential to the safety drive. The Accident Prevention Movement, a voluntary educational campaign, is strongly supported by the Factory and Mines and Quarries Inspectorates. Inspectors inquire into safety aspects of machine design and specification, circulate expert advice by personal exhortation, lectures and literature, and encourage the appointment of Safety Officers and the formation of Works Safety Committees. An Industrial Health and Safety Centre in London is maintained by the Ministry of Labour and National Service. The Industrial Safety Training Centre in Birmingham is a voluntary organisation for education and training in practical safety methods. The Royal Society for the Prevention of Accidents helps the Accident Prevention Movement by providing publicity and by organising conferences and courses for Safety Officers. The British Colour Council has evolved a code of safety colours.

Organisations in industry are now concerning themselves to an increasing extent with the promotion of safety at work and the provision of information and advisory services to their members. They participate also in Joint Standing and Advisory Committees established by the Chief Inspector of Factories. Representatives of the Trades Union Congress, the British Employers' Confederation, the nationalised industries and the Ministry of Labour and National Service meet on the Industrial Safety Sub-Committee of the National Joint Advisory Council.

Both transport operators and the Ministry of Transport and Civil Aviation give high priority to safety measures affecting crews and passengers. Every endeavour is made to counter the higher risks resulting from rising traffic densities, by improvement in the design of vehicles, transport plant and equipment, by traffic regulation and control of standards of maintenance and by the training of crews in

competency and safety awareness. The detailed regulations and instructions issued by the Ministry and its agents form the basis of elaborate safety procedures laid down by the operators themselves and by the makers of vehicles, equipment and works. The radio industry and the transport services co-operate in the development and application of radar systems and other safety devices (see pp. 368-9).

Fatal and serious industrial accidents have tended to diminish during the twentieth century. They rose somewhat in factories during the early years of the second world war. Since then, however, there has been a further decline, though accidents sufficiently serious to cause at least three days' absence still happen to three per cent of male factory employees every year and one per cent of female factory employees. Most of these accidents are due to quite ordinary causes—the handling of goods, the use of hand-tools, or falls—and only a sixth are caused by power-driven machinery. Fatal accidents reported in 1957 in factories and other places of employment subject to the Factories Acts numbered 650. Fatal accidents in mines and quarries numbered 441. The total of fatal industrial accidents in factories, mines and quarries and railways, and on trading and fishing vessels numbered 1,415.

Health and Welfare

Employers frequently achieve health and welfare standards considerably higher than those prescribed by law. They are helped to do this by the inspectorates, by Government Departments and agencies, by employers' associations and trade unions and by expert voluntary bodies.

An increasing number of firms in Britain provide a whole-time or part-time doctor, an industrial nurse, and a canteen with hot meals, pay part or all of the cost of clubs and sports grounds, operate retirement and sickness insurance schemes supplementing the State insurance schemes, and afford training and educational facilities. Some have their own rehabilitation centres or support convalescent homes.

Periodic medical examinations are compulsory in factories for all young workers under 18 years of age and for adults in certain dangerous occupations where such examinations are of preventive value. These are carried out by some 2,000 Appointed Factory Doctors, most of whom are engaged on a part-time basis. In addition, a number of employers maintain medical services for their employees, and it is estimated that there are altogether about 4,000 doctors, including over 400 full-time doctors and several thousand nurses and assistant nurses, in the industrial health services. Increasing numbers of doctors and nurses are taking up this work, which aims to provide an occupational health service of a specialised preventive character which does not duplicate the personal services already provided by the National Health Service.

The big employers, including the State and the boards of nationalised industries, have naturally taken the lead in this expansion, and a number of smaller factories are also covered, either because of special risks or because of their progressive outlook. There are, however, difficult problems to be solved in connection with the further development of industrial health services, and in 1955 the Minister of Labour and National Service appointed a Standing Industrial Health Advisory Committee, of which he is the chairman, to advise him on this subject. The membership of this committee includes persons nominated by the British Employers' Confederation, the Trades Union Congress, the nationalised industries, the British Medical Association, the Royal College of Nursing and other organisations and bodies closely concerned with the promotion of industrial health. This committee has given considerable attention to the need for further work to determine

more precisely the situation concerning industrial health services. With its advice two pilot surveys have been undertaken, one of a particular locality and one of a particular industry, for the purpose of obtaining detailed factual information on the situation. It is expected that their results will make a most valuable contribution and will point the way to further progress.

Prompt and effective action in the field of industrial health depends, among other things, on adequate and properly co-ordinated arrangements for investigation and research. Field investigations are carried out by H.M. Factory Inspectorate of the Ministry of Labour and National Service which has specialised medical and technical branches. Research facilities are provided by Government agencies such as the Medical Research Council, the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research, and the Government Chemist; by the faculties of industrial health and social medicine of the universities; and by the research departments of various industries and large industrial concerns. Co-ordination is provided by a number of general and special committees.

Welfare standards vary considerably from one factory to another. Between a third and a half of the factory workers of the country are employed by small firms employing fewer than 250 workers, many of which, largely for economic reasons, have not raised their standard of welfare as much as the larger firms.

The amenities provided by large factories depend partly on the employees' needs and desires. The requirements of a factory where the work is light, and many employees are women or young persons, are different from those of an iron foundry or steelworks, where much of the work is arduous, and is undertaken by men.

Progressive firms are careful to find out what their employees want, and welfare policy is often decided in consultation with the workers, whether through regular consultative machinery or by other means.

During and since the second world war the provision of meals for workers at their place of work has become usual in large undertakings and quite common in smaller ones. At the end of 1957 over 19,000 industrial premises were providing their workers with canteen facilities. There were also some 1,000 colliery canteens providing meals for about 98 per cent of coalminers. Any surplus earned by canteens is used to improve the canteen or to finance some other welfare services. Losses are borne by the firms.

Human Relations in Industry

In recent years there has been a marked increase of interest in 'human relations' in industry, i.e. relations between management and their workers as individuals, as distinct from relations between organisations of employers and organisations of workers. This has led to more widespread attention being given to all aspects of personnel management and to the establishment of more personnel departments. Practically every large industrial firm and many small ones now have a personnel department staffed by one or more specialist officers. While the form of organisation of personnel departments varies, the personnel officer is generally responsible for advising all levels of management on every aspect of labour relations. This officer also has particular duties with regard to recruitment, selection, education and training, transfer of labour, the application of wage agreements, the promotion of joint consultation and the supervision of working conditions and employee services.

Since the end of the second world war, there has been an intensification of the educational and training activities arranged by industry. Short-term training is almost entirely the responsibility of individual firms, but in over 100 sections of industry and commerce, employers and trade unions have agreed national or

regional schemes of apprenticeship and other long-term training. Further expansion and improvement of training facilities have been urged in the report of a sub-committee of the National Joint Advisory Council. This report, published in February 1958 under the title *Training for Skill*, stressed that the increase in the number of young people leaving school in the next few years afforded a great opportunity to increase the supply of skilled workers and technicians, and proposed that a council should be formed by industry to follow up its various recommendations. This led to the establishment, in July 1958, of the Industrial Training Council, composed of representatives of the British Employers' Confederation, the Trades Union Congress and the nationalised industries.

Both voluntary and official organisations have been concerned with the promotion of better human relationships in industry. The voluntary organisations include bodies which deal with management problems and provide a service to subscribing firms, professional associations linking individuals who have a common interest in particular functions of management and administration, and bodies which provide specialist services usually on a fee-paying basis.

In 1945, the Ministry of Labour and National Service established a Personnel Management Advisory Service which has done much to promote good personnel management and to assist firms by discussing problems of personnel policy. The service is staffed by a team of experienced Personnel Officers recruited from industry.

The Government has sought to extend by research the available knowledge of the factors influencing human relations in industry and human efficiency. Research units of the Medical Research Council (MRC) have worked on these problems for many years. In 1948, the Advisory Council on Scientific Policy set up a committee on industrial productivity, one of whose panels was a human relations panel responsible for two major research projects on the problems of joint consultation.

In March 1953, the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research (DSIR) and the Medical Research Council set up two committees concerned with research on the human factor in industry, the Committee on Human Relations in Industry and the Committee on Individual Efficiency in Industry. Finance for the research projects approved by these committees was derived partly from the Exchequer and partly from the counterpart funds of United States Conditional Aid to the United Kingdom.

The Committee on Human Relations approved a number of projects for research into such questions as factors influencing the effectiveness of incentive payment schemes, factors facilitating and restricting the introduction of new techniques and methods in industry, characteristics of management organisation affecting productivity, industrial education, training and promotion, and the problems of the effective employment in industry of special groups such as older persons and married women.

The Committee on Individual Efficiency concerned itself with research into such matters as the influence of equipment design and working tools on operator efficiency, factors affecting the efficient utilisation of industrial engineering techniques, and training methods in industry.

The results of this work are now appearing. The committees have been disbanded, but the DSIR has appointed a new Committee on Human Sciences, while units of the MRC are continuing research into cognate problems.

XII. FINANCE

PUBLIC FINANCE

Public finance is concerned with the way public authorities (i.e. the central Government and local authorities) finance their activities—how their expenditure is decided upon and how their revenue is obtained.

Money administered by public authorities¹ can be roughly divided into two categories:

1. The funds of the central Government, raised mainly by taxation, but also in part by borrowing, and paid into and out of the Exchequer² in accordance with the proposals of the Government, as approved by Parliament (principally the House of Commons).

There are also funds administered for special purposes by central Government Departments and wholly or partially maintained by receipts which do not come from the Exchequer. The only important one is the National Insurance Fund, administered by the Minister of Pensions and National Insurance, used for the payment of benefits under the National Insurance Scheme.

2. The funds of local authorities, obtained partly from rates (local taxes on dwelling houses and other real estate) and income from property and trading receipts, partly from grants and loans from the Exchequer, and partly from loans raised in the open market.

The following broad account of Government finance will be concerned mainly with the Exchequer and only incidentally with local government³ and other public funds.

Financial control, as exercised by the House of Commons, is based on law, parliamentary rights and custom.

As the power of Parliament grew in late medieval and Tudor times, the principle that taxation by the Crown required parliamentary consent was gradually evolved. The principle was established, at the end of the constitutional struggles of the Stuart period, by the Bill of Rights, 1689.

In medieval, Tudor and Stuart times, it is broadly true to say that once the King was granted the right to raise a given sum by taxation, he was free to spend it as he chose. In the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, the House of Commons gradually developed the modern system of controlling expenditure through the device of Appropriation, which was embodied in its final form in the Exchequer and Audit Departments Act, 1866.

From the very early days of Parliament it had been established that such financial control as Parliament possessed should be exercised by the House of Commons. This control became effective, as regards taxation, in the seventeenth century, but

¹ For an account of public finance in Northern Ireland and its relationship to that of the United Kingdom, see pp. 415-6.

² The term 'Exchequer' took its name from the 'chess-board', or table with chequered cloth, round which the King's financial officials sat for accounting purposes in the twelfth century.

³ For further information on local government finance, see pp. 73-5.

as regards expenditure it was not effective until the nineteenth century. The controlling power of the House of Commons is acknowledged today in the Speech from the Throne at the opening of a new session of Parliament, which is addressed to both Houses but contains a special paragraph addressed to the Commons alone.

The Commons have traditionally claimed that the Lords have no power to modify financial provisions, though they may reject such provisions; thus, to minimise the chance of rejection, the practice was started in 1861 of embodying the main financial provisions for the ensuing year in a single Bill. Since the passing of the Parliament Act, 1911, however, the assent of the House of Lords is no longer needed for a Bill certified by the Speaker to be a Money Bill (see pp. 34 and 35-6).

Today, the authority of the House of Commons has to be obtained for all expenditure by the central Government itself and for the raising of revenue by taxation or borrowing. All Government revenue is paid into the Government account with the Bank of England—known as the Exchequer Account or the Consolidated Fund. With certain exceptions (the main one, as previously stated, being National Insurance benefits), all payments by the Government come out of this account.

The following sections outline the machinery by which expenditure and revenue are authorised and controlled, the purposes on which public money is spent and the sources from which revenue is obtained.

ESTIMATES AND EXPENDITURE

Classification of Expenditure

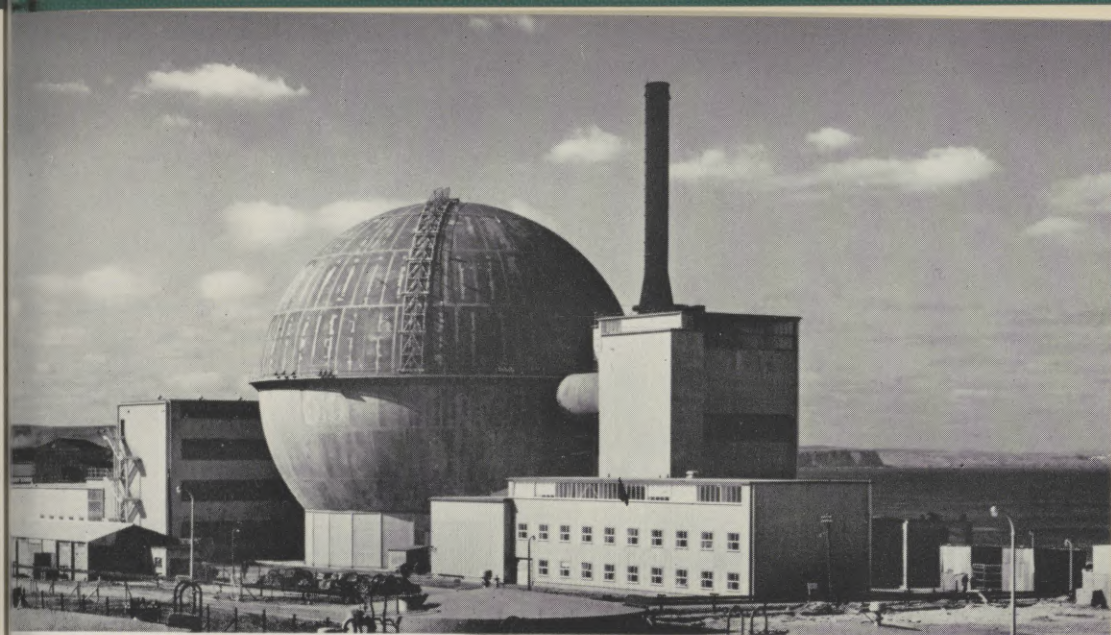
Central Government expenditure falls into two main groups:

1. Expenditure which is specifically authorised by Act of Parliament without limitation to any particular year. This expenditure includes the interest, sinking fund and cost of management of the National Debt, the financial provision made for members of the Royal Family, and salaries and pensions of judges and certain high officers whose independence of the Government is thought to be better guaranteed by permanent grant than by annual vote. These Consolidated Fund Services represent a permanent charge on the Consolidated Fund.
2. All other Government expenditure, which is authorised from year to year and which includes all expenditure on defence, on the social services and on the general administration of the country. These are called Supply Services because the House of Commons, when voting money, is granting to the Crown 'such aids or supplies as are required to satisfy . . . the pecuniary necessities of the Government'. It should be noted that some of this expenditure may also depend on legislation, such as the National Health Service Acts, relating to a specific object of expenditure.

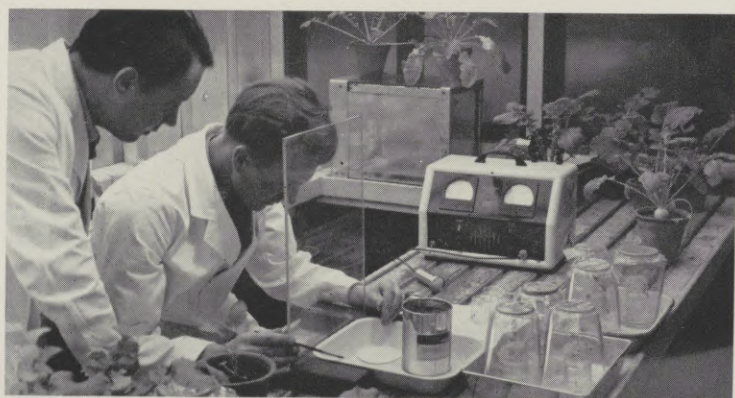
Authorisation of Expenditure

The Estimates for these Supply Services are considered by the House of Commons in Committee of Supply (that is, in Committee of the whole House with the Chairman of Committees, instead of the Speaker, in the Chair). The Committee usually discusses public policy relevant to the Estimates, though any Estimate could be examined in detail if members wished and if time allowed (see also p. 37).

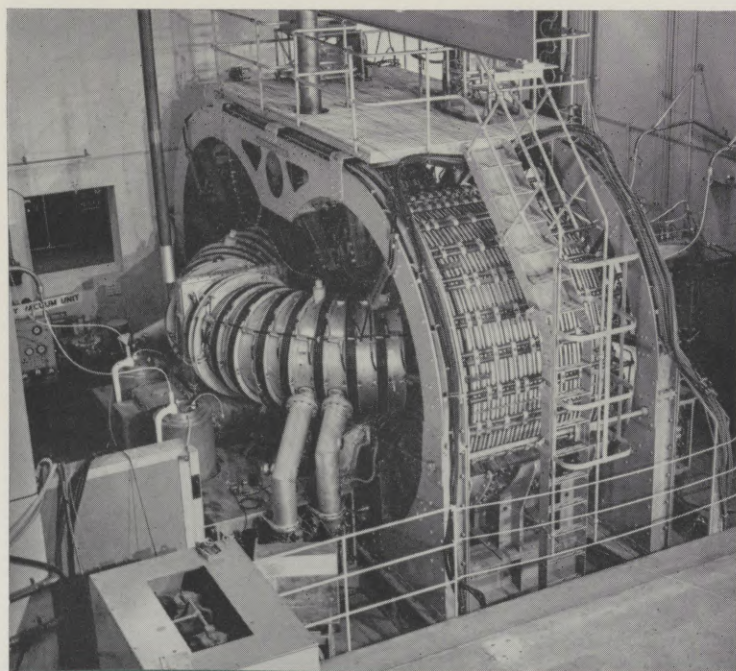
Estimates for Supply Services in the financial year beginning on 1st April are submitted to the Treasury by each Department in the preceding November and December. Estimated expenditure is grouped under main headings called 'Votes' which are further broken down into subheads and items. If the House of Commons approves the Estimates, the sums asked for are voted and later confirmed in the



Dounreay (see p. 202): this nuclear energy research establishment in Caithness, Scotland, houses an experimental fast-breeder reactor, a materials testing reactor, a reactor designed for marine propulsion and ancillary research laboratories.



Using radioisotopes (see p. 273) for research into the spread of plant diseases at Rothamsted Experimental Station, Harpenden, Hertfordshire.



eta I: the zero energy thermonuclear assembly at Harwell with which notable progress towards the achievement of controlled thermonuclear reactions (the fusion process) has been made (see p. 202). More powerful versions are being designed.



Eilean Donan Castle on Loch Duich in Wester Ross, Scotland, was originally built in the thirteenth century as a stronghold for the Mackenzies of Kintail.



Bodiam Castle in Sussex, built about 1386, is one of several English castles owned by the National Trust (see p. 215).



Harlech Castle, built between 1285 and 1290, is in the Snowdonia National Park. One of six castles in North Wales built by Edward I, it is now in the care of the Ministry of Works.

Appropriation Act; this Act appropriates the money to specific Votes. Inside each Vote, a 'virement', the spending of money on one subhead instead of on another, is permissible so far as Parliament is concerned, but only with Treasury consent. Departments are free to distribute expenditure within subheads as they please subject to Treasury approval of the type of expenditure involved.

An excess of expenditure, or a new service not covered by the Vote, or a virement of a magnitude or character which the Treasury considers should be brought to the attention of Parliament, requires a Supplementary Estimate. The Treasury exercises the same power of scrutiny over this as over the ordinary Estimates.

Scrutiny of Expenditure

Control of expenditure is maintained by the Treasury, by the Comptroller and Auditor General, by the Select Committee on Public Accounts of the House of Commons and by the Select Committee on Estimates.

The Treasury

The power of the Treasury to control expenditure derives from the responsibility of the Chancellor of the Exchequer for the financial policy of the Government.

A central function of the Treasury is to present the Civil Estimates to the House of Commons. In considering the Estimates submitted by Departments, the Treasury has to weigh the advantages of administrative proposals against the monetary and economic cost, taking into account current Government policy, to decide the relative merits of expenditure proposed by different Departments and to eliminate any overlapping, uneconomic or wasteful expenditure where this has escaped the net of departmental financial control. Quite apart from the scrutiny of Estimates, throughout the year the Treasury keeps a close control over such matters as rates of pay and the aggregate size of the staff in all Government Departments, in addition to exercising a general supervision over all departmental expenditure. The Treasury also lays down general rules of financial and accounting procedure for Departments and prescribes the principles on which departmental contracts shall be made and the limits within which losses may be written off.

The Comptroller and Auditor General

Control over issues of money to Departments and the audit of accounts is exercised by the Comptroller and Auditor General, who holds a permanent appointment as an officer of Parliament. Since 1866 he has had two functions: as Comptroller of the Exchequer he controls entries and issues of public money to and from the Exchequer Account; and as Auditor General he audits departmental accounts and submits the Appropriation Accounts to Parliament. His statutory function is to ensure that all expenditure is properly incurred, e.g., that no payments are made which go beyond any relevant statutory authority, and that Treasury sanction has been obtained wherever necessary. In addition, however, he has been encouraged by successive Committees on Public Accounts (see the next paragraph) to examine departmental expenditure with a view to drawing attention to any cases of apparent waste or extravagance.

The Select Committee on Public Accounts

The accounts of each Department and the reports of the Comptroller and Auditor General thereon are considered by the Select Committee on Public Accounts (PAC). This was set up in 1861, by Mr. Gladstone, for the purpose of ensuring that expenditure was properly incurred in accordance with the Estimates and with any relevant Acts of Parliament, but it has since developed much wider powers. Nowadays it may consider whether full value has been obtained for the sums spent by

Departments and it examines cases in which the administration appears to have been faulty or negligent. The Committee has therefore become a powerful instrument for the exposure of waste and inefficiency. It embodies its findings in Reports which may be discussed in the House of Commons. Its recommendations are considered by the Treasury in consultation with Departments and put into effect, so far as they are accepted, according to Treasury instructions. If the recommendations are not acceptable, a reasoned reply has to be submitted to the Committee, which may either accept the objections or return to the charge in subsequent Reports.

Select Committee on Estimates

This Committee was originally set up in 1912 but was re-formed in 1929 with wider terms of reference. Under these terms it has been re-appointed annually except during the war years. The Committee's functions are to examine the Estimates, to suggest the form in which they should be presented, and to report whether there are any economies which could be made without altering the policy implied in the Estimates. It is customary for the Committee to select each year a few aspects of Government-voted services for review. In practice, the Estimates for the current year are not affected, but the Committee's recommendations may reinforce Treasury control and influence the nature of expenditure in succeeding years.

THE BUDGET

'Budget' is an old word meaning a bag containing papers or accounts. The use of the word in public finance originated in the expression 'The Chancellor of the Exchequer opened his Budget', which was applied in Parliament to the annual speech of the Chancellor of the Exchequer explaining his proposals for balancing revenue and expenditure.

The Budget speech is the main occasion of the year for reviewing the financial state of the nation, and its formal basis is the Chancellor's proposals for raising money by taxation. By the time the Budget is introduced (usually in April) the Estimates of expenditure under various headings will have been presented to Parliament and published, and the expected total of Government expenditure for the year will be known. The Chancellor estimates the yield of the revenue on the basis of existing taxation and proposes such changes in taxation as will provide whatever surplus or deficit he considers desirable on economic grounds. These proposals are later embodied in detail in a Finance Bill. The gap between the Budget Statement and the Royal Assent to the Finance Bill (usually given in July) is covered by the Provisional Collection of Taxes Act, 1913, whereby changes in income tax and Customs and Excise duties have immediate statutory effect if adopted by Resolution of the House of Commons.

The Budget speech also gives figures relating to certain payments of a capital nature for which the Government has statutory power to borrow and which are therefore excluded from the Budget expenditure met from revenue. These items and others are set out in the part of the Budget which lies 'below the line'.¹

Budget Policy

The original purpose of the Budget was purely financial—to provide money for Government expenditure. From an early stage, however, it was appreciated that taxation would affect the distribution of income and property and the level of

¹ Items 'below the line' are: (1) receipts applicable by statute to debt interest which would otherwise be paid out of revenue; (2) receipts applicable to debt redemption; and (3) payments for which the Treasury has power to borrow.

expenditure on particular goods and services. At a later period it was realised that taxation also affected the nation's total expenditure and therefore the general level of economic activity. Since the second world war, Budgets have been consciously designed in greater or lesser degree to bring the total demand for goods and services into balance with the supplies which could be made available.

Direct taxation on income and property affects the distribution of wealth because the rates vary according to the size of income and property, the proportion of a high income taken in tax being much greater than the proportion of a small one; at the same time, the services provided by the Government (whether in cash or kind) are generally available to all, irrespective of wealth, but in some cases they are specially designed to benefit people with lower incomes. Indirect, or outlay taxes (see pp. 411-2) do not affect the distribution of income; their main purpose has always been the raising of revenue, but by discouraging or encouraging consumption of particular goods they can be used to influence the allocation of resources and the pattern of trade.

The Budget affects the general level of expenditure and, therefore, the total demand for goods and services, in the following way: if there is an increase in Government expenditure without an increase in taxation then total demand for goods and services will tend to rise; the same thing will happen if there is a decrease in taxation without a decrease in Government spending. In this way the Budget can be used to counter unemployment. On the other hand, if there is an increase in taxation without an increase in Government expenditure or a decrease in Government expenditure without a decrease in taxation then the total demand for goods and services will tend to fall. In this way the Budget can be used to counter inflation.

For some years after the war, budgetary policy was mainly designed to avoid inflation by holding down consumer demand for goods and services so that it would not hamper exports, investment or (since 1950) the defence programme. The Budgets of 1951 and 1952 aimed also to hold down investment in the interests again of exports and defence. By 1953, as total demand had fallen while productive capacity had increased, some unused resources became available; in consequence, there was a reduction of taxation in the 1953 Budget, which aimed particularly at encouraging higher investment and production. These aims were continued in the 1954 Budget, when, however, changes in taxation were much smaller than in 1953. The Budget of April 1955, which gave further tax reliefs, was followed in October by a Supplementary Budget which had the purpose of reinforcing measures, including a tighter credit policy, instituted earlier in the year with the object of curtailing excessive internal demand and of strengthening the balance of payments position. The Budget of April 1956 was designed to continue the drive against over-spending and to provide new inducements to savers. During 1956 and 1957, as a result of budgetary and other measures, inflationary pressure was reduced and the balance of payments improved; consequently, in the Budget of 1957, it was possible to make some reductions in the burden of taxation. The Budget of April 1958, which included some further taxation concessions—mainly in purchase tax and profits tax—was intended to consolidate the country's improved economic position and to prepare for future expansion.

Sources of Revenue

Money to meet 'Ordinary' (mainly current) Budget expenditure of the central Government is in normal years derived from taxation. Taxes can be divided into two groups, direct and indirect, which correspond roughly to the duties collected by the Board of Inland Revenue and by the Customs and Excise Department. The most important Inland Revenue duties—income tax (including surtax), profits tax

and estate duty (death duty)—are levied directly on the income or property of those who, in general, have to bear them. Income tax on individual (though not on corporate) incomes and estate duty are progressive taxes, that is, larger incomes and estates bear a proportionately higher rate of tax. Stamp duties, although not a direct tax, are also collected by the Board of Inland Revenue. Taxes on motor vehicles are collected by the principal local taxation authorities, which are the county or county borough councils in England and Wales and the corresponding councils in Scotland; the proceeds are paid by the local authorities to the Exchequer.

Income Tax, Surtax, and Profits Tax

Income tax is imposed at a standard rate for the year of assessment beginning on 6th April. For 1958–59 the standard rate is 8s. 6d. in the £. The tax imposed on an individual is graduated by means of personal allowances and reliefs, by reduced rates of tax on the first sections of taxable income,¹ and by the surtax.² In the case of a married couple the incomes of husband and wife are aggregated and are treated as one income, but a higher personal allowance is given than for a single person.

Examples of the amounts of income tax paid yearly by people with different incomes and family responsibilities are shown in Table 30.

Most wages and salary earners pay their income tax under a PAYE ('Pay-as-you-earn') Scheme, under which tax is deducted at source, thus enabling them to keep up to date in tax payments.

Companies are liable at the standard rate of tax on their total income irrespective of its amount; they are also subject to profits tax which, as from 1st April, 1958, was levied at the rate of 10 per cent.

Certain relief from income tax and profits tax may be given to specified overseas trade corporations; broadly speaking, these are companies which, though managed and controlled in the United Kingdom, carry on all their trading activities overseas.

In general, income arising from sources within the United Kingdom is subject to United Kingdom income tax, even though the person entitled to the income is not resident in the United Kingdom, except in the case of certain Government securities. Where the income arises from sources outside the United Kingdom, tax is not chargeable unless the owner becomes chargeable as a resident. The United Kingdom has entered into agreements with many countries providing for relief from double taxation; where such agreements are not in force, the United Kingdom allows unilateral relief.³

Estate Duty

Estate duty is chargeable on the value of property (whether legally settled or not) which passes or is deemed to pass at death. Thus, it is not limited to property owned by the deceased. It may, for example, extend to trust funds to the income of

¹ The balance of income remaining after deduction of the personal allowances and reliefs is taxable income. The first three sections of taxable income are charged at reduced rates of income tax, and only the remainder is charged at the standard rate. For 1958–59 the reduced rates are: 2s. 3d. in the £ on the first £60; 4s. 9d. in the £ on the next £150; and 6s. 9d. in the £ on the following £150.

² The surtax, which is essentially an income tax at higher rates, is charged on personal incomes exceeding £2,000 a year after deducting certain personal allowances in excess of the single person's basic allowance. It is imposed at rates which increase progressively until (for 1958–59) on all income above £15,000 a year, income tax and surtax combined amount to 18s. 6d. in the £.

³ The information in this paragraph is not legally authoritative. For this purpose reference should be made to the relevant Statutory Instruments. Inquiries in the United Kingdom should be addressed to the Secretary, Board of Inland Revenue, Somerset House, London, W.C.2.

which the deceased was entitled during his lifetime, and to gifts made by the deceased within five years of his death (one year in the case of a gift for public or charitable purposes). Estates with a net capital value of £3,000 or less are exempt from duty, but on estates of a higher value there is a progressive duty ranging from 1 per cent to 80 per cent.

TABLE 30

INCOME TAX AND SURTAX PAID BY PERSONS WITH DIFFERENT INCOMES
AND FAMILY RESPONSIBILITIES IN 1958-59
(to nearest £.)

Income before tax	Single persons		Married couples without children		Married couples with two children		
	Income all earned income	Income all investment income(a)	Income all earned income	Income all investment income(a)	Earned Income		
					Two children not over 11	Two children over 11 but not over 16	Two children over 16
200	2(b)	2(b)	—	—	—	—	—
300	15	15	—	—	—	—	—
400	33	59	9(c)	31(c)	—	—	—
500	56	93	28	59	—	—	—
600	82	136	48	93	3	—	—
700	112	178	74	136	17	6	1
800	145	221	102	178	36	24	12
900	178	263	136	221	59	42	31
1,000	211	306	169	263	86	69	52
2,000	542	731	499	688	414	393	372
5,000	2,093	2,518	2,028	2,453	1,898	1,865	1,833
10,000	5,659	6,318	5,579	6,238	5,419	5,379	5,339

Source: *Financial Statements* (1957-58 and 1958-59).

(a) *Age Relief*. Where the taxpayer (or his wife) is 65 or over and his total income does not exceed £800, age relief is given; this reduces the tax payable to that chargeable on the earned income scale. Where the total income exceeds £800, marginal relief is given so that the full tax on the investment income scale is not payable until marginal relief runs out.

(b) *Age Exemption*. Where the taxpayer is 65 or over and his total income does not exceed £275, no tax is payable. Where the total income slightly exceeds £275, marginal relief is given so that the full tax is not payable until marginal relief runs out.

(c) *Age Exemption*. Where the taxpayer (or his wife) is 65 or over and the total income does not exceed £440, no tax is payable. Where the total income slightly exceeds £440, marginal relief is given so that the full tax is not payable until marginal relief runs out.

Indirect Taxes

Most indirect or outlay taxes are customs and excise duties and are levied on commodities or services. They are called indirect because the importer, manufacturer, wholesaler, or provider of commodities or services pays them first and then passes them on to the individual consumer in the form of higher retail prices.

Customs duties are levied on imported goods, and excise duties on goods produced, and services provided, at home. The purchase tax, which is also collected by the Customs and Excise Department, applies equally, and at the same rate, to home-produced and to imported goods.

The system of customs duties is twofold in its purpose: it has the function of providing a measure of protection for British industries or preference for products imported from Commonwealth countries overseas and it has also the function, in association with the excise system, of providing revenue.

The principal revenue duties collected by the Customs and Excise Department are those on tobacco, alcoholic drinks, hydrocarbon oil (mainly petrol), entertainments (cinemas), betting, matches and sugar. The protective customs duties cover a wider field, but their contribution to the yield of indirect taxation is relatively small.

Purchase tax is charged on a wide range of goods, nearly all of them consumer goods, at rates varying from 5 per cent to 60 per cent of the wholesale value. Articles subject to revenue duties of the Customs and Excise Department are in general exempt from this tax; other goods free of purchase tax include food, fuel, books and newspapers, young children's clothing and footwear, certain non-proprietary drugs and medicines, some household appliances and some textile articles.

THE EXCHEQUER ACCOUNTS, 1958-59

In the Budget of April 1958, total current expenditure for the financial year ending 31st March, 1959, was estimated to reach £5,075 million, while the estimate for total current revenue (after allowing for taxation changes) was £5,439 million, making a surplus of £364 million. These figures exclude self-balancing revenue and expenditure (post office trading), for which the estimate was £368 million. 'Below the line' total payments were estimated at £923 million, while total receipts were estimated at £323 million leaving a deficit, to be borrowed or met from the surplus on current account, of £600 million.

Table 31 shows the Budget estimates for 1958-59 in comparison with the out-turn (Exchequer receipts and issues) for the previous year. The diagram on p. 414 illustrates the pattern of Government estimates of revenue and expenditure on current account in 1958-59.

CAPITAL PAYMENTS AND RECEIPTS

In the last few years the main items of capital expenditure dealt with in the part of the Budget statement which lies 'below the line' have been loans to local authorities for housing and other investment; funds to meet capital expenditure by the Post Office; war damage payments; working capital for the National Coal Board; and loans to other nationalised industries. Capital receipts have come mainly from the repayment of these loans. If, on balance, there is a deficit, it is met from the proceeds of Government borrowing or from the surplus, if any, in 'Ordinary' revenue and expenditure, i.e. 'above the line', while if there is a surplus it goes to reduce the National Debt.

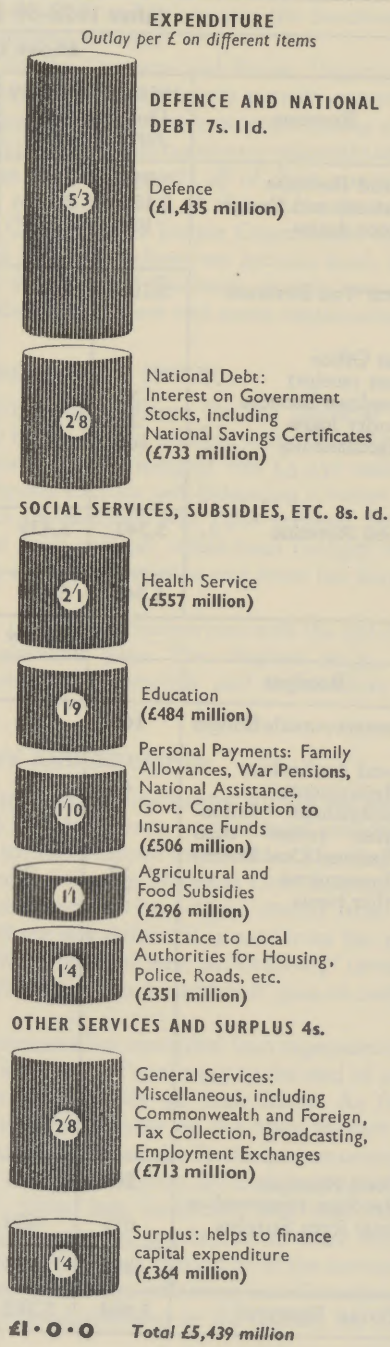
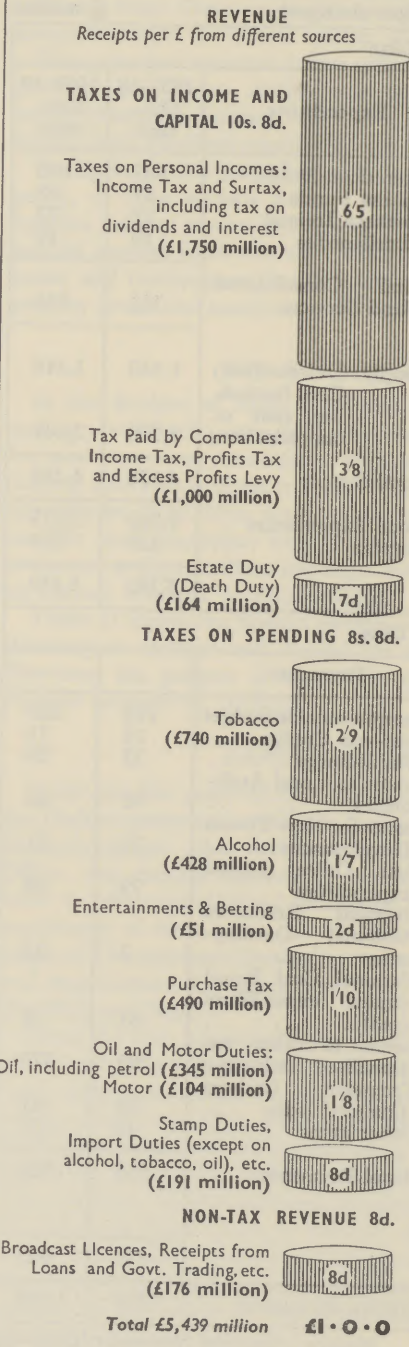
Since the war, new lending by the Government has exceeded loan repayment as, in the main, repayments are spread over a long term. From 1945 to the end of 1952 local authorities relied on the Exchequer for virtually all their loans. As from 1st January, 1953, they were given permission to borrow on the open market. In his Budget Statement of October 1955, the Chancellor of the Exchequer announced that local authorities had been asked to exercise restraint in their expenditure. The volume of Government lending to them was restricted and the Public Works Loan Board (see p. 75) put all applicants on inquiry as to their ability to raise the finance on their own credit either in the stock market or in the mortgage market. Any advances granted were at a rate of interest reflecting not Government credit, but the credit of local authorities of good standing in the market for loans of comparable periods.

TABLE 31
 UNITED KINGDOM BUDGET: 1957-58 OUT-TURN AND 1958-59 ESTIMATES
 (after 1958-59 Budget changes) £ million

Above the Line					
Revenue	1957-58 Out- turn	1958-59 Esti- mate	Expenditure	1957-58 Out- turn	1958-59 Esti- mate
Inland Revenue ..	2,855	2,970	Interest on Debt ..	663	695
Customs and Excise ..	2,150	2,189	Sinking Funds ..	37	38
Motor duties ..	101	104	Northern Ireland ..	72	73
			Miscellaneous ..	10	10
Total Tax Revenue	5,106	5,263	Total Consolidated Fund Services ..	782	816
Post Office (net receipt) ..	8	2	Supply: Defence (net)	1,430	1,418
Broadcast licences ..	31	34	Civil (includ- ing cost of tax collection)	2,708	2,841
Sundry loans ..	32	30	Total Supply ..	4,138	4,259
Miscellaneous ..	166	110	Total Expenditure ..	4,920	5,075
Total Revenue ..	5,343	5,439	Surplus	423	364
	5,343	5,439		5,343	5,439
Below the Line					
Receipts			Payments		
Interest outside Budget	169	205	Interest outside Budget	169	205
Local Authorities Repayments ..	47	52	Post-war Credits ..	18	18
Nationalised Indus- tries (other than National Coal Board) Repayments ..	13	29	War Damage ..	22	20
Other items	32	37	Loans to Local Auth- orities	92	65
			Loans for New Towns Development ..	29	31
Total Receipts ..	261	323	Post Office capital expenditure ..	79	38
Net Sum borrowed or met from Surplus ..	635	600	Overseas Resources Colonial Develop- ment	3	12
	896	923	National Coal Board capital expenditure (net)	81	76
			Loans to other na- tionalised industries	295	370
TOTAL RECEIPTS ..	5,604	5,762	Transport (railway finances) loans ..	66	61
			Other items ..	42	27
			Total Payments ..	896	923
				896	923
			TOTAL PAYMENTS ..	5,816	5,998

Source: *Financial Statement* (1958-59).

THE NATIONAL BUDGET 1958-59



The National Debt

So far, borrowing on a large scale has been undertaken only to finance deficits during or immediately after a war. The National Debt rose from £651 million in 1914 to £7,435 million at the end of the first world war, and from £7,131 million in 1939 to £23,637 million in 1946. On the 31st March, 1958, the total National Debt was £27,231 million, of which £2,163 million was repayable in currencies other than sterling, mainly to the United States and Canadian Governments. Of the £25,068 million of internal debt, about £5,194 million was short-term debt, mainly in the form of 91-day bills on the Treasury, while the long-term loans included a variety of stocks, bonds, loans, and certificates carrying fixed rates of interest (ranging from 2½ to 5½ per cent) and with fixed or indeterminate dates of repayment.

PUBLIC FINANCE IN NORTHERN IRELAND

The general system of public finance in Northern Ireland is, in its main features, similar to that operating in Great Britain, under which public revenues, with a few minor exceptions, are paid into the Exchequer, from which no money can be withdrawn except on the authority of Parliament. That authority, as in Great Britain, is expressed in the case of Consolidated Fund charges in permanent legislative form, and in the case of Supply Services by annual Appropriation Acts based on estimates prepared by Departments and sanctioned by the Ministry of Finance.

The major portion of the taxation in Northern Ireland, comprising customs and excise duties, purchase tax, income tax, surtax, and profits tax, is levied and collected by the United Kingdom Government and the proceeds are paid in the first instance into the United Kingdom Exchequer. From this portion, known as 'Reserved' Revenue, there is deducted and retained by the United Kingdom Treasury, under the Government of Ireland Act, 1920, the sum contributed by Northern Ireland towards Imperial Services (called the 'Imperial Contribution'), the cost of the administration of the Supreme Court, the Post Office, and other Reserved Services, and the cost of collecting Reserved Revenue. The balance, termed the 'Residuary Share of Reserved Taxes', is paid over to the Exchequer of Northern Ireland and joins with the proceeds of taxes levied and collected by the Government of Northern Ireland, called 'Transferred' Revenue, and with other non-tax receipts of a miscellaneous nature to form the public income. The items of Transferred Tax Revenue are estate duties, stamp duties, bookmakers' licence duties, entertainments duty (cinemas), excise licence duties and motor vehicle duties.

A Joint Exchequer Board, representative of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, constituted in accordance with the Government of Ireland Act, 1920, determines the amount of Reserved Revenue and the cost of Reserved Services attributable to Northern Ireland for each year, the amount of the Imperial Contribution and such other questions affecting the financial relations of the two Governments as may be referred to it.

In the Northern Ireland Budget for 1958-59 (year ending 31st March), total revenues were forecast at £103.5 million and expenditure at £94.4 million. After allowing for a small Budget surplus of £37,480, the Imperial Contribution was provisionally estimated at £9 million.

The Public Debt of Northern Ireland, totalling £52 million at 31st March, 1958, is fully covered by repayable advances and investments held by the Ministry of Finance.

Outside the Exchequer system in Northern Ireland, various funds have been established, in addition to statutory Reserve and Sinking Funds, for specific purposes. In general, these funds follow the United Kingdom pattern, the principal being those relating to National Insurance and Government loans. The latter constitutes a pool of capital funds available for local and public authority borrowings; at 31st March, 1958, a sum of approximately £73 million was outstanding against such authorities.

BANKING AND PRIVATE FINANCE

The British banking system is long established and well integrated. It consists of a Central Bank; of commercial banks which carry on the usual main banking services; of the United Kingdom offices of various banks whose main business is in other countries; and of various specialised banks and similar financial institutions.

The Bank of England

The Bank of England is the Central Bank and its principal business is to act as banker to the Government and to the other banks, as the agent of the Government for important financial operations and as the central note-issuing authority; it also maintains relations with central banks overseas. It was established in 1694 by Act of Parliament as a corporate body, and its entire capital stock was acquired by the Government under the Bank of England Act, 1946.

As the central bank, the Bank of England acts in conjunction with other banks and financial institutions in co-ordinating the application of the Government's monetary policy. One of the main instruments for this purpose is the Bank Rate¹—the minimum rate at which the Bank of England will discount approved bills of exchange.

As banker to the Government, the Bank of England holds the main Government accounts and it acts as the Government's agent for the issue and registration of Government loans. It also operates, for the Treasury, the administration of exchange control which has been in force since 1939.

The commercial banks maintain large balances with the Bank of England and these balances form part of the banks' cash reserves.

The Bank of England has the sole right in England and Wales of issuing bank notes. Notes thus issued need a 100 per cent cover in gold and securities, the part covered by the latter being the 'Fiduciary Issue', the level of which is subject to parliamentary control. In practice very little gold is now held by the Issue Department of the Bank of England, the bulk of the United Kingdom gold (and foreign exchange) reserves being in a separate account, known as the Exchange Equalisation Account, originally established in 1932, for the purpose of checking undue fluctuation in the exchange value of sterling. The provision of coin for circulation is the responsibility of a Government Department, the Royal Mint.

The Commercial Banks

The banks handling the major part of the domestic banking business in the United Kingdom are, in the main, limited liability companies which are subject to the ordinary law relating to such companies.

¹ The Bank Rate was reduced, on 20th March, 1958, from 7 per cent to 6 per cent; on 22nd May, 1958, to 5½ per cent; on 19th June, 1958, to 5 per cent; and on 14th August, 1958, to 4½ per cent.

Some of the main distinguishing features of the United Kingdom commercial banks are:

1. A relatively small number of banks control a large number of branches. United Kingdom banking members of the British Bankers' Association number 29 (including 11 London clearing banks, 6 banks in Scotland and 3 in Northern Ireland); these banks control nearly 12,500 branches and have total assets of over £8,000 million.
2. The volume of cheques handled is very large and, in spite of a stamp duty of 2d. on each cheque, many payments—and even relatively small payments—are made by cheque. The average daily value of cheques, drafts, bills and bankers' effects cleared in 1957 through the London and Provincial Clearing Houses was £562 million; and many cheques do not, for various reasons, pass through Clearing Houses.
3. It is the practice of the chief United Kingdom banks to maintain a ratio of about 8 per cent between cash reserves and total deposits (of which about two-thirds are repayable on demand, the remainder being deposits at interest and subject to notice).

On an average, in 1957, about 35 per cent of the banks' deposits were covered by cash and short-term securities, while longer-term securities amounted to about 31 per cent and advances to customers to about 30 per cent of total deposits. In financing industry, British banks usually provide only short-term advances. In July 1958, however, English clearing banks, for the first time, acquired holdings in hire-purchase finance companies.

4. Certain banks in Scotland and Northern Ireland have retained limited rights to issue notes; these issues must, apart from an amount for each bank which is specified by legislation, be fully covered by Bank of England notes and by coin.

United Kingdom Offices of Banks Operating Mainly Overseas

The importance of London as a financial and trading centre and as the largest city of the British Commonwealth has encouraged many banks whose main business is in other Commonwealth countries and foreign countries to maintain London offices¹; in some cases, indeed, the institutions concerned are United Kingdom companies and the London office is the head office. These London offices form part of the complex structure engaged in the financing of trade not only between the United Kingdom and other countries but also in goods which are shipped direct between other countries.

Savings Banks and the National Savings Movement

The function of Trustee and Post Office Savings Banks is to provide facilities for the investment of voluntary savings and particularly of the small savings of persons with low incomes. Both these types of banks were well established during the nineteenth century. The growth of their business was, however, encouraged in the first world war when the War Savings Committee was set up under Government auspices to promote an official savings drive. A new type of long-term security for the small investor was inaugurated at that time. This was the National Savings Certificate, with interest payable only on encashment, but free of income tax. From this war-time drive originated the present National Savings Movement devoted to

¹ Twenty-eight overseas banks are members of the British Bankers' Association.

the encouragement of the widespread investment of savings in Trustee Savings Banks and the Post Office Savings Bank and in National Savings Certificates and Defence Bonds. The policy of the movement is determined by the National Savings Committee for England and Wales and similar committees for Scotland and Northern Ireland.¹ The committees are bodies of independent persons representing regional savings organisations and various national institutions connected with such matters as finance, industry and education. They are assisted by a salaried staff of civil servants. Voluntary local savings committees, often assisted or promoted by local authorities, co-ordinate the work of voluntary local savings groups. In 1956, the Government introduced an additional type of savings security—Premium Savings Bonds, issued in £1 units—which, after an initial period of six months and thereafter monthly, give investors a chance to win prizes ranging from £25 to £1,000 instead of receiving interest.

Trustee Savings Banks are managed by boards of honorary trustees and managers, and most of the funds deposited with them are ordinary deposits which are withdrawable on demand or at short notice. These deposits are invested with the National Debt Commissioners, and the Government is responsible to the trustees for the repayment of the money so invested, with accrued interest, as and when required. In certain circumstances, Trustee Savings Banks also accept deposits of up to £2,000 for special investment. These deposits, which may receive a slightly higher rate of interest than ordinary deposits, are invested under the supervision of the National Debt Commissioners, but the Government is not responsible to the trustees for the repayment of these investments. In August 1958, there were about 1,330 Trustee Offices controlled by 84 independent banks.

The Post Office Savings Bank is the largest organisation of its kind in the world. It has over 22 million active accounts; in April 1958, total balances, which carry a Government guarantee, amounted to £1,682 million, about £73 per depositor. Through a centralised system of accounting, a depositor can pay in money or make a withdrawal at any one of some 20,000 post offices throughout the country.

To ensure that Savings Banks are used primarily by the small investor there is a limit of £500 on the amount which may be deposited by any individual in one year, and of £3,000 on the total balance which may be held by one individual in the ordinary departments of Trustee Savings Banks and in the Post Office Savings Bank. The maximum amount of National Savings Certificates which may be held by any one person is £750 worth of the current (tenth) issue, in addition to holdings of previous issues, and £500 worth of Premium Savings Bonds. The limit on individual holdings of the current issue of Defence Bonds (5 per cent) is £2,000; this is in addition to holdings of previous issues.

Co-operative Banks

The Co-operative Wholesale Society formed a deposit and loan department about the year 1870, and the right of a co-operative society to engage in banking was legally defined in the Industrial and Provident Societies Act of 1876. The primary purpose of the Co-operative Wholesale Society Bank was to serve the co-operative movement, whose financial centre it has become, but the bank has also come to include among its clients trade unions and other mutual societies, local authorities and individual depositors.

¹ The Northern Ireland Ministry of Finance is responsible for the administration of Ulster Savings, but the furtherance and organisation of the savings movement in Northern Ireland is the concern of a central voluntary committee, which is assisted by county and local committees and district groups, all of a voluntary nature.

OTHER FINANCIAL INSTITUTIONS

It has been the policy of the commercial banks to leave the provision of many special financial facilities to other financial institutions. These facilities, which are supplementary to the credit facilities of the banking system, are mainly provided through the Discount Market, Finance Corporations, the Stock Exchange, Investment Trusts, Building Societies and the Insurance Market. New capital issues, except for relatively small amounts, are controlled by the Treasury with the advice of the Capital Issues Committee (see pp. 421-2).

The firms engaged in such activities are in the main highly specialised, e.g., discount houses, stockbrokers, insurers, insurance underwriters and brokers. Another type of financial institution, the merchant bank, has been of great importance in the finance of trade and commodity dealings and in the flotation of major issues of bonds, particularly for overseas concerns and governments.

The merchant banks helped to give London an international reputation as the main world centre for short-term and long-term borrowing. Long-term loans for development purposes floated on the London market earned for Britain a continuing flow of interest and attracted a steady flow of orders for British goods and products. This increasing trade and also a large proportion of trade between foreign countries was usually financed by bills of exchange, which were accepted as payable at maturity by the merchant banks (also known as accepting houses) and were traded on the discount market, thus providing an easy method of transferring debts and claims.

The Discount Market

The main business of the Discount Market consists of trading in and holding commercial bills of exchange, United Kingdom Government Treasury bills and other short-term securities.

If the various firms which compose the Discount Market have insufficient funds of their own to finance the bills and securities which they wish to hold, they obtain loans from the banks and, to a lesser extent, deposits from the public. In the main these loans and deposits may be called in at any time.

The commercial banks do not, in the ordinary way, buy Treasury bills at the weekly tenders except on behalf of customers, but purchase, from the Discount Market, bills which have been taken up by the Market and held until they become of a currency required by the banks.

If the banks call in loans which they have made to the Discount Market and the latter is unable to cover its needs elsewhere, it will be forced to borrow from the Bank of England. It is not the practice of the commercial banks themselves to obtain direct loans from the Bank of England to augment their cash resources if the need arises.

Finance Corporations

Two corporations, the Finance Corporation for Industry Limited and the Industrial and Commercial Finance Corporation Limited, were set up in 1945 to assist in dealing with the problems of post-war reconstruction and development. Although the Government displayed considerable interest in their formation, the Corporations themselves are ordinary limited companies with no official representation on their boards and having no recourse to public funds. Another finance corporation, the Commonwealth Development Finance Company Limited, was established in 1953 to assist development projects in the Commonwealth. Among other financial corporations of note are the Ship Mortgage Finance Company

Limited, the Agricultural Mortgage Corporation Limited, the Scottish Agricultural Securities Corporation Limited, Air Finance Limited, the National Film Finance Corporation and the Estate Duties Investment Trust Limited.

Finance Corporation for Industry Limited

The FCI was formed to assist in the provision of capital (in amounts of £200,000 and upwards) for the re-equipment and development of major industries with a view to promoting efficiency and thereby assisting in the maintenance and increase of employment.

The Corporation has an authorised and issued capital of £25 million and may borrow up to four times this amount, making a possible total of resources of £125 million. The share capital is held as follows: 40 per cent by insurance companies, 30 per cent by trust companies and 30 per cent by the Bank of England. As at the 31st March, 1958, the capital had been paid up to the extent of 2 per cent (£500,000); the liability of the shareholders in respect of the uncalled capital represents security to the banks that provide the funds out of which the Corporation makes its advances.

The enterprises assisted by the FCI are concerned with a variety of products, e.g., steel, oil, chemicals, shipping, diesel engines, and electrical components.

Industrial and Commercial Finance Corporation Limited

The ICFC has a smaller issued capital than that of the FCI and has as its main object the provision of credit and finance by means of loan capital and share capital for industrial and commercial concerns in Great Britain, particularly in cases where the existing facilities provided by banking institutions and the Stock Exchange are not readily or easily available.

The authorised and issued share capital of the Corporation is £15 million which is paid up as required. In addition, the Corporation can borrow up to a further £30 million in the form of loan capital, and can thus have a maximum of £45 million available. Although the Bank of England has a token participation, the principal shareholders are the London Clearing Banks and the Scottish Banks in proportion to their size; the loan capital is provided by all the shareholders in the same ratio as their shareholdings.

The Corporation's function is to provide finance in sums ranging between £5,000 and £200,000 for small and medium-sized concerns. It has over 600 customers and has established branches in Birmingham, Leeds, Leicester, Manchester and Edinburgh.

Commonwealth Development Finance Company Limited

This Company was established early in 1953. It originated from the Conference of Commonwealth Prime Ministers in December 1952 and its purpose is to finance non-governmental development schemes in the British Commonwealth. The authorised and issued capital of this company is £15 million, which is held by the Bank of England and by 91 industrial, mining, shipping and banking companies and firms; £4.2 million of the capital has been paid up. The Company is empowered to borrow up to twice its issued capital. At the end of March 1958, the Company had entered into commitments totalling £14.6 million.

Ship Mortgage Finance Company Limited

This Company was formed in 1951, the capital being subscribed by the shipbuilding industry, insurance companies and other financial institutions. Its main object is to assist in financing shipbuilding in the United Kingdom. In special cases, loans in respect of existing ships built in the United Kingdom may be considered.

Agricultural Mortgage Corporation Limited

The primary function of this Corporation, which was established in 1928, is to grant long-term loans against first mortgages on agricultural lands and buildings in England and Wales. The share capital was subscribed by the Bank of England and other banks, but the funds are mainly derived from public issues of debentures, of which about £27 million is outstanding.

The Scottish Agricultural Securities Corporation Limited

This Corporation was established in 1933 under the provisions of the Agricultural Credits (Scotland) Act, 1929. Its share capital is subscribed by four Scottish banks. It fulfils broadly similar functions in Scotland to those of the Agricultural Mortgage Corporation in England.

Air Finance Limited

This Company was formed by a group of bankers and the Finance Corporation for Industry in 1953 for the purpose of financing aircraft exports. Its initial resources were £11 million (for an account of the aircraft industry, see pp. 319-20).

National Film Finance Corporation

The Corporation is a statutory body established under the Cinematograph Film Production (Special Loans) Act, 1949. Its function is to make loans to film producers and distributors in order to help to finance the production of films (see also p. 221).

Estate Duties Investment Trust Limited

The Trust was established in 1953 to assist small family businesses to find the finance to meet estate duties.

The Stock Exchanges

Although there are several Stock Exchanges in the United Kingdom, the London Stock Exchange is by far the most important.

The Stock Exchanges provide a means by which a holder of quoted stocks or shares (all important securities are quoted) can, if he wishes, find a buyer for his securities; they are also a most important element in the raising of new capital by Government and commercial borrowers.

The Stock Exchanges do not fix dealing prices; the terms on which bargains are made between members reflect the interaction of supply of and demand for the securities concerned.

All the Stock Exchanges operate under strict rules of conduct which they formulate themselves.

The Capital Issues Committee

Since 1932 there has been control to a greater or lesser degree over capital issues in the United Kingdom. The 1932 controls, and such modifications as were made up to 1939, were without a statutory basis but resulted from public requests by the Chancellor which the various markets observed. At the outbreak of war in 1939 the Foreign Transactions (Advisory) Committee, which had been set up in 1936 to advise the Treasury on issues involving remittances to countries outside the Commonwealth, was renamed the Capital Issues Committee and was given the wider task of advising the Treasury on the administration of the statutory control of capital issues (and analogous transactions) for which provision was made in Regulation 6 of the Defence (Finance) Regulations, 1939.

The end of the war in 1945 saw the retention of the Capital Issues Committee with its primary function unchanged; permanent provision for capital issues control was made the following year with the passing of the Borrowing (Control and Guarantees) Act, 1946.

The Committee is entirely independent; it consists of seven men of experience in commerce, industry or finance, who consider applications to raise loans or issue capital (except those which do not involve more than £50,000¹ in any one year for the borrower concerned, or which, for certain other reasons, may be exempt) and tender their advice to the Treasury upon them.

In 1957, applications to the Committee amounted to £1,703 million, of which £333·9 million (19·6 per cent) was refused. The amount allowed, £1,369·1 million, comprised £895·1 million of new money and £474 million of other money, including scrip issues and conversions.

Investment Trusts

Investment trusts cater for the investor who does not wish or has not sufficient resources to hold a large number of investments in his own name but who desires to have an interest in several securities as a means of spreading his risk.

The ordinary type of investment trust is a public company, limited in liability and registered under the Companies Acts; investment trusts in this form have been established in the United Kingdom for about a century. They invest their share and their loan capital over a range of securities, the precise choice depending in part on the objects of the particular company concerned.

Since 1931 there have also been 'unit trusts' in the United Kingdom; a trust of this type is normally limited by its trust deed to a specified range of securities. The original conception of the unit trust was that securities could be grouped in fixed proportions to form units, and these units could be divided into sub-units which could be sold to the public. In practice, while retaining this unit basis of investment, many unit trusts have considerable flexibility in their choice of the underlying securities.

The Insurance Market

The institutions providing insurance services fall into two main groups: the insurance companies and Lloyd's. Additional life assurance facilities are also provided in the United Kingdom by certain Friendly Societies.

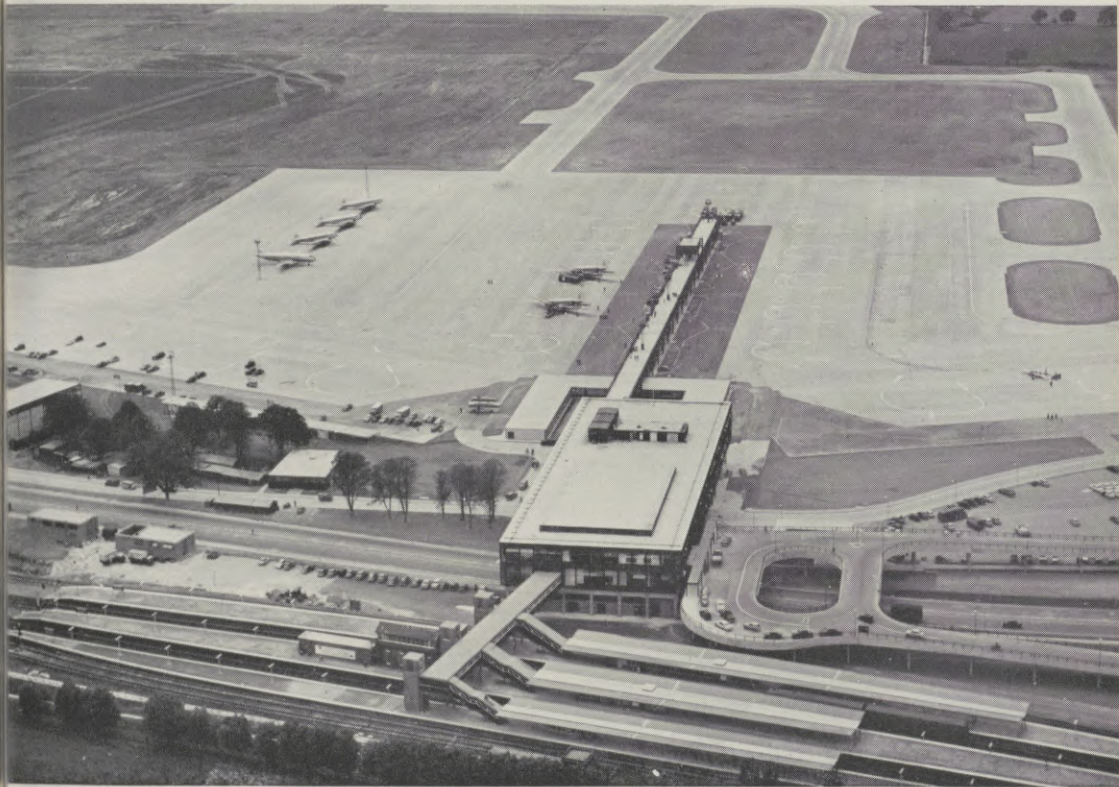
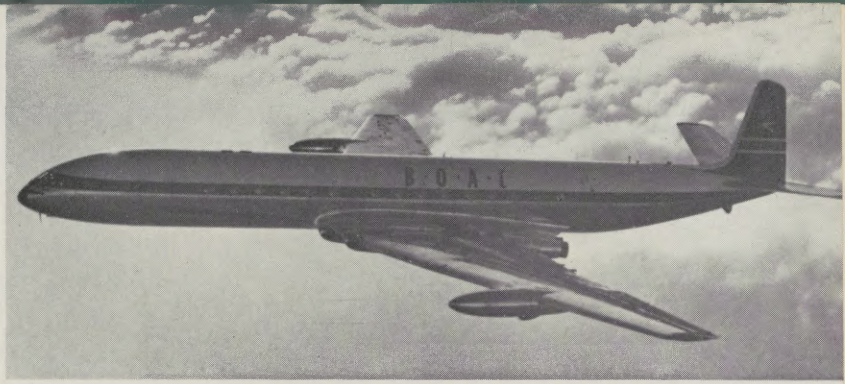
Insurance Companies

There are about 300 British insurance companies, the large companies of international repute accounting with their subsidiaries for about a third of this total. In addition, nearly 100 overseas companies carry on business (and even more companies are represented) in the United Kingdom, thus emphasising the international nature of the market. The natural centre of the market is in London, but some of the large companies have their administrative headquarters elsewhere.

In 1956, the premium income of British insurance companies amounted to about £1,210 million. The three non-life branches—fire, accident and marine—together accounted for some £718 million. 'Ordinary branch' life assurance accounted for £357 million and the balance of £135 million was represented by 'industrial' life assurance (i.e. a system of assurance in which the contributions are collected by house-to-house visits at intervals of less than two months).

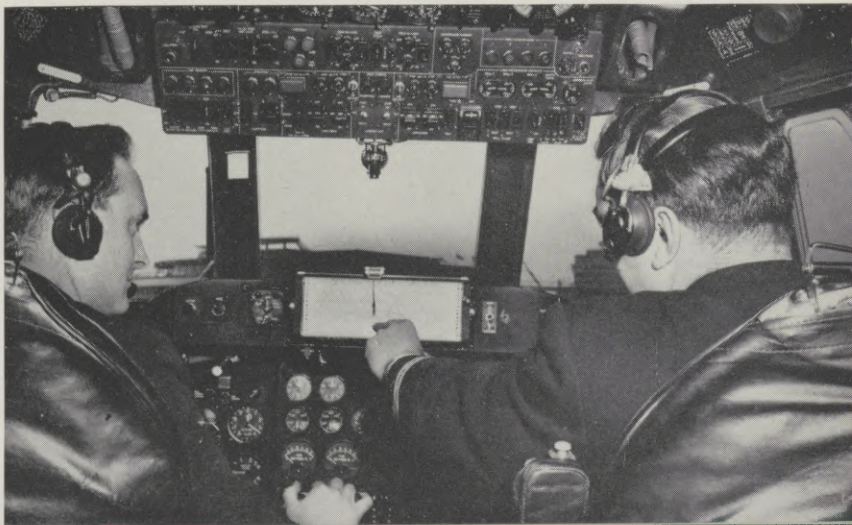
¹ For Great Britain, between March 1956 and July 1958, this figure was £10,000. In Northern Ireland, where applications are dealt with by the Northern Ireland Ministry of Finance, the figure has remained unchanged at £50,000.

The de Havilland Mark 4 *Comet* (see p. 365) turbo-jet airliner powered by Rolls-Royce *Avon* engines. The *Comet* 4 inaugurated the first transatlantic jet airliner service on 4th October, 1958.



Gatwick, London's second major airport (see p. 368). The main railway and road from London to Brighton connect with the terminal building.

The control cabin of a BEA *Viscount* fitted with the *Decca Navigator* (see p. 369). This ground-based navigation system continuously pinpoints the pilot's position.





The new underwriting room of Lloyd's (see p. 423). The caller's rostrum is on the left.



The annual show of Shorthorn cattle at Perth, Scotland. Many overseas buyers are at the ringside.

The total assets of British insurance companies at the end of 1956 are estimated to have been about £5,207 million. This included £1,216 million invested in British Government and British Government guaranteed securities, £1,017 million invested in debenture and loan stocks and preference and guaranteed stocks and shares, £827 million in ordinary stocks and shares, £131 million in municipal and public boards' securities, and £594 million in mortgages.

Lloyd's

Lloyd's is an incorporated society of underwriters in London. Although in its earlier history the activities of Lloyd's were confined to the conduct of marine insurance business, during the last sixty years there has also been built up at Lloyd's a very considerable world-wide market for the transaction of other classes of insurance business, except life assurance of which the amount transacted at Lloyd's is negligible. In addition to its insurance activities, Lloyd's maintains a world-wide organisation for the collection and diffusion of shipping intelligence (see p. 337).

The name 'Lloyd's' is derived from Edward Lloyd's coffee house, established in the seventeenth century, where merchants with maritime and other interests gathered to transact business. By the middle of the eighteenth century, Lloyd's coffee house had become the principal centre of underwriting business and of intelligence about shipping movements. In 1871 Lloyd's was incorporated by Act of Parliament.

The conduct of insurance business and the affairs of the Society of Lloyd's in its corporate capacity are administered by the Committee of Lloyd's.

The interests of a holder of a Lloyd's policy are safeguarded in the following ways: (1) every Lloyd's underwriter is liable for his underwriting debts to the full extent of his means and is required to lodge security by way of a deposit with the Committee of Lloyd's; (2) the whole of the premiums received by an underwriter must be placed in a trust fund to be used exclusively for the payment of his underwriting liabilities and expenses, and only ascertained profits can be released to the underwriter and then only with the consent of the trustees; and (3) every underwriter must submit his accounts to an annual audit.

The usual practice of underwriters today is to form themselves into groups known as syndicates which generally specialise in particular branches of insurance. The underwriters forming the syndicate appoint an agent who is empowered to accept risks on their behalf and to control all matters concerned with the syndicate's business. If the insurance is for a relatively large amount, several syndicates may participate, but each underwriter is individually liable only for the proportion of the risk accepted on his behalf.

Underwriters may not accept business directly from the public, but must transact through Lloyd's brokers (see below) in London, who must be connected with Lloyd's, either as members or subscribers.

The total premium income of Lloyd's underwriters in 1956 after deduction of brokerages, commissions, returns and reinsurance premiums was about £244 million, of which some £108 million was in respect of marine, aviation and transit insurance.

Insurance Brokers

The insurance market is completed by the insurance brokers, acting on behalf of the insured, who 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.

International Insurance Services

Over two-thirds of the fire, accident and marine insurance business comes from abroad, partly by direct placing in London and partly from branches and agencies established in over 100 countries. The basic principle of this international business is that resources capable of meeting any potential loss are instantly available for use in any part of the world.

Behind this large and international volume of business stand the assets of the companies (aggregating over £5,200 million) in addition to substantial reserves of uncalled capital and the whole of the deposits, underwriting trust funds and personal fortunes of Lloyd's underwriters.

Building Societies

The principal function of building societies is to supply long-term loans on the security of private dwelling houses purchased for owner occupation, though loans are occasionally made on the security of commercial and industrial premises and farms. The funds of building societies are derived mainly from the general public who invest in shares or deposits. The amount of share capital is not fixed but may be regulated in accordance with the amount of mortgage business; shares are not dealt with on the Stock Exchange but may be withdrawn in cash if notice is given. The rapid expansion of building society activity in the twentieth century has been accompanied by a concentration of most of the business in the hands of a few very large societies. At the end of 1957, 755 societies were in operation, with total assets of £2,408 million. The amount advanced on mortgage in 1957 was £371 million.

XIII. TRADE

Although relatively small in area and accounting for only 2 per cent of the world's population, the United Kingdom conducts 10 per cent of international trade. It has acquired this position as a consequence of several factors. It was one of the earliest countries to remove legal and fiscal restrictions on the internal movement of persons and goods, and the first to develop adequate facilities for the movement of large quantities of goods by mechanical transport (canals, roads, railways and steamships). With its resources of coal and iron, and its succession of mechanical inventions, Britain was also the first country to industrialise on a large scale and to produce a wide variety of consumer goods in large quantities. In addition, Britain evolved, over a long period of years, the specialised financial services needed to facilitate the maximum volume of trade.

This chapter outlines some of the main features of Britain's external trade, balance of external payments and internal trade. Some account of external trade and payments is essential to an understanding of Britain's economy but only a brief treatment of trade policy and commercial relations has seemed appropriate in a Handbook devoted to the United Kingdom, its people and internal institutions.

EXTERNAL TRADE

In the nineteenth century Britain attained a pre-eminent position in international trade. At the end of the century Britain's share of exports of manufactures entering into world trade was about 33 per cent. Its share of world imports was somewhat larger than that of world exports, as imports into Britain were paid for not only by exports of goods but by interest on overseas investments, receipts from shipping and a variety of financial services. Even before 1914, however, this supremacy was being increasingly challenged by other nations, including Germany and the United States, and although Britain's imports and exports increased in absolute terms over the years, its share of the world total tended to decline. By 1937, Britain's share in world exports of manufactures, measured by value, had fallen to 22 per cent compared with 24 per cent in 1929 and 30 per cent in 1914. In the years immediately following the second world war, Britain's share rose again, and in 1950 was 25 per cent; but by 1957 it had declined once more, to about 18 per cent.

For over a century, Britain's internal economy has been vitally dependent on international trade. Britain relies upon imports for half its total consumption of foodstuffs and nearly all the raw materials needed for its industries. Its exports, chiefly manufactured goods, absorb between a fifth and a sixth of the gross national product.

In 1957, Britain was the world's second largest exporter and importer. It is a major supplier of machinery, ships, road and railway vehicles, aircraft, metal manufactures, chemicals and textiles. Britain is also one of the world's largest markets for foodstuffs, metals, cotton, wool and petroleum.

PATTERN OF TRADE

Changes since 1938 in value, volume, composition and geographical distribution of imports and exports are outlined in the following paragraphs.

Value and Volume

Imports rose in value from £919 million in 1938 to £1,802 million in 1947 and £4,076 million in 1957. The rise in value of exports was from £471 million in 1938 to £1,142 million in 1947 and £3,325 million in 1957.

Calculations of changes in trade volume (i.e. changes after eliminating variations due to price movements) compared with pre-war cannot be made with precision as the relative values of different types of goods on which the volume figures are based have changed considerably since 1938. Broadly speaking, however, by 1947, the volume of imports was a quarter less than before the war and exports had regained their pre-war volume. It has been estimated that the volume of imports in 1957 was only just over the 1938 figure, while the 1957 volume of exports approached a level twice that of 1938. Statistics showing the value and volume of imports and exports in 1938 and in post-war years are set out in Table 32. The diagram on p. 427 shows the changes in the volume of imports and exports from 1947 to 1957.

TABLE 32
IMPORTS AND EXPORTS: ANNUAL FIGURES

	1938(a)	1947	1950	1953	1955	1956	1957
<i>Value (£ million)</i>							
Total imports c.i.f. (b)	919	1,802	2,609	3,343	3,884	3,886	4,076
Exports of UK goods, f.o.b. (c)	471	1,142	2,174	2,582	2,905	3,172	3,325
Re-exports f.o.b. (c) ..	61	59	85	105	119	146	133
<i>Volume Index Nos.</i>							
Total imports, 1954 = 100 ..	110(e)	80	89	99	111	111	115
Exports of UK goods, 1954 = 100 ..	60(e)	63	101	96	107	113	116
<i>Price Index Nos.</i>							
Imports, 1954 = 100 ..	n.a.	n.a.	85	101	103	105	107
Exports, 1954 = 100 ..	n.a.	n.a.	85	101	102	106	111
<i>Terms of Trade (d)</i>							
1954 = 100 ..	75(e)	90(e)	100	100	101	99	96

Sources: *Accounts relating to Trade and Navigation of the United Kingdom*, and Statistics Division, Board of Trade.

(a) Silver bullion and all coin (other than of gold) not of legal tender in the United Kingdom are excluded from 1938 figures.

(b) 'Cost-insurance-freight', i.e. including shipping, insurance and other expenses incurred in the delivery of goods as far as their place of importation in the United Kingdom. Most of these expenses represented earnings by United Kingdom firms.

(c) 'Free-on-board', i.e. the cost of the goods to the purchaser abroad, all costs and charges accruing up to the time of placing the goods on board the exporting vessel having been paid by the seller.

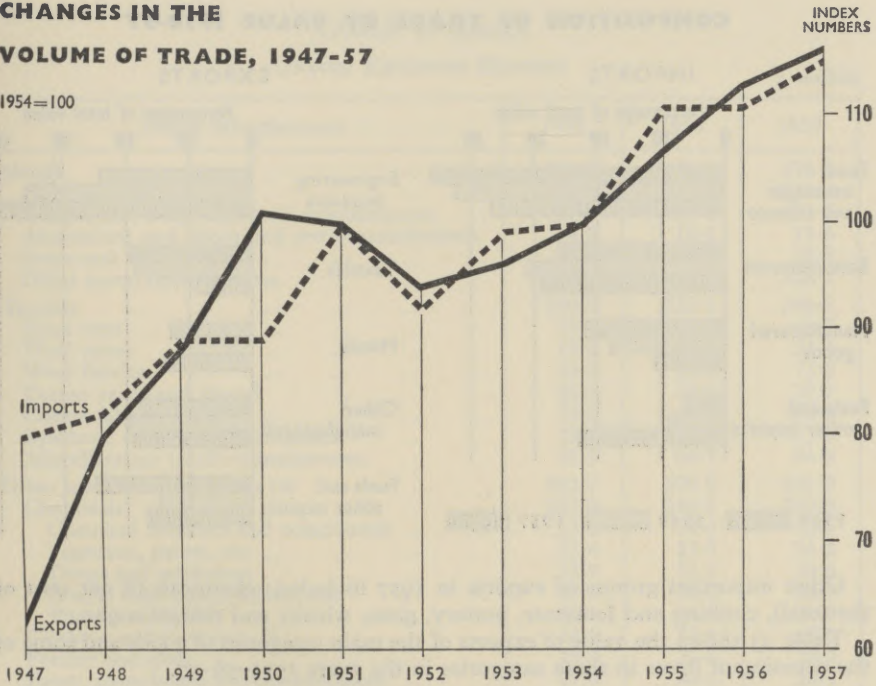
(d) The ratio of import to export price index numbers: a rise indicates an adverse movement.

(e) Approximate.

n.a. = not available.

CHANGES IN THE VOLUME OF TRADE, 1947-57

1954=100



Some indication of the increased importance of exports in the national economy is shown by the rise in the proportion of total national income derived from export earnings—from 10·3 per cent in 1938 to 12·2 per cent in 1947 and 18·3 per cent in 1957. Over the same period, the rise in the proportion of expenditure on imports to gross national expenditure was smaller—from 16·1 per cent in 1938 to 16·6 per cent in 1947 and 18·8 per cent in 1957.

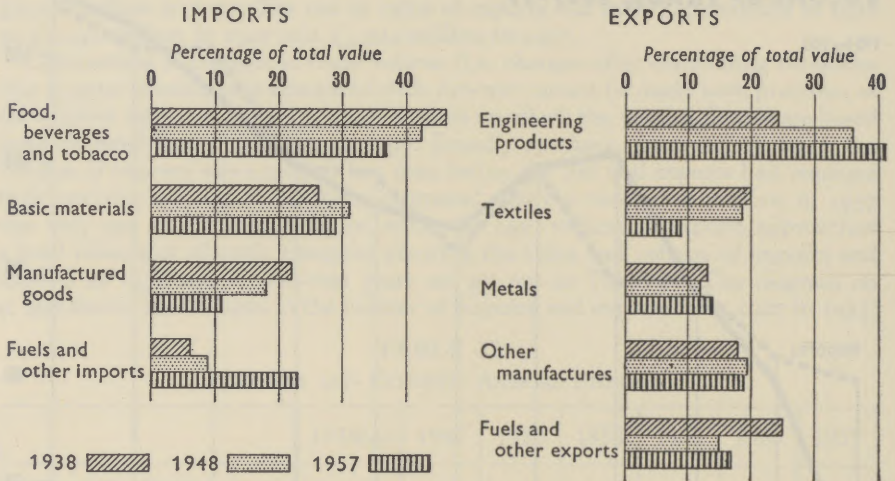
Commodity Composition

An analysis of the commodity composition of trade by value in the years 1938, 1948 and 1957 is shown in the diagram on p. 428.

The most notable change in the commodity composition of exports in the post-war years as compared with pre-war has been the much more prominent part played by engineering products. In 1957, exports of engineering products comprised 40·8 per cent of United Kingdom exports by value as compared with 37·6 per cent in 1953 and 24·4 per cent in 1938. Metals have also provided an increasing contribution. Although in the early post-war period as a result of growing demands of the internal market, metals were relatively somewhat less important than pre-war, increased production raised their share in 1957 to 14·4 per cent, as compared with 13·2 per cent in 1953.

Textiles, once pre-eminent in the United Kingdom export trade, have declined in relative importance over a long period and by 1957 their share had fallen to 9 per cent as compared with 14 per cent in 1953, although their total value has been maintained at about £350 million. The share of coal, another traditional export before the war, has also diminished in importance. On the other hand, exports of refined petroleum have expanded and, in 1957, accounted for 2·5 per cent of United Kingdom exports.

COMPOSITION OF TRADE BY VALUE 1938-57



Other important groups of exports in 1957 included: chemicals (8 per cent of the total), clothing and footwear, pottery, glass, whisky and refined sugar.

Table 33 shows the value of exports of the main categories of goods and some of the constituent items in these categories in the years 1955-56-57.

TABLE 33
UNITED KINGDOM EXPORTS

£ million

Engineering Products	1955	1956	1957
Machinery other than electric	459.8	503.7	561.1
Aeroplane engines	22.3	28.0	40.6
Internal combustion engines	47.3	57.3	55.3
Boilers, boilerhouse plant and steam engines ..	25.9	25.9	25.4
Agricultural machinery	17.8	17.5	17.1
Agricultural tractors	43.9	39.7	54.6
Excavating machinery, etc.	21.0	25.1	24.6
Mechanical handling equipment, etc.	18.5	20.7	23.2
Machine tools	20.8	23.9	28.1
Office machinery	14.8	16.3	19.0
Textile machinery	43.3	45.0	43.2
Electric machinery, apparatus, etc.	191.6	216.8	227.2
Transformers, switchgear, etc.	27.9	30.0	31.0
Generators and motors	32.7	32.5	35.2
Valves, radio equipment, etc.	28.2	33.6	34.2
Electric wires and cables	27.8	35.4	36.4
Telegraph and telephone equipment	15.8	19.7	22.7
Railway vehicles	40.4	45.2	41.9
Cars and chassis	128.8	120.5	158.1
Commercial vehicles and chassis	79.4	84.0	85.2
Pedal cycles	20.9	18.6	14.3
Aircraft and parts	39.7	71.8	69.8
Ships and boats	53.6	93.8	79.4
Scientific instruments, etc.	35.3	37.9	41.7

TABLE 33 (contd.)
UNITED KINGDOM EXPORTS

£ million

Other Manufactures	1955	1956	1957
Metals	396.3	441.5	476.9
Iron and steel	156.4	173.2	213.4
Copper and alloys and semi-manufactures	37.6	61.1	53.7
Aluminium and alloys and semi-manufactures	14.0	18.6	15.6
Arms and ammunition	56.8	47.2	38.9
Other metal manufactures	108.7	118.6	128.7
Textiles	346.2	332.1	346.3
Wool tops	35.6	36.9	44.7
Wool yarns	18.0	19.3	21.4
Wool fabrics	70.0	70.6	73.9
Cotton yarns and thread	26.2	26.9	27.7
Cotton fabrics	70.6	60.9	60.0
Synthetic fibre yarns and fabrics	33.9	31.9	33.0
Miscellaneous textile manufactures	91.1	84.7	84.9
Other manufactured goods (a)	562.7	590.9	621.0
Chemicals	233.0	244.5	267.4
Chemical elements and compounds	53.1	59.4	62.6
Pigments, paints, etc.	21.4	23.5	24.2
Drugs and medicines	35.9	35.9	39.6
Soaps, toilet preparations, etc.	25.4	26.8	28.7
Plastics materials	22.8	26.1	29.9
Clothing and footwear, etc.	44.9	47.6	49.0
Pottery and glass	33.5	31.6	29.2
Paper, paperboard and manufactures	37.6	40.1	38.9
Printed matter	19.2	21.6	23.2
Rubber tyres and tubes	25.3	27.2	26.1
Other Exports	1955	1956	1957
Food, beverages and tobacco	172.0	182.8	206.2
Whisky	43.6	47.6	52.1
Refined sugar	27.8	24.6	37.4
Mineral fuels and lubricants	141.4	161.9	152.7
Coal	53.2	45.0	40.8
Coke	9.2	15.2	19.2
Refined petroleum	70.9	91.5	82.9

Source: Board of Trade Journal.

(a) Excluding repayments of silver bullion to the United States Government.

Owing to the expansion of the output of domestic agriculture (by over one-half) and of industry (by about 60 per cent) compared with 1938, Britain relies relatively less than before the war on food imports, but needs a relatively larger supply of imported raw materials for its industrial plants. Whereas 47 per cent of total imports in 1938 consisted of food, beverages and tobacco, the proportion in 1948 was only 42 per cent, and in 1957, 37 per cent. On the other hand, the proportion for basic materials rose from 26 per cent in 1938 to 31 per cent in 1948, but was reduced to 29 per cent in 1957. Imports of manufactures in 1957 represented 23 per cent of total imports, a slightly higher proportion than in 1938. Imports of fuels rose from 5 per cent of the total in 1938 to 11 per cent in 1957, on account of increased consumption of petroleum products.

Table 34 shows the values of the principal classes of imports and the main items in these classes in the years 1955-56-57.

TABLE 34
UNITED KINGDOM IMPORTS

£ million

Food, Beverages and Tobacco	1955	1956	1957
Total food, beverages and tobacco	1,440.6	1,448.8	1,496.4
Live animals	36.7	33.2	45.4
Meat	294.6	292.6	309.3
Butter	106.1	116.0	99.5
Cheese	25.9	35.6	25.1
Cereals and feedingstuffs	276.6	283.4	257.0
Fruits and vegetables	218.3	235.7	230.4
Unrefined sugar	95.2	100.6	143.9
Tea	125.8	114.5	134.3
Raw cocoa	43.5	17.9	20.9
Tobacco	86.5	80.6	85.6
Materials and Fuels	1955	1956	1957
Basic materials	1,123.9	1,103.1	1,169.4
Hides and skins	45.7	44.0	48.0
Oils and oilseeds	113.8	118.2	123.0
Rubber	96.3	88.9	84.6
Sawn softwood	139.6	105.6	118.0
Other timber	53.0	54.4	55.7
Woodpulp	106.7	107.5	105.2
Raw wool	177.0	167.9	188.8
Raw cotton	90.3	96.6	100.9
Iron ore	68.3	83.7	98.6
Tin ore	18.3	18.9	25.0
Mineral fuels and lubricants	408.2	413.7	466.3
Coal	73.8	43.3	25.5
Crude petroleum	223.9	244.8	280.6
Refined petroleum	104.4	119.4	153.7
Manufactures (largely for further processing)	679.8	658.2	641.3
Chemicals	111.7	106.9	114.3
Wood manufactures	51.6	38.9	45.0
Newsprint paper and board	65.6	64.3	70.3
Cotton yarns and fabrics	23.9	25.8	33.5
Other textile manufactures	50.2	49.8	55.7
Iron and steel	98.8	105.6	79.2
Aluminium	44.9	45.3	38.3
Copper	133.5	131.3	104.5
Lead	23.2	19.6	15.6
Zinc	15.4	13.2	13.2
Finished Manufactures	1955	1956	1957
Total finished manufactures	213.7	247.8	287.0
Machinery, other than electric	92.1	110.4	124.9
Electric machinery, apparatus, etc.	23.5	23.7	26.8
Transport equipment	29.0	31.4	41.0
Clothing, footwear, etc.	18.4	23.3	26.2

Source: Board of Trade Journal.

Area Distribution

An analysis of the area distribution of Britain's overseas trade is provided in Table 35, which shows the sources of imports and destination of exports by currency areas in the years, 1938, 1950, and 1957. The diagram on p. 432 shows the area distribution of external trade in the years 1938, 1948 and 1957.

TABLE 35
UNITED KINGDOM TRADE BY CURRENCY AREAS

Percentages

	1938	1950	1957
Imports c.i.f. (a)			
Non-sterling			
Dollar area	23	18	24
OEEC countries and dependencies	24	25	24
Other	22	19	14
Sterling area	31	38	38
TOTALS	100	100	100
Total Exports f.o.b. (b)			
Non-sterling			
Dollar area	11	13	17
OEEC countries and dependencies	27	26	27
Other	20	14	12
Sterling area	42	47	44
TOTALS	100	100	100

Source: Board of Trade Journal.

(a) See footnote (b) to Table 32, p. 426.

(b) See footnote (c) to Table 32, p. 426.

The main changes and other notable features shown in Table 35, which analyses distribution by currency areas, are:

1. The proportion of imports drawn from the sterling area in 1957 was much higher than before the war (38 per cent as against 31 per cent).
2. The proportion of imports from the dollar area (chiefly the United States and Canada) after declining from 23 per cent in 1938 to 18 per cent in 1950 recovered to 24 per cent in 1957.
3. The dollar area has been taking an increasing proportion of exports in the post-war years (17 per cent in 1957 as against 13 per cent in 1950 and 11 per cent in 1938).
4. The United Kingdom's trade with the member countries of the Organisation for European Economic Co-operation (OEEC) and their dependencies accounted for about a quarter of the total imports and exports, both in 1938 and in 1957.
5. Trade with 'other non-sterling countries' (including the Soviet bloc countries and non-dollar Latin America) in 1957 formed an appreciably lower proportion of the total than it did before the war.

AREA DISTRIBUTION OF TRADE 1938-57

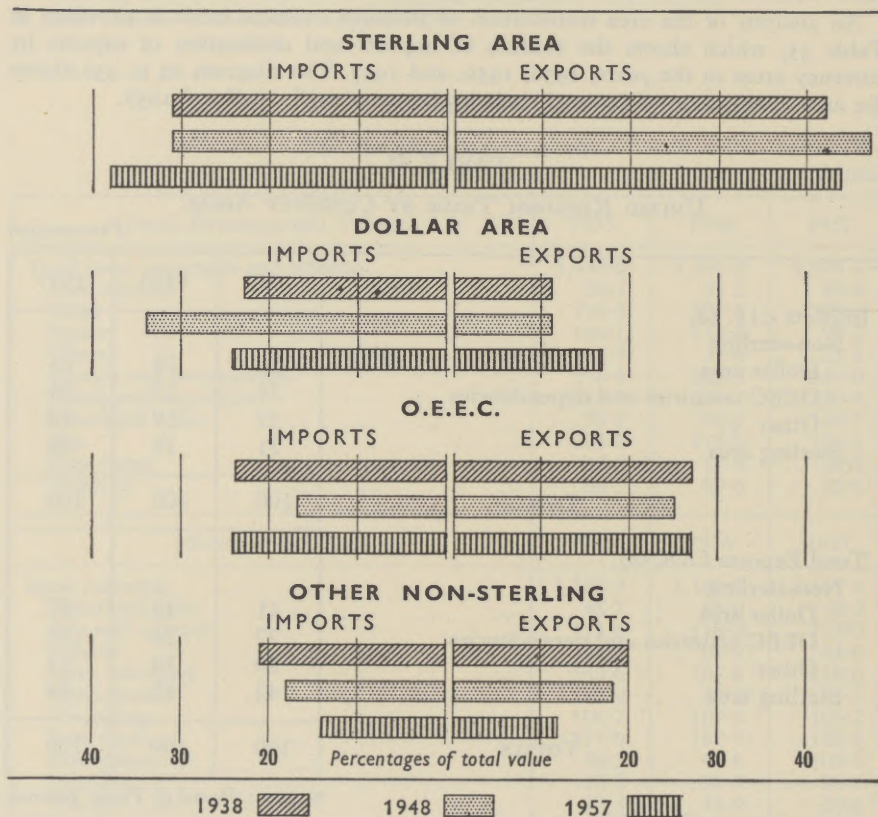


Table 36 shows Britain's principal markets and principal supplier countries in the years 1956 and 1957.

TABLE 36
EXPORTS AND IMPORTS: BY MAIN COUNTRIES OF DESTINATION AND ORIGIN
£ million £ million

	£ million			£ million	
	1956	1957		1956	1957
UK Exports to:			UK Imports from:		
United States (a)	221	237	United States	408	483
Australia ..	240	236	Canada	348	320
Canada	178	195	Australia	236	248
India	168	176	New Zealand	197	183
South Africa ..	154	173	India	141	158
New Zealand ..	127	140	Sweden	145	157
Netherlands ..	119	118	Kuwait	118	134
Sweden	106	111	Netherlands	137	132
Irish Republic ..	103	103			

Source: Statistics Division, Board of Trade.

(a) Excluding shipments of bullion, valued at £22 million in 1956 and £7 million in 1957, in repayment of 88 million ounces of silver borrowed from the United States under war-time Lend-Lease arrangements.

Re-Export Trade

Re-exports are goods which are exported (1) in the condition in which they are imported or (2) after having undergone minor operations—e.g., simple blending, husking, repacking—which leave them essentially unchanged. For some hundreds of years Britain has been an important centre of re-export trade though, over the past forty years, its importance relative to total United Kingdom export trade has declined. The greater part of United Kingdom re-export trade has always been in raw materials and foodstuffs, e.g., wool, rubber, tea, non-ferrous metals and fur-skins. Traditionally, re-export commodities are imported from Commonwealth countries and re-exported to countries in Europe.

In 1957 the total value of re-exports was £133 million, and the principal items were: rubber, £18·5 million; fur-skins, £18·1 million; and raw wool, £16·1 million.

Tourist Trade

Since the second world war, the tourist industry has grown considerably in importance and is now one of Britain's largest earners of foreign currency. Over the period 1947–57, earnings from the foreign tourist trade amounted to the equivalent of £854 million, in addition to £375 million earned by associated British shipping and air services. In 1957, foreign exchange earnings from the tourist trade amounted to £128 million, of which £43 million was in dollar currencies. United Kingdom residents touring overseas spent £140 million in the same year.¹

The total number of visitors to the United Kingdom in 1957 was 1,180,000,² an increase of 7 per cent compared with 1956, and well over twice the number of those who came in 1937, the peak year before the war.

The *British Travel and Holidays Association*, which is a Government-sponsored body, is concerned with the promotion of the tourist trade, particularly by means of publicity overseas. The Association was formed in April 1950 by the merger of the British Travel and Holidays Board and the Travel Association. Its work is directed by a Board consisting of a chairman and 23 members. The President of the Board of Trade appoints the chairman and eight members, the Council of the Association elects seven members, the Scottish, Welsh, and Northern Ireland Tourist Boards between them appoint four members and the Board itself has power to co-opt four members to represent tourist interests not otherwise covered.

CONDUCT OF TRADE

It has been a major aim of successive United Kingdom Governments since the second world war to work for the removal of restrictions on trade and payments, to secure a reduction of impediments to exports and, when possible, to restore the convertibility of sterling. To this end, Britain has taken a leading part in the setting up of such organisations as the International Monetary Fund, the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), the Organisation for European Economic Co-operation (OEEC) and the European Payments Union (EPU), and has played a major part in these organisations' activities, especially as regards the freeing of trade from the restrictions which grew up in the war and post-war periods.

In addition to substantial reductions in tariffs on imported goods, carried out through the GATT, the United Kingdom has greatly relaxed its quota restrictions on imports and has modified its exchange restrictions on foreign currencies. By

¹ For foreign currency allowances for United Kingdom tourists, see p. 436.

² This total excludes tourists (other than aliens) from the Irish Republic and foreign visitors in transit to other destinations.

April 1958, nearly all its imports from the sterling area, 94 per cent of those from OEEC member countries and about two-thirds from dollar countries had been freed from quantitative restrictions.

Tariff Policy

In the nineteenth century the United Kingdom became strongly attached to the principles of free trade, and at the beginning of the twentieth century the only customs duties were those imposed for revenue purposes on a small range of products. After the first world war, certain key industries, notably optical and scientific instruments and fine chemicals, were given protection for strategic reasons under an Act passed in 1921. It was not until 1932, however, that any serious departure was made from the principles of free trade. Under the Import Duties Act of that year, the United Kingdom imposed a duty of 10 per cent *ad valorem* on all imported goods except those on a Free List (mainly important raw materials and foodstuffs) and set up machinery for the imposition of additional duties and for additions to be made to the Free List where appropriate. This measure provided a degree of protection for British industry and, at the same time, a basis for negotiations with foreign countries already in possession of a tariff structure.

The principle of Imperial Preference had been introduced into the United Kingdom customs tariffs in 1919 and, as a result of the Ottawa Conference in 1932, agreements were concluded with independent Commonwealth countries providing for reciprocal preferential tariff treatment over a wide range of Commonwealth goods. The Import Duties Act had already permitted the duty-free entry of goods from the United Kingdom dependencies.

A series of bilateral trade negotiations with other countries between 1932 and 1939 resulted in some modification in the level of protection and in the Commonwealth preferences which had been established. During the second world war, because of Government purchase and import control, protection by the tariff was of relatively minor importance, and it was only after the substantial relaxation of quantitative import controls in 1949 that the tariff again became an effective instrument of protection.

Since the war, the United Kingdom's protective tariff has been considerably modified as a result of a series of multilateral tariff negotiations held under the auspices of the GATT, which permits the retention of existing tariff preferences, but prohibits the creation of new preferences. The United Kingdom has, however, obtained certain limited waivers from the GATT no-new-preference rule; these permit, under certain conditions, increased tariff protection for United Kingdom industries while preserving duty-free commitments for Commonwealth goods, and allow increased preferences for the benefit of Colonial products whose disposal is wholly or mainly dependent on the United Kingdom market. In the negotiations under the GATT, United Kingdom customs duties have been reduced, or bound against increase, on goods which account for about half of Britain's normal imports from other contracting countries, in return for concessions by those countries. Margins of preference have thereby been reduced in some instances, but only in return for compensating tariff concessions by other countries, and only after consultation with all the Commonwealth countries concerned.

The United Kingdom Government in February 1957 put forward proposals under which the six countries (France, Belgium, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Italy and the German Federal Republic) which in March 1957 signed the Treaty establishing the European Economic Community, and other members of OEEC, would be associated in a free trade area in Europe. Negotiating machinery for this purpose has been set by OEEC, and, in October 1957, the Organisation made a

unanimous declaration of intent to form such an area. Under the British proposals, protective tariffs and other barriers to trade affecting industrial products would be progressively reduced; agricultural products and foodstuffs would not be included, but the United Kingdom has announced its readiness to enter into practical arrangements designed to secure freer and fairer trade in agriculture.

The Customs Duties (Dumping and Subsidies) Act, 1957, empowers the Board of Trade to impose duties on imported goods of any description which have been dumped or subsidised.

The Import Duties Act, 1958, replaced the existing legislation relating to the protective tariff (i.e. four main Acts and some 70 Finance Act provisions) and brought it up to date in a single measure. The Act also provided for re-casting the tariff into an internationally agreed form (the Brussels Nomenclature).

Private and State Trading

The export trade and virtually all the import trade of the United Kingdom are conducted by private firms.

Methods of export trading vary considerably, according to the firm, the industry the product and the market. A good deal of United Kingdom export trade, especially of the smaller manufacturing firms, is conducted through export merchants in the United Kingdom; many firms, however, sell to importers and consumers abroad through their own agents or resident representatives in the countries concerned; in other cases, sales are made through a firm's own branch office, distributing organisation or subsidiary sales company established in overseas markets.

Similarly, in import trade, many large firms engaged in manufacture or domestic trade buy directly from overseas suppliers, while smaller firms may find it more convenient to buy through intermediaries such as import/export houses, commission agents, and the representatives of overseas firms.

In the immediate post-war years, nearly all the principal imported foods and raw materials and some other goods were bought wholly or mainly on Government account, and the Government was also the sole purchaser of nearly all domestically produced food and certain raw materials such as flax and timber. In later years, and particularly since 1951, private trading has been restored to each commodity. By the beginning of 1958, overseas trading by Government-constituted monopolies was confined to jute goods.

CONTROLS ON TRADE AND PAYMENTS

Concurrently with the process of reversion from public to private trading, import licensing restrictions have been substantially eased, so that for nearly all basic foodstuffs and raw materials no limit is now imposed on the quantity or value of imports from any country; for balance of payments reasons, imports from certain areas have not as yet shared fully in the relaxation of restrictions on manufactured goods.

The principal quantitative controls still in operation on external trade are (1) currency exchange control, and (2) import and export licensing.

Exchange Control

Exchange control, which includes *inter alia* control over the purchase and sale of gold and foreign currencies, was introduced at the outbreak of war in September 1939. The legal basis was at first the Defence (Finance) Regulations issued under the Emergency Powers (Defence) Acts, but in 1947 most of these temporary war-time powers were embodied in permanent legislation in the Exchange Control Act, 1947.

Exchange control does not affect transactions wholly within the sterling area. It is imposed only on (1) transactions between residents within the sterling area and residents outside, and (2) transactions conducted in sterling between persons resident outside the sterling area. Although the main structure of exchange control has continued intact since 1939, relaxations in its operation have been made in recent years.

In March 1954, the facility which certain countries possessing transferable accounts have enjoyed of settling current transactions between each other—as well as with sterling area countries—in sterling was extended to virtually all non-dollar countries. The facility now applies to capital as well as to current transactions.

There are restrictions on the amount of currency and notes that United Kingdom tourists may take with them abroad. The position (in August 1958) was as follows: for visits to non-sterling countries including the dollar area, United Kingdom tourists are entitled to a basic foreign currency allowance of £100 per twelve-month period, and the equivalent of this amount may be taken out of the country in foreign currency notes together with not more than £10 in sterling notes. These limits on the amount of currency notes that may be taken out also apply to United Kingdom tourists visiting sterling area countries, but there are no restrictions on the amount that may be taken to these countries in the form of travellers' cheques or letters of credit. Special arrangements apply to Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Greenland, and the Faroe Islands: United Kingdom tourists visiting these countries are allowed all reasonable amounts of currency. Special allowances of currency are also made for visits overseas of United Kingdom businessmen; these are made available through the commercial banks.

Restrictions on the amount of United Kingdom currency notes which may be brought into Britain from abroad were lifted in February 1958.

In addition, exchange control applies to exports of goods to destinations outside the sterling area, and, in general, these have to be paid for within six months in an acceptable currency or by other approved methods.

Exchange control policy is the responsibility of the Treasury, but most of the administration is in practice carried out by the Bank of England as agent of the Treasury—and in turn the Bank of England has delegated to the commercial banks a wide variety of powers to deal with applications.

Import and Export Control

The Import, Export and Customs Powers (Defence) Act, 1939, empowers the Board of Trade to make Orders prohibiting or regulating the import or export of goods. The powers of both import and export control derive from the same legislation, but the purpose and mechanism are quite distinct.

Import Licensing

Although goods can be imported into the United Kingdom only under licences issued by the Board of Trade, an importer does not have to apply for a licence every time he wishes to import anything. A large number of goods can be imported under the Open General Licence, which authorises any person in the United Kingdom to import a wide range of specified commodities without any limits of quantity or value, either from anywhere in the world or from specified countries or groups of countries. Similarly, for a number of goods, individual traders are granted Open Individual Licences, which allow them to import unlimited quantities of the goods concerned from any country or from specified countries or groups of countries.

When an importer wishes to bring in goods not covered by the unrestrictive Open Licensing arrangements, the Board of Trade decides whether he should be granted a licence to import a limited value of the goods in accordance with one of three basic methods of determining who should be allowed to import goods and in what quantities. These methods are:

- (1) *ad hoc* consideration of applications for licences;
- (2) apportionment of quotas among importers; and
- (3) apportionment of quotas among exporters to the United Kingdom by arrangement with the Governments of the exporting countries concerned.

The choice of method depends on the circumstances of the particular trade under consideration.

Import and exchange control are closely linked. All holders of import licences and anybody who wishes to import goods admissible under the Open General Licence are allowed the foreign exchange required to pay for their imports.

Export Controls

Except for the control necessary to establish that exports to destinations outside the sterling area are paid for in the proper manner (see p. 436), United Kingdom exports are, for the most part, not subject to any Government control or direction. Such controls as are in operation are imposed for the following reasons:

- (1) to control goods of strategic importance;
- (2) to conserve or regulate the distribution of scarce materials;
- (3) to assist exchange control operations in preventing exports of capital in the form of valuable goods (e.g., diamonds);
- (4) to control the re-export of a few materials purchased with dollars;
- (5) to control the export of goods the prices of which have been subsidised for consumption in the home market;
- (6) to prevent the export of works of art of national importance; and
- (7) to control the export of live horses and cattle on grounds of animal welfare.

The operation of export licensing control is such that goods are freely exportable to all destinations unless there is a specific ban on their export without licence. Normally, individual licences are required for specific consignments of goods subject to export licensing control, but in a few cases Open General Licences are issued. In other cases, bulk licences are issued to permit exports of specified quantities of controlled goods within a given period.

In recent years, export controls have been greatly reduced, and now cover only a small proportion of total shipments. The position is continually under review and relaxations in control are made whenever circumstances permit. Following improvements in the supply position, the majority of goods now subject to control are of strategic importance. Certain of these strategic goods may be exported without licence to the Commonwealth, the Irish Republic and the United States of America, but exports of such goods to other destinations are subject to export licensing control.

GOVERNMENT ASSISTANCE TO OVERSEAS TRADE

The United Kingdom Government does not subsidise exports. Assistance is given to manufacturers and merchants by advice and information and by the provision of credit insurance facilities. In addition, the Government, in its general economic policy, seeks to create conditions in which export trade can flourish. This includes the use of fiscal, credit and other measures to maintain a stable

economy and to control excessive demand for goods and services by the home market, and action through international negotiation to reduce barriers to the free flow of trade and to move towards the freest possible system of trade and payments.

Information and Advice to Exporters

The United Kingdom Government provides a service of information and advice to merchants and manufacturers in the export trade.¹ The Government Department most concerned is the Board of Trade, which calls upon the assistance of overseas representatives. At each Embassy or Legation there is always an officer of high rank, a Minister, Counsellor or First Secretary (Commercial), who specialises in commercial matters. These officers direct the commercial activities of Consular officers in their respective territories. At important centres in the Commonwealth there are Trade Commissioners, who are directly responsible to the Board of Trade.

Overseas officers regularly report on local economic and commercial conditions, pay special attention to local demand for particular commodities, and generally assist the exporter to overcome the difficulties he encounters in trade with the country in question, particularly those arising out of governmental regulations. These officers indicate potential demand for United Kingdom products, advise about methods of trading with particular areas, and seek out and pass on all opportunities for export business and inquiries for United Kingdom goods. Assistance is also given to United Kingdom exporters in finding agents and likely importers. From the records the Department keeps in London, brought up to date by reports from its overseas officers, it can provide information concerning any country on:

- (1) prospects for United Kingdom exports and requirements of particular markets;
- (2) governmental regulations affecting trade, including import restrictions and tariffs and duties on particular commodities;
- (3) methods of trading;
- (4) goods most likely to sell;
- (5) local tastes and preferences in design; and
- (6) the probity and influence of firms with which an exporter contemplates entering into business relations.

Export Credit Insurance

The Export Credits Guarantee Department, responsible directly to the President of the Board of Trade, is run on commercial lines to provide insurance for United Kingdom exporters and merchants against the main risks of financial loss incurred in overseas trading. These facilities have been developed over a period of more than thirty years, and the Department now underwrites some £500 million worth of insurance a year for more than 4,000 policy holders. The Department is obliged to conduct its business on a self-supporting basis, taking one year with another, and cannot therefore be regarded in any way as a provider of subsidies to exporters.

The risks covered include insolvency or protracted default of the buyer, action by the buyer's Government which blocks or delays transfer of payment to the United Kingdom, imposition of new import licensing restrictions in the buyer's country, war between the buyer's country and the United Kingdom, cancellation

¹ Export promotion is also assisted by the Scottish Council (Development and Industry), the Northern Ireland Development Council, and the National Industrial Development Council of Wales and Monmouthshire, see pp. 242-3.

or non-renewal of a United Kingdom export licence, or 'any other cause of loss occurring outside the United Kingdom and not within the control of the exporter or the buyer, and not normally insurable with commercial insurers'. Cover may commence from the date of contract or (at lower premiums) from the date of shipment.

There are three main types of export insurance policy:

1. *Short-term policies* normally covering goods sold on terms of up to six months' credit. The exporter insures the whole of his trade, or the whole of his trade with an agreed group of markets, for the twelve months covered by his policy. For certain engineering goods this type of cover is extended to goods sold on maximum credit terms of up to three years. Cover is also available for goods of foreign origin sold by a United Kingdom merchant to third countries, provided this trade does not conflict with direct United Kingdom exports.
2. *Medium-term policies* which cover capital and other goods sold on credit terms exceeding three years. Specific policies are negotiated for each individual contract.
3. *Dollar market policies* for North America and the Dollar Account countries of Central and South America. The policies listed above cover risks affecting payments under a contract of sale: the dollar market policies are designed to reduce to manageable size the special risks of loss in breaking into these markets. The exporter insures against a percentage of the loss which may result if market surveys, advertising or sales promotion campaigns, or stock-holding, do not produce sufficient revenue to defray their cost. A similar but more extensive form of insurance is provided by 'Joint Venture' policies.

In the case of all the Department's policies, the exporter or merchant is required to retain an interest in the debt or risk involved and, consequently, guarantees are given up to a maximum of between 85 and 95 per cent. Premium rates are assessed separately for each country, and vary according to the risks and the terms of payment.

Trade Fairs

The discontinuance of the annual British Industries Fair after the 1957 display held at Castle Bromwich, Birmingham, was the result of a decision to concentrate efforts upon specialised fairs. An inquiry carried out by the Federation of British Industries (FBI) in 1957 showed that the large majority of British trade associations favoured the development of specialised fairs, concentrating on the products of a particular industry or group of industries, rather than the general fair at which wide ranges of products are exhibited.

In the United Kingdom about 60 specialised fairs are held every year. An increasing number, at present about half the total, are international in character, and the remainder are national (i.e. open only to firms showing United Kingdom products). A list of the more important ones appears regularly in the Fairs Section of the *Board of Trade Journal*. Some of the specialised fairs, such as the Motor Show, the Mechanical Handling Exhibition and the Radio and Television Show, attract large numbers of the public as well as many trade buyers from home and overseas, and provide an important means of advertising and selling British goods. United Kingdom manufactures are shown at most of the large international trade fairs throughout the world. For example, the products of more than 587 United Kingdom firms were exhibited at the 1957 Milan Fair and more than 300 at the 1957 Brussels Fair; the United Kingdom is always well represented at the Hanover

Fair. At the more important of these international trade fairs there is often an official United Kingdom export promotion stand, where officials deal with trade inquiries and assist British exhibitors, and an impression is given of some aspects of British industry. In addition to these international events at which British goods are shown, there are, from time to time, specially organised displays of British products. A successful trade fair of this sort was organised in Zürich in 1953 by the British Chamber of Commerce in Switzerland. Through a subsidiary company, British Overseas Fairs Ltd., the Federation of British Industries has organised British Trade Fairs in Baghdad in 1954, in Copenhagen in 1955, and in Helsinki in 1957; and one is planned for 1959 in Lisbon. At the Brussels Universal and International Exhibition, 1958, the FBI organised a highly successful British Industries Pavilion. An increasing interest is also being shown by United Kingdom manufacturers in the many important specialised international fairs which are held in North America and Europe.

BRITAIN'S ROLE IN THE FINANCING OF INTERNATIONAL TRADE

By a process of evolution through the centuries, the United Kingdom has developed an efficient and adaptable organisation of trade and financial services, centred mostly on London, and capable of meeting the needs, not only of Britain itself, but of the world in general. Britain's supremacy in this respect derives from a number of factors—historical, geographical and economic—as well as the technical efficiency and low cost of its services. In the nineteenth century, the rapid growth of British industry, commerce and shipping under the stimulus of the industrial revolution made Britain the market as well as the workshop of the world. It became the site for the chief world markets in raw materials (see below), freight, insurance, and precious metals. At the same time, British capital was invested in overseas countries to assist their development, increase their output and exports, and provide markets for manufactured goods. London became the chief supplier of capital for many Commonwealth and foreign governments and a centre for entrepôt trade proceeding to and from the growing industrial areas on the continent of Europe and in North America. In course of time, the pound sterling and the sterling bill of exchange developed into the principal form of money for transactions between one country and another in all parts of the world.¹

Side by side with these developments, a sound commercial banking system and a flexible system of central bank control have been built up, while specialised institutions such as discount houses, merchant banks, accepting houses, the Stock Exchanges, investment trusts and finance corporations have evolved to satisfy particular needs for short-term or long-term finance (see pp. 416–22). The facilities provided by merchant banks and accepting houses, for example, have long been used to finance shipments of goods not only to and from Britain, but also between overseas countries themselves.

Commodity Markets

Britain is the traditional centre for marketing many of the world's basic commodities. Most of these markets were closed during the war but they were gradually reopened and are rapidly regaining their previous position. Among the more important are the Baltic Exchange (the market for shipping and air transport, grain, seeds and vegetable oils), the London Commodity Exchange (cocoa, coffee, copra, hides and skins, rubber and sugar), the London Wool Exchange, the London Metal

¹ It has been estimated that sterling is used as the currency of account for about 40 per cent of the world's international transactions.

Exchange, the Liverpool Cotton Exchange and the Liverpool Corn Exchange. Apart from the import of goods for home consumption, many transactions are arranged between buyers and sellers from other countries and the British commodity exchanges are the most important centres for international dealings in a wide range of products.

The Foreign Exchange Market

From the beginning of the war until December 1951, authorised spot transactions in the more important foreign currencies by residents of the United Kingdom were permitted only at official buying and selling rates, which were fixed at a narrow margin either side of the respective parities for those currencies in terms of sterling. Forward margins were also controlled. From 17th December, 1951, wider spreads, between which spot exchange transactions could take place, were introduced, and forward margins were entirely freed from control, making it possible to reopen the Foreign Exchange Market on a restricted basis. Subsequently, progressive relaxations in the regulations governing foreign exchange operations have been introduced, particularly in the currencies of the members of the European Payments Union, where a greater measure of transferability has permitted the multilateral exchange arbitrage in the currencies of members.

The Market remains subject to United Kingdom Exchange Control regulations, which continue to govern the purchase and sale of foreign currencies by residents in the sterling area.

The London Gold Market

The London Gold Market, which had remained closed from the outbreak of war, was reopened on a restricted basis in March 1954, under the general supervision of the Bank of England. It has regained its pre-war position as the world's leading centre for dealings in gold.

Authorised dealers in gold are now free to deal with residents outside the sterling area against payment in sterling convertible into dollars, but residents of the sterling area have access to the Market only as sellers, except where permission is given for the purchase of gold for essential industrial purposes and for the jewellery trade.

The Sterling System

As a result of Britain's early lead in international trade and finance, several countries tended not only to use sterling as their natural currency for international transactions, but also to maintain central currency reserves in Britain. When Britain abandoned the gold standard in 1931 these countries, which came to be known as the 'sterling bloc' and later as the 'sterling area', did likewise, and pegged their currency exchange rates to the pound sterling. In 1939, after the outbreak of war, the pound sterling was no longer freely convertible into other currencies and the sterling area became more formally defined as a currency area, for exchange control purposes. Within the sterling area the United Kingdom imposes virtually no restrictions on payments, whether in respect of current or of capital transactions.

All the Commonwealth countries (except Canada), together with Burma, Iceland, Iraq, the Irish Republic, Jordan, Libya and the British Protected States in the Persian Gulf are members of the sterling area. These countries contain one-quarter of the world's population and do one-quarter of the world's trade. The main feature of the sterling area is that the greater part of the overseas trade of member countries is financed in sterling; they keep their foreign reserves largely in the form of sterling and maintain a fixed relationship between their currencies and sterling. Member countries for the most part sell their foreign currency earnings to the

United Kingdom Exchange Equalisation Account in exchange for sterling and can purchase for sterling the foreign currency they require. They generally also sell gold in the London Market for sterling, and United Kingdom purchases of gold are also held in the Exchange Equalisation Account. Members have agreed to exercise restraint in their demands for foreign currency, particularly dollars. South Africa is in a special position as a large gold producer. Although South Africa used to finance its net dollar requirements from the sale of its own gold, making available most of the balance for the central reserves, it now sells most of its gold through London, acquiring sterling with which it can, like other member countries, draw on the central reserves for its dollar requirements.

All these currency arrangements are voluntary; there are no strict or centralised rules of conduct, the Commonwealth member countries agreeing between themselves at periodic conferences the broad policies to be followed for the strengthening of the reserves.

THE BALANCE OF EXTERNAL PAYMENTS

The United Kingdom's external payments position is affected by transactions which fall into three main groups: (1) the United Kingdom balance on current account; (2) the United Kingdom balance on long-term capital account; and (3) the balance of the sterling area as a whole on current and capital account.

Balance of Payments on Current Account

The main factors entering into Britain's balance of payments on current account are the balance of visible trade payments (i.e. the difference between imports and exports plus re-exports¹), the balance of 'invisible' items (including earnings accruing from shipping, banking, insurance and other professional services, and investment income, travel and migrants' remittances) and the balance of Government transactions (including overseas military expenditure and Defence Aid received from the United States).

For over a hundred years the total value of goods imported into Britain each year has exceeded the total value of goods exported from Britain. The gap, or 'visible trade deficit', has, in pre-war years, been more than covered by net current receipts from invisible transactions, leaving an overall credit balance which has been applied to further long-term capital investment overseas.

The Burden of two World Wars

The balance of payments pattern described above was, however, upset in the first world war, when export earnings were sacrificed and overseas investments liquidated in the interests of the war effort. It was also seriously disturbed during the nineteen-thirties, when the basic exporting industries were hard-hit by the world economic crisis. A more fundamental disturbance occurred as a consequence of the second world war.

The Post-war Balance of Payments Problem

The main balance of payments problem for Britain since the second world war has been to earn enough abroad (1) to pay for half its food and nearly all the materials needed for its factories²; (2) to provide a balance of payments surplus in

¹ Owing to differences in methods of valuation, timing and coverage the estimates of the value of imports and exports used in balance of payments calculations differ from those used in the Trade and Navigation Returns which are set out in Table 32.

² In addition, since the war, the United Kingdom Government has had to meet a heavy overseas military expenditure. In 1957 this amounted to £160 million in foreign currencies.

order to build up the gold and foreign exchange reserves needed in a world of multilateral trading and convertible currencies, and to meet obligations overseas, including foreign debt service and obligations voluntarily accepted in respect of development in Commonwealth countries and elsewhere.

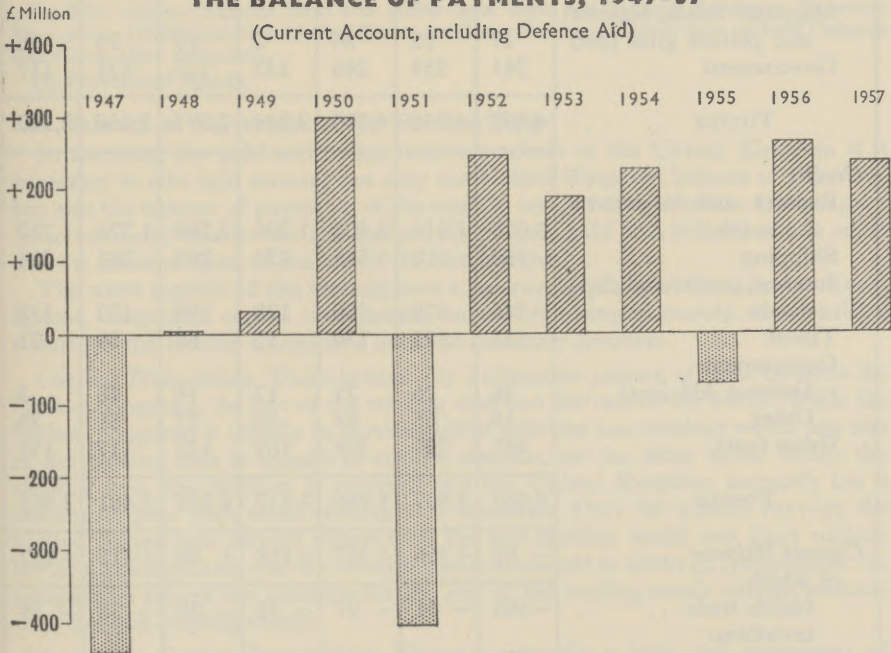
The resources available for export have been limited by the very high level of defence expenditure and by the needs of internal investment.

In the early post-war years the challenge was met by rapid reconversion of productive capacity to the needs of peace, and the mounting of an export drive coupled with severe restrictions on home consumption and imports. The task of transforming the United Kingdom economy to meet the changed needs of the post-war world was assisted by aid received from the United States and Canada in the form of loans and grants and technical assistance (see pp. 447-8).

Between 1945 and 1951 the balance of payments on current account showed considerable fluctuations due to a number of factors, including changes in the terms of trade, the devaluation of the pound sterling in 1949 to protect the sterling area reserves and the trade boom following the Korean war with its aftermath of high import prices. In 1946 and 1947 there were large deficits, in 1948 and 1949 small surpluses, and in 1950 a considerable surplus (£300 million) which was followed in 1951 by a serious deficit (£403 million). From 1952 onwards, there have been surpluses in each year except 1955 when there was a deficit of £69 million. The diagram below illustrates the fluctuations in the balance of payments between 1947 and 1957.

THE BALANCE OF PAYMENTS, 1947-57

(Current Account, including Defence Aid)



In calculating the current account balances from 1951 onwards, credit has been allowed for defence aid (net) receipts as follows: 1951, £4 million; 1952, £121 million; 1953, £102 million; 1954, £50 million; 1955, £46 million; 1956, £26 million; and 1957, £21 million.

Table 37 shows the main constituents in the balance of payments on current account over the period 1955-57, while Table 38 shows the current account balances with the sterling area, the dollar area and the rest of the world over the period 1946-57.

TABLE 37
UK CURRENT BALANCE OF PAYMENTS WITH ALL AREAS

£ million

	1955	1956	1957 (provi- sional)	1956		1957	
				Jan.- June	July- Dec.	Jan.- June	July- Dec. (provi- sional)
<i>Debits</i>							
Imports f.o.b. (a) ..	3,442	3,475	3,605	1,739	1,736	1,814	1,791
Shipping	341	410	430	193	217	227	203
Interest, profits and divi- dends	269	259	250	129	130	124	126
Travel	122	124	140	48	76	52	88
Migrants' funds, legacies and private gifts (net)	17	15	36	2	13	18	18
Government	241	258	248	133	125	131	117
TOTALS	4,432	4,541	4,709	2,244	2,297	2,366	2,343
<i>Credits</i>							
Exports and re-exports f.o.b. (a)	3,076	3,414	3,508	1,706	1,708	1,776	1,732
Shipping	464	517	545	254	263	281	264
Interest, profits and divi- dends	346	370	350	178	192	172	178
Travel	111	121	130	55	66	59	71
Government							
Defence Aid (net) ..	46	26	21	12	14	18	3
Other	59	65	84	38	27	58	26
Other (net)	261	294	308	169	125	117	191
TOTALS	4,363	4,807	4,946	2,412	2,395	2,481	2,465
<i>Current Balance</i>	<i>- 69</i>	<i>+266</i>	<i>+237</i>	<i>+168</i>	<i>+ 98</i>	<i>+115</i>	<i>+122</i>
of which:							
visible trade	-366	- 61	- 97	- 33	- 28	- 38	- 59
invisibles:							
Government	-136	-167	-143	- 83	- 84	- 55	- 88
Other	+433	+494	+477	+284	+210	+208	+269

(a) See footnote (c) to Table 32, p. 426.

Source: Cmnd. 399.

TABLE 38
UK CURRENT BALANCE OF PAYMENTS BY GEOGRAPHICAL AREA

£ million

Year	Current Balance with:			TOTALS
	Sterling Area	Dollar Area (a)	Rest of World	
1946	- 28	-301	+ 31	-298
1947	+127	-510	- 60	-443
1948	+254	-252	- 1	+ 1
1949	+293	-296	+ 34	+ 31
1950	+287	- 88	+101	+300
1951	+335	-436	-302	-403
1952	+363	-173	+ 57	+247
1953	+157	- 4	+ 35	+188
1954	+282	- 72	+ 20	+230
1955	+218	-184	-103	- 69
1956	+307	+ 4	- 45	+266
1957 (b)	+343	- 97	- 9	+237

Sources: *Statistical Abstract and Cmnds.* 273 and 399.

(a) The current balance with the dollar area does not include European Recovery Programme (ERP) grants or United States and Canadian loans, but it does include Defence Aid (from 1951 onwards).

(b) Provisional figures.

The Balance of Payments of the Sterling Area

In assessing the gold and dollar reserve position of the United Kingdom it is necessary to take into account not only the United Kingdom balance of payments but also the balance of payments of the sterling area, of which Britain forms a part. The reason for this is that the United Kingdom's gold and dollar reserves serve also the needs of most of the rest of the sterling area.

The main aspects of the sterling area's balance of payments are current transactions, long-term capital movements, and other changes, mainly of a banking nature, in the United Kingdom's overseas monetary position.

Current Transactions. There is normally a triangular pattern of trade between the United Kingdom, the rest of the sterling area and the rest of the world. While the United Kingdom is usually in current deficit with the non-sterling world, the rest of the sterling area is usually in current surplus; on the other hand, within the sterling area, the position is reversed and the United Kingdom normally has a current surplus with other sterling area countries. Over the period 1953-57 the United Kingdom's current deficit with the non-sterling world was £457 million but its surplus with the rest of the sterling area amounted to about £1,300 million. No comparable figures are available for the rest of the sterling area's current position with the non-sterling world.

Long-term Capital Transactions. There is normally a large net movement of capital from the United Kingdom to the rest of the sterling area. (It has been unofficially estimated that about 70 per cent of the sterling Commonwealth's capital inflow since the war has come from the United Kingdom.) In 1953-57 it amounted to about £1,000 million. This has been one of the most important factors in

maintaining the high level of the rest of the sterling area's sterling balances. In the same period there was a net movement of about £60 million from the United Kingdom to the non-sterling world (after allowing for the United States Export-Import Bank credit of £89 million to Britain in 1957).

Taking current and long-term capital account transactions together, the sterling area as a whole between 1953-57 was £340 million in surplus with the non-sterling world. This was made up of the United Kingdom's overall deficit of £510 million and the rest of the sterling area's overall surplus (including gold sales in the United Kingdom) of £850 million. In the same period the United Kingdom's balance of current and long-term capital transactions with the rest of the sterling area amounted to a surplus of approximately £300 million.

The balance of payments on current transactions and on long-term capital account are together reflected in changes in the United Kingdom's monetary assets and liabilities, i.e. in its position as an international banker. These changes fall under three main headings: (1) changes in the sterling holdings of overseas countries both in the sterling area and outside; (2) changes in the United Kingdom's gold and dollar reserves; and (3) miscellaneous capital movements, including movements of short-term capital drawings from and repayments to the International Monetary Fund, and changes in the United Kingdom debit balance in the European Payments Union (EPU).

In 1957 the United Kingdom's current trade and long-term investment account showed a surplus of £48 million. But this reflected considerable changes in monetary assets and liabilities. The sterling holdings of overseas countries fell by £154 million (almost equivalent to the reduction in 1956), the gold and dollar reserves rose by £50 million (in 1956 there was little change), and there was a net increase in other liabilities of £156 million.

Table 39 shows the gold and dollar reserves at the end of each year from 1946 to 1957. At the end of August 1958, these reserves amounted to £1,103 million (\$3,089 million). Table 40 shows the amounts of sterling held by overseas countries at various dates from 1954 to 1957.

TABLE 39
GOLD AND DOLLAR RESERVES

End of year	In terms of	
	£ million	US \$ million
1946	664	2,696
1947	512	2,079
1948	457	1,856
1949 (a)	603	1,688
1950	1,178	3,300
1951	834	2,335
1952	659	1,846
1953	899	2,518
1954	986	2,762
1955	757	2,120
1956	762	2,133
1957	812	2,273

Sources: *Annual Abstract of Statistics* and
Monthly Digest of Statistics.

(a) In May 1949 the £ sterling was devalued.

TABLE 40

OVERSEAS STERLING HOLDINGS AND UK DEBIT BALANCE IN EPU

£ million

Overseas Sterling Holdings	31st Dec. 1954	31st Dec. 1955	30th June 1956	31st Dec. 1956	30th June 1957	31st Dec. 1957
Sterling Area Countries:						
UK Colonies	840	844	870	870	901	882
Other sterling area countries	2,084	2,035	2,030	1,986	2,024	1,817
TOTALS—sterling area countries	2,924	2,879	2,900	2,856	2,925	2,699
Non-Sterling Countries:						
Dollar area	97	58	38	37	50	35
Other western hemisphere countries	8	9	25	32	36	31
OEEC countries	244	213	223	193	205	258
Other non-sterling countries	430	417	363	303	278	244
TOTALS—non-sterling countries	779	697	649	565	569	568
TOTALS—all countries ..	3,703	3,576	3,549	3,421	3,494	3,267
Non-territorial organisations	476	469	472	669	660	645
TOTALS ..	4,179	4,045	4,021	4,090	4,154	3,912
UK Debit Balance in EPU	120	121	116	125	115	136

Source: *Cmnd.* 399.**External Financial Aid received by Britain**

Britain's difficulties in balancing its external accounts, particularly with the dollar area, in the immediate post-war years, have been alleviated appreciably by aid received from Canada and the United States.

In 1945, the United States extended to Britain a line of credit amounting to \$3,750 million, and a loan of \$650 million (later adjusted to \$622 million) in settlement of Lend-Lease and reciprocal aid adjustments arising out of the war. In 1946, Canada also extended a line of credit, amounting to \$C. 1,250 million, of which the United Kingdom drew \$C. 1,185 million. The terms of settlement with both countries provided for payment in 50 annual instalments, starting on 31st December, 1951, with interest at the rate of 2 per cent a year. The original loan agreements included provision for waiver of interest under certain circumstances.

In March 1957, these were replaced by new arrangements whereby the United Kingdom Government could defer up to seven of the annuity payments of both capital and interest if it judged postponement necessary, either because of international exchange considerations or on account of the level of its gold and foreign exchange reserves.

Between 1948 and 1951, Britain received in all \$2,700 million in Marshall Aid from the United States under the European Recovery Programme. Of this, \$1,700 million was grant aid, some \$620 million was 'conditional' aid (i.e. dollar aid on condition that Britain provided corresponding sterling aid to other European countries) and \$337 million was a loan to be repaid with interest at 2½ per cent. By far the greater part of the Marshall Aid allocated to Britain was used to buy essential food and raw materials. But technical assistance and help in promoting intra-European trade co-operation were also provided.

Since 1951, the financial aid received by Britain from the United States has been mostly under the provisions of the United States Mutual Defence Assistance Programme and Mutual Security Programme. Between 1952 and 1957, net receipts by Britain amounted to \$1,150 million, including a loan of \$48 million repayable with interest at 2½ per cent. Mutual Defence Assistance allocations in 1950-51 totalled \$122 million, mainly for the purchase of machine tools. The Mutual Security grants of \$241 million in 1951-52 and \$369 million in 1952-53 were used chiefly to buy raw materials. After 1952, United States surplus agricultural commodities (mainly cotton, fruit and tobacco) were made available to the United Kingdom for payment in sterling; these funds were used by the United States to finance the purchase of military equipment (notably aircraft) in the United Kingdom. In 1956, the United Kingdom ceased to be allocated any Mutual Security Aid; it has, however, entered into small deals whereby purchases of fruit and tobacco for sterling have financed the building of houses, both in the United Kingdom and the West Indies, for use at nominal rents by the United States armed forces.

The Mutual Security Programme has also assisted Britain's dollar balance of payments by the system of 'offshore procurement', under which the United States has placed contracts in Britain for military goods to be supplied to other NATO countries.

United States Private Investment in Britain

Since the war, Britain's dollar balance of payments has also derived considerable benefit from the expansion of United States corporate investment in Britain and the growth of licensing arrangements between United Kingdom and United States companies.

It has been estimated¹ that between 1950 and 1956 the total book value of United States direct investments in Britain rose from \$847 million to \$1,600 million. The 1956 total included \$279 million in petroleum refining and distribution and \$1,039 million in manufacturing industry (chiefly motor vehicles and equipment, machinery, electrical appliances, chemicals, metals and food products). Much of this investment is in expanding trades such as agricultural tractors, earth-moving equipment and office machinery.

In general, this United States investment has enabled Britain to acquire some new techniques and to make considerable savings in imports (particularly imports from the dollar area) and at the same time to expand its exports of several important products.

¹ In an article by John M. Dunning in *The Times Review of Industry*, September 1957.

North American investors are ensured of the right to repatriate their profits and also—if they choose to sell out—to repatriate the proceeds of that sale, including any capital gains that may have accrued.

United Kingdom Government Grants and Loans to Other Countries

In spite of its post-war economic difficulties, the United Kingdom has made available to other countries considerable sums in grants and loans for relief, rehabilitation and development. Between 1946 and 1957, the United Kingdom Government paid out in this way more than £1,000 million.

Aid provided through United Kingdom Government channels between 1952 and 1957 has included the following: £3·7 million for technical aid under the Colombo Plan for Co-operative Economic Development in South and South-East Asia; £4 million for the United Nations expanded programme of technical assistance (in addition to contributions to United Nations technical agencies); £73·1 million for the Middle East and £14 million for Yugoslavia.

For Commonwealth development, Government finance is, in addition, provided as follows:

1. The Colonial Development and Welfare Acts of 1945, 1950 and 1955 provided for the expenditure of £230 million over the period 1946–60 to supplement local revenues and loan resources in United Kingdom dependencies for development and welfare purposes. Of this amount, a sum of £120 million remains available for the five-year period 1955 to 1960.
2. The Colonial Development Corporation, created in 1948, can borrow from the United Kingdom Government up to £130 million for investment in projects mainly of a commercial nature in the United Kingdom dependencies; about £81 million had been approved by the end of 1957, at which time 76 projects were in operation.
3. A number of Colonial Governments also receive direct financial aid from the United Kingdom Government for current purposes.
4. The United Kingdom Government decided to release just under £80 million from its sterling subscription to the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development for use by the Bank for loans to Commonwealth countries of the sterling area over a period of years, which began in 1953. The remaining £4 million of this sterling subscription, and also the United Kingdom's gold and dollar subscription to the International Bank amounting to over £9 million, had previously been made available to the Bank for use in loans not confined to Commonwealth countries. The United Kingdom Government has also agreed that the International Bank can re-lend sums repaid to the Bank on loans financed by these contributions, thus providing a revolving fund at the disposal of the Bank.
5. Under special arrangements, a credit of £10 million was made available to Pakistan in 1953 through the Export Credits Guarantee Department, and a loan of £38·5 million was offered to India in September 1958.

United Kingdom Private Overseas Investment

With the progress of post-war recovery, Britain has been able to resume its role as a provider of funds for investment in development overseas, particularly in the Commonwealth. Thus, between the end of 1946 and the end of April 1958, Commonwealth and Colonial Governments borrowed £292 million on the London

capital market (excluding sums set aside for local subscription). Of this total, £164 million was raised after the end of 1952, the Colonial territories borrowing £74 million and independent Commonwealth countries £90 million. These figures do not include conversion issues and do not take account of redemptions of maturing loans. The loans raised are for financing public capital works undertaken by the Governments concerned or by the public authorities for whose capital needs they may be wholly or partly responsible.

The general principles governing access to the London capital market by private interests for investment overseas are, in broad terms, similar to those applied to borrowing by Governments, i.e. applicants must show, in general, that directly or indirectly the project will benefit the sterling area's balance of payments. Amounts of more than £50,000 require the consent of the United Kingdom Treasury, which is guided in its decisions by the Capital Issues Committee (see pp. 421-2). In 1957, the Committee approved applications for new capital issues for overseas to the value of £97.8 million. Development in the sterling area Commonwealth is also being assisted through the Commonwealth Development Finance Company Ltd. (see p. 420) which, by 31st March, 1958, had invested or committed £14.6 million.

Private capital from Britain going directly into private overseas enterprises and the reinvestment of profits from existing undertakings have always represented an important element in Commonwealth development. Under the Finance Act, 1957, overseas trade corporations (i.e. generally speaking, companies which, though managed and controlled in the United Kingdom, carry on all their trading activities overseas) are exempted from United Kingdom income tax and profits tax on their trading profits earned overseas. It is not possible to measure the supply of investment funds with any accuracy, since only those which involve raising new money are subject to control. In the case of Canada—a dollar area country—where, as with all non-sterling countries, United Kingdom investment requires Exchange Control approval as well as Capital Issues consent where new borrowing is involved, participation by United Kingdom investors in economic development has been facilitated in various ways, and private investment in Canada was authorised to the extent of £44 million in 1954, £32 million in 1955, and more than £30 million in 1956. In addition, the investment of smaller amounts in the United States and other foreign countries was authorised.

Total Net Overseas Investment

Between 1946 and 1957, United Kingdom net long-term investment overseas has amounted to approximately £1,700 million (including some £260 million in 1957).

The average overseas investment figure for 1954-57 represented nearly 1½ per cent of United Kingdom national income, a higher proportion than that of any other major country.

INTERNAL TRADE

The internal trade of the United Kingdom can be divided into two broad categories: trade in raw materials, capital goods and intermediate products (for example, vehicle components) and trade in consumer goods, that is to say goods for direct sale to the public. (The pattern of consumers' expenditure is outlined in Chapter VIII, *The National Economy*, see p. 234.)

The results of the Census of Distribution taken in 1951, relating to 1950 and published between 1953 and 1955 (the *Census of Distribution and Other Services, 1950*) made it possible to obtain for the first time a fully documented account of the structure of the distributive trades in Britain. The Census covered the numbers and

types of establishments and organisations in the wholesale and retail trades in Great Britain (but not in Northern Ireland), the numbers employed, wages and salaries, sales and other information on both a national and an area basis, including all towns with a population of more than 25,000. In the case of the wholesale trade, the Census covered about 92 per cent of all establishments; the corresponding proportion of retail trade outlets was 91 per cent, responsible for 95 per cent of total turnover. The Census showed that, in the undertakings covered, a total of nearly 3,800,000 people, including 'working proprietors and unpaid family workers', were employed in the distributive trades in 1950. This total was made up of about 800,000 in wholesale establishments, 2,300,000 in retail establishments and 700,000 in services trades, such as catering and hairdressing.

WHOLESALE TRADE

On the basis of some pre-war researches,¹ it would appear that about 17 per cent of sales were made to consumers through producers' own selling organisations, including their own retail outlets and mail-order businesses, while more than 40 per cent were accounted for by direct sales by producers to retailers; and it is estimated that approximately a further 40 per cent of sales move through wholesale channels.

These channels are most in evidence in the distribution of textiles, agricultural produce and foodstuffs. The 1950 Census returns showed that out of a total of some 55,700 wholesale establishments, there were about 7,000 in the clothing, footwear and textile trades, 6,900 in the groceries, confectionery and drink trades and 6,900 in other food trades.

Methods of wholesale distribution vary according to the type of merchandise handled. Fresh fish, for example, is auctioned at the ports to port wholesalers who sell to inland wholesalers at the main distribution centres or, in some cases, direct to retailers; fruit and vegetables, on the other hand, may be sold by growers to commission agents who dispose of the produce either to wholesalers or direct to retailers, or alternatively the grower may deal only with wholesale firms.

RETAIL TRADE

Types of Retail Shops

Retail shops in Britain may be classified under four heads: (1) independent retail businesses consisting of one or more shops (such establishments account for about one-half of the total retail turnover); (2) departmental stores with a number of departments selling different types of goods (in some cases a firm may own several departmental stores); (3) multiple shops (included within this category are the variety chain stores, which handle a wide range of merchandise); and (4) retail co-operative societies. In addition, there are a number of market and street traders, but, according to the 1950 Census of Distribution, the amount of business done by these traders is usually very small; the turnover of each averaged under £2,000 a year.

The Census provided extensive information on the structure of the retail trade in Great Britain. There are a large number of small undertakings, including more than 400,000 with working proprietors; 250,000 retail outlets each had, in 1950, an annual turnover of under £5,000. Out of a total of 531,143 establishments

¹ An indication of the general pattern of wholesale trade before the war is given in some unofficial pioneer studies, for example, *The Distribution of Consumer Goods*, by James B. Jefferys, published in 1950.

recorded in the Census, and reproduced in Table 41, grocery and other food retailing groups numbered 256,046 establishments and the clothing group 89,046.

TABLE 41
RETAIL ESTABLISHMENTS BY KIND OF BUSINESS IN 1950

Kind of Business	Number of Businesses	Sales £'000	No. of Persons engaged	Wages and salaries £'000
<i>Retail Trades</i>				
Grocery group	129,345	1,170,723	478,398	68,102
Other food retailers	126,701	917,016	480,473	82,887
Confectioners, tobacconists, newsagents	66,312	455,085	224,941	14,931
Clothing group	89,046	885,178	384,425	74,330
Hardware group	30,223	218,341	111,008	20,960
Booksellers, stationers	9,528	68,328	51,838	7,904
Chemists' goods, photographic goods group	16,733	158,606	82,232	18,936
Furniture group	16,086	259,006	90,453	23,144
Jewellery, leather and sports goods group	13,944	79,766	42,972	7,927
General group	1,665	471,343	198,659	48,878
<i>including:</i>				
<i>Departmental stores</i>	529	308,339	129,304	33,787
<i>Variety stores</i>	913	106,431	52,498	10,316
Coal, builders' materials, corn group	20,137	186,342	82,128	17,382
Other non-food retailers	11,423	53,196	37,764	6,700
TOTALS	531,143	4,922,930	2,265,291	392,081
<i>Service Trades</i>				
Catering group	66,562	277,070	399,073	58,189
Hairdressers	29,827	34,333	75,760	9,112
Repairers group	22,527	25,547	44,175	4,558
Motor vehicles, cycles and accessories group	10,578	228,711	55,618	14,485
Motor vehicle repairers, garages group	18,403	317,392	143,684	36,856
TOTALS	147,897	883,053	718,310	123,200

Source: *Census of Distribution and Other Services, 1950.*

Present Trends in Retail Trade

In recent years multiple concerns and the retail co-operative societies have succeeded in raising their sales relative to those of other groups. The indices of weekly sales published monthly by the Board of Trade show that sales of multiple

retailers and retail co-operatives rose by 73 per cent and 64 per cent, respectively, between 1950 and 1957. The corresponding advance by independent retailers amounted to 46 per cent and by general departmental stores to 27 per cent. Between 1956 and 1957 there was a 5 per cent increase in all retail sales, which is slightly under the average annual rate of expansion since 1950. The growth in the value of retail sales has been most marked in food shops, partly reflecting the higher than average rise in food prices, and in sales of radio and electrical goods.

Self-Service Shops and Other Developments

The development of self-service in retail establishments since 1950 has probably helped the multiple stores and the retail co-operatives to achieve a higher rate of expansion in sales. Unofficial estimates give the number of self-service shops in operation in the United Kingdom at the end of July 1958 as over 4,000, and new self-service outlets are being established at the rate of 500 to 600 a year. About 60 per cent of these shops are thought to be owned by retail co-operative societies and the majority of the remainder by multiple stores.

Supermarkets, which may be broadly defined as self-service shops with a selling area of more than 2,500 square feet, have been introduced recently in the United Kingdom, particularly by Co-operative Societies. Self-service shops as a whole have been estimated to be responsible for 7 to 8 per cent of retail sales in the grocery trade, but for other types of merchandise, the proportion is thought to be insignificant.

There has also been a large increase in the number of mobile shops serving outlying housing estates and rural areas. About 8,000 are estimated to be in operation, the majority selling groceries or other foodstuffs; several manufacturers specialise in building fully equipped vehicles for this type of trading.

Mail Order Firms

Retail sales, amounting to over £150 million annually, are conducted through mail order firms. The two largest enterprises are responsible for about half the total turnover, the bulk of sales consisting of clothing, footwear and household textiles. The smaller mail order businesses normally specialise in a single commodity, notably in the sale by post of seeds, plants and small horticultural requisites.

Retail Co-operative Societies

The retail co-operative societies are voluntary non-profit-making organisations engaged in the retail trade and controlled by their members who are also their customers. An operating surplus is returned periodically, to members as a dividend, and the amount distributed is proportionate to the value of the member's purchases over the period.

Retail co-operatives also sell to the general public, but membership is open to anyone paying a small deposit on a minimum share, which entitles the member to an equal voice with other members in determining the policy of the society. Investment by individual members is limited to £500 but the rules of some societies may fix lower limits. Only a low rate of interest is paid on the shares.

At the end of 1956, there were 1,006 retail co-operative societies registered under the Industrial and Provident Societies Act, but amalgamations are slowly diminishing the number of societies. More than a quarter of the total membership of the co-operatives (11,856,000, an increase in the year of 297,000) was provided by the eleven largest societies, each of which had a membership of more than 120,000. One, the London Co-operative Society with about 1.3 million members, is the largest retail co-operative in the world. Total sales of the retail co-operative societies in 1956 reached £886 million, the largest having a turnover of more than £50 million.

Retail co-operative societies are free to purchase where they wish or to produce their own goods, but in order to secure the advantages of large-scale production and distribution, they have collectively established wholesale and production societies.¹

In 1955, an Independent Commission was set up by the Co-operative Union to survey the whole field of co-operative production and marketing. In its report, published in May 1958, the Commission stressed the rapid progress made by the co-operative movement over the past fifty years, drew attention to certain shortcomings, such as the failure to keep pace with the expansion of sales by multiple stores, and made several recommendations for reorganisation. These included proposals for the amalgamation of smaller retail co-operative societies, and for the concentration of the productive effort of the wholesale co-operative societies on a narrower range of goods.

Hire-Purchase Sales

The rapid growth of sales of household and durable consumer goods—such as furniture, washing machines, refrigerators and cookers—has been greatly assisted by the development of instalment purchasing. Hire-purchase finance is made available by numerous finance companies, as well as by wholesalers and retailers. Finance companies specialising in this form of credit derive their funds from several sources, including their paid-up capital, debentures, loans from commercial banks and deposits by the general public. At the end of 1957, finance houses were carrying about £257 million of hire-purchase and other instalment debt, the twelve largest houses accounting for about two-thirds of this total. In 1958, certain commercial banks acquired holdings in the ordinary share capital of a number of hire-purchase finance companies. In July 1954, the Government removed controls over hire-purchase and credit sales. As part of the measures taken by the Government to restrain credit, however, controls were re-imposed in February 1955. These took the form of stipulating minimum initial payments, varied according to the type of product, and maximum periods for payments. Measures were also taken to limit severely the amount of new capital which hire-purchase finance companies were permitted to raise, but in July 1958 these restrictions were partially relaxed. Since October 1955, the Board of Trade has compiled a series of monthly returns, on a sample basis, relating to hire-purchase sales and these have been continued on a revised basis since July 1957 to include other kinds of instalment credit. According to these returns, about 44 per cent of the sales of furniture shops and shops selling furnishings, and about 30 per cent of those of hardware goods shops during the latter half of 1957 were hire-purchase or other instalment credit transactions. It has been estimated that at the end of 1957 the total amount of instalment debt was about £484 million.

Consumer Protection

Various legislative measures exist in the United Kingdom to protect the consumer against specific abuses. Independent organisations have also sought to establish voluntary minimum standards of quality.

The Merchandise Marks Acts, 1887–1953, are designed to ensure that the marking of goods is both accurate and honest. Weights and Measures legislation,

¹ The two major wholesale societies are the Co-operative Wholesale Society Limited and the Scottish Co-operative Wholesale Society Limited.

one of the earliest forms of consumer protection, is strictly enforced by qualified inspectors. In establishing standardisation of consumer goods, the *British Standards Institution* (see p. 251) is providing valuable services and the Council of Industrial Design (see p. 214) helps to foster improvements in the design of consumer goods. Advice to the public on the quality and price of consumer goods and services is provided through the British Standards Institution's Consumer Advisory Council, with a membership of over 35,000, and also by a private body, the Association for Consumer Research Ltd., which has more than 70,000 members. Individual trades and industries have also taken measures towards raising standards of quality.

The purity, hygiene and description of food are controlled by the Food and Drugs Acts, 1955 and 1956 (see p. 140).

XIV. SOUND AND TELEVISION BROADCASTING

Broadcasting of sound and of television in the United Kingdom is regulated under powers conferred on the Postmaster General by the Wireless Telegraphy Acts, 1949-1955, which prohibit the sending or receiving of radio communications, except under licence. Users of sound and television receiving sets must obtain an annual licence, which can be purchased from most post offices.

Sound broadcasting services are provided solely by the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC), which was established as a public corporation by Royal Charter in 1927. Television services are provided by both the British Broadcasting Corporation and the Independent Television Authority (ITA), which was established by the Television Act, 1954.

The number of receiving licences current in the United Kingdom at the end of June 1958 was 14,658,381, of which 8,253,305 were for sound and television combined, and 6,405,076 (including 345,984 for sets fitted in cars) for sound only. The former costs £3 annually, plus £1 excise duty, the latter £1. One licence covers all receiving sets in a household, but a separate licence is required for sets fitted in cars.

Broadcasting Authorities

When sound broadcasting began in the United Kingdom in 1922, it was decided in Parliament that the Postmaster General should grant only one licence for that purpose at any one time; and the first licence was granted exclusively to a limited company (the British Broadcasting Company). The decision to grant only one licence for broadcasting was maintained when the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) was formed to take over the functions of the limited company in 1927; it was reaffirmed when, in 1937, the BBC's second Charter was granted, which covered the sound services and the first high definition public television service in the world, inaugurated by the BBC in 1936; and it was upheld throughout the second world war and during the post-war period until 1952.

During the war, public service television broadcasting was suspended, and transmissions were not resumed until 1946. After resumption, however, the television service gained rapidly both in technical efficiency and in popularity; and between 1949 and 1952 (when the BBC's Charter was again due to be renewed) the Government instituted a major review of sound and television broadcasting which aroused great interest in Parliament, in the Press and among the public. After prolonged parliamentary and general discussion (during the course of which the first non-exclusive broadcasting licence was granted to the BBC) it was decided by the Government that the potential power of television was so great that it would be undesirable to leave transmission services in this medium in the hands of a single authority, however excellent. The Independent Television Authority was therefore established in 1954 to provide services additional to those of the BBC for an initial period of ten years; and independent television transmissions began in 1955—the BBC's monopoly in the provision of sound broadcasting services remaining undisturbed.

Both the BBC and the ITA are independent authorities in so far as daily administration and presentation of programmes are concerned. The Government, however, retains ultimate control, and the Postmaster General, as the responsible minister, is answerable to Parliament on broad questions of policy. The Postmaster General may also issue directions to the Corporation and to the ITA on a number of technical and other subjects; and he has power to prohibit the broadcasting of any particular matter or class of matter, or to revoke their Licences at any time. Both the BBC and the ITA are required to publish annual Reports and Accounts, which are presented by the Postmaster General to Parliament.

The BBC and the ITA both consult with the Postmaster General as to the hours of television broadcasting, and he has approved an arrangement which limits it to a maximum of 50 hours a week with no more than eight hours on any one day, although extensions are permitted for certain stated purposes, such as religious broadcasts, ministerial and party political broadcasts, schools broadcasts, outside broadcasts and Welsh language broadcasts. The authorities may broadcast television programmes, within the prescribed maxima, during any periods best suited to the needs of their audiences. The BBC broadcasts in all four of its domestic sound services for some 18 hours out of the 24.

Organisation and Finance

The BBC operates under the provisions of two documents, each granted for limited periods at the end of which they may be renewed or amended: the Charter, which sets out the constitution, objects and internal organisation of the Corporation and contains certain financial provisions; and the Licence and Agreement between the Corporation and the Postmaster General, which deals with technical matters, certain non-technical conditions such as the prohibition of commercial advertisements and sponsored programmes, and details of the financial arrangements in force. The operations of the ITA are governed by the provisions of the Television Act, 1954, which formulate its constitution, its functions, its purpose and the framework of its finances; and by the Licence (which contains technical provisions) issued to it by the Postmaster General in 1955.

The British Broadcasting Corporation

Under the current charter (which came into force in 1952 and expires in 1962) the Corporation consists of nine governors (including a chairman, a vice-chairman and separate national governors for Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland) each appointed for a period of not more than five years by the Sovereign in Council. As a corporate body, the governors are responsible for the conduct of the whole broadcasting operation, including the content and presentation of the programmes in sound and television, and the provision and working of the necessary installations and equipment.

In the discharge of its responsibilities, the Corporation ensures that its services are used, as stated in the preamble to the Charter, 'as a means of disseminating information, education and entertainment'; it must pay heed to the requirements of the Licence (e.g., it must allow the broadcasting of any announcement at the request of a Government Department, and it must strictly exclude commercial advertisements in any form from its programmes); and it must refrain from formulating or allowing the expression of editorial opinion, since to express such opinion would be to depart from the rule of impartiality which the BBC is expected to observe in current affairs and matters of public issue.

The governors are advised on all aspects of their work by a number of councils, established in accordance with the terms of the Charter, e.g., the General

Advisory Council, which has been in existence, except for a break during the war years, since 1934; the National Broadcasting Councils for Scotland and Wales, which, under the chairmanship of the national governors for Scotland and Wales, are responsible for the domestic sound services in those countries; and the Regional Advisory Councils for the English regions and for Northern Ireland. There are also a number of other councils and committees, not specifically required by the Charter, but established by the BBC to advise on such matters as religious broadcasting, schools broadcasting, music and agriculture.

The chief executive officer of the BBC is the Director-General, who is appointed by the governors at their discretion and with whom they discuss all major matters of policy and finance. Under the Director-General are eight directors (the Chief Assistant to the Director-General, and the Directors of Sound Broadcasting, Television Broadcasting, News and Current Affairs, External Broadcasting, Engineering, Administration, and Staff Administration) who, between them, cover the whole work of the Corporation, and who, with the Director-General, constitute the Board of Management of the BBC. The number of staff employed in 1958 was approximately 15,470.

The services of the BBC are financed from (1) an annual sum, voted by Parliament, which is related to revenue derived from the sale by the Post Office of wireless receiving licences; (2) an annual grant-in-aid, voted by Parliament, for the External Services, i.e. the European Services, the Overseas Services, and the Monitoring Service; and (3) profits from BBC publications, mainly the *Radio Times*, which has a weekly sale of about 8 million copies and attracts a large advertising revenue. The gross revenue from the sale of licences for the year ended 31st March, 1958, amounted to £30,839,215, excluding the excise duty which is not regarded as part of the income from licences and is not available to be spent on broadcasting.

Under the terms of an agreement with the Postmaster General, entered into in 1957, the Treasury retains 12½ per cent of the net revenue from the sale of licences, i.e. the gross revenue less a sum deducted by the Post Office, equal to the actual expenses it incurs in collecting the licence fees, investigating complaints of interference and rendering other services, and the cost of administration. In 1957-58, the Post Office deducted £1,931,313 from the gross revenue, the Treasury retained £3,610,375 of the net revenue, and the Corporation received a net income of £25,297,527. In the same period, the total net revenue from publications was £706,956; and grant-in-aid receipts amounted to £6,054,000, including £5,270,000 for broadcasting expenditure. Additional sums may be paid to the Corporation if, on application by the BBC to the Postmaster General, the Treasury is satisfied that the income of the Corporation is insufficient for the adequate conduct of home broadcasting during any portion of the term of the Licence.

The Independent Television Authority

The Independent Television Authority consists of a chairman, a deputy chairman and eight ordinary members (three of whom have special responsibility for Scotland, Wales and Monmouthshire, and Northern Ireland severally) appointed by the Postmaster General. The Authority owns and operates the transmitting stations, but the production studios and equipment are owned, and the actual programmes are provided, by commercial programme companies under contract to the Authority. These companies pay the Authority for the right to present programmes, which may include advertisements. The Authority is, however, required by the Television Act to satisfy itself that the programmes maintain certain standards—e.g., it must ensure that they do not offend against good taste or decency, that they are balanced in their subject matter, that they preserve

due impartiality in presenting matters of industrial or political controversy, and that the news is reported accurately. The Authority therefore has controlling and regulatory powers of a wide and important character in regard to programmes and advertisements, as well as the task of choosing the programme contractors and drawing up the contracts under which they are to operate.

In the discharge of its duties, the Authority is advised by three statutory committees: the Advertising Advisory Committee, the Children's Advisory Committee, and the Central Religious Advisory Committee, which by arrangement with the BBC acts as the statutory advisory body to the ITA on religious broadcasting. The ITA has also appointed a panel of five consultants to assist it in the exercise of its day-to-day responsibilities for religious services and programmes. There is also a Sports Advisory Committee, appointed by the ITA, to advise on all matters concerned with the televising of sport.

The chief executive officer of the ITA is the Director-General. There is also a Deputy Director-General, and a headquarters staff covering all technical, administrative, clerical, typing and office services, which numbered 79 in April 1958. Staff has also been recruited for the transmitting stations and for regional offices, bringing the total number of ITA staff to some 208. Nine programme companies are under contract with the ITA: Associated-Rediffusion Limited; Associated TeleVision Limited; ABC Television Limited; Granada TV Network Limited; Scottish Television Limited; Independent Television for South Wales and the West of England Limited (I.W.W. Ltd.); Southern Television Limited; Tyne-Tees Television Limited; and Anglia Television Company. A common news service is provided by Independent Television News Limited. A Standing Consultative Committee, composed of two representatives of the ITA and a representative of each of the programme companies, provides consultative machinery between the Authority and the companies on matters affecting the companies as a whole. There is also an Independent Television Companies Association Limited, designed to further the collective interests of the companies with such outside bodies as trade unions and sporting organisations, and generally to ensure that they speak as far as possible with one voice on public issues connected with television broadcasting policy.

The ITA receives no payments from licence revenue; its finance is drawn from payments made to it by the programme companies which, in the year ended 31st March, 1958, amounted to £2,284,086. In addition, advances (limited to £1 million during the first year of the Authority's existence and to a total of £2 million in all during the first five years) may be made by the Postmaster General with the consent of the Treasury for the purpose of paying initial expenses and for providing the ITA with working capital. However, by the end of March 1958 (some two and a half years after the inauguration of independent television) only £555,000 had been loaned to the Authority under this head, and this amount is now in the process of being repaid. There is also provision in the Television Act for an annual Exchequer grant, not exceeding £750,000, to be made to the Authority, but it has not, in fact, been found necessary to pay this grant.

Sound Broadcasting

The BBC operates four domestic sound broadcasting services from 59 transmitting stations, and two main groups of external broadcasting services from 37 high power, high frequency transmitters in the United Kingdom and from two (used for relay purposes) at Tebrau, near Singapore. Until recently, the domestic sound services were broadcast solely on long and medium wavelengths, allocated to the United Kingdom under the Copenhagen Agreement of 1948, which aimed

at minimising interference between the broadcasting stations of the participating countries. However, the growth in the number of European broadcasting stations after that date (there are now twice as many as in 1948) so diminished the effectiveness of the Agreement that, in 1955, the BBC began to establish a network of very high frequency (VHF) transmitters. By 1958, fifteen permanent VHF transmitting stations had been built and put into operation, and the VHF service is now available to some 93 per cent of the population. The VHF stations broadcast the Home Service appropriate to the region in which they are situated, as well as the Light Programme, the Third Programme and Network Three, and for all these services greatly improved reception is assured. Seven more such stations have been approved by the Postmaster General.

There are 157 studios for the domestic sound programmes, of which 61 are in London and 96 at various centres in the regional areas. The external services use 32 London studios. There are also semi-automatic studios which can be operated in 14 different centres in the United Kingdom by a programme official without the attendance of an engineer.

Domestic Services

The domestic sound services, which produce over 20,000 programme hours a year, are designed to cater for the varying tastes of a diverse listening public. They consist of the Home Service, the Light Programme, the Third Programme, and Network Three.

The *Home Service*, which occupies some 18 hours a day, is planned to serve the broad middle section of the community. It provides a wide range of musical programmes (with particular emphasis on the great standard works of music) and plays (including the classics and contemporary drama). The principal news and information programmes, discussions on domestic and foreign affairs, party political broadcasts, special programmes for children and young people (e.g., Children's Hour, and Broadcasts for Schools), religious programmes, and 'outside broadcasts' (which take the listener to national occasions and sporting events) are also produced on the Home Service. In addition, the Home Service is the vehicle for regional broadcasting, which is the generic term for programmes specially compiled for listeners in Scotland, Northern Ireland, Wales, the north of England, the Midlands and the west of England. All these services carry items from the basic Home Service, together with programmes produced within the region; the Welsh Service also broadcasts a daily bilingual programme.

The *Light Programme*, which occupies some 18 hours a day, is intended for those who wish to enjoy relaxation and distraction in the least demanding form. Entertainment programmes are the main feature; they include light music and dance music as well as variety programmes, short plays, programmes for women and children (e.g., Woman's Hour and 'Listen with Mother') and regular news summaries and bulletins. There are also frequent 'outside broadcasts' on the Light Programme, and commentaries on sport.

The *Third Programme*, which normally occupies three hours in the evening (five on Saturdays and Sundays) is planned for minority audiences. The range, style and presentation of its programmes, which include music, drama, talks and features, are intended to satisfy listeners' intellectual maturity and cultural interests. The programme claims on the one hand to be contemporary and forward-looking, and on the other to represent the artistic

achievements of the past; it has an international flavour in that many of the plays presented are translations of European drama or are by American authors, and many of the talks are about foreign political thought and cultural activities in countries overseas.

Network Three, which occupies between one and two hours on weekday evenings, provides programmes of specialised interest, mainly programmes of the spoken word. It is intended as a means of meeting the practical needs (e.g., for further education, learning a foreign language, or acquiring expert information on various aspects of hobbies or work) of groups of people, which cannot properly be met during the evening hours by the other services.

Each of the domestic sound services has its own characteristics, but the Home Service and the Light Programme are planned together and are sometimes synchronised for a part of the day, while the Third Programme is co-ordinated with the other two, so far as is practicable, to ensure the widest possible choice of programmes for listeners.

External Services

The external broadcasting services of the BBC are intended to provide a link of culture, information and entertainment between the peoples of the United Kingdom and those in all other parts of the world; to present events of world-wide importance with speed and accuracy; and generally to reflect British opinion and the British way of life. These services are heard in English and in 40 other languages throughout the world for a total, between them, of about 81 hours a day, which is longer than the output of all the BBC's domestic sound and television services added together, and involves the transmission of some 48,000 news bulletins and 50,000 talks (including press reviews) in the course of a year.

The services, under the Director of External Broadcasting, are divided into the European Services and the Overseas Services, each in charge of a Controller. Within these two groups are the regional divisions. Common to both groups is the External Services News Department, which prepares all the news broadcasts for overseas audiences.

The *European Services* broadcast over 200 programme hours a week and are sub-divided into five regional groupings: French, South European (Spain, Italy, Greece, Turkey), Central European (Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Poland), East European (Soviet Union, Roumania, Bulgaria, Yugoslavia, Albania), and German. There is also a Finnish Service; and an English Service is directed to the whole of Europe. The material broadcast by the regional services is mainly supplied by two central departments; the European Talks Department and the European Production Department.

The *Overseas Services*, which are directed to countries outside Europe, broadcast about 350 programme hours a week. They comprise the General Overseas Service (started as the Empire Service in 1932) with its world-wide audience of English-speaking listeners, and a number of regional services in English and 24 other languages. The General Overseas Service pays special attention to its audiences in the Commonwealth, to British Forces and to British communities overseas; it gives a complete programme service, including news bulletins, talks, music, light entertainment, religious services and sport, for 21 hours every day. The regional services include: the African, Caribbean, and Colonial Services; the North American, the Pacific and the South African Services; the Eastern Service for the Arab countries and for India, Pakistan, Ceylon, Israel

and Iran; the Far Eastern Service; the Latin American Service; and 'London Calling Asia', a programme in English for English-speaking Asians.

The external broadcasting services also include the *Transcription Services*, which record each year over 700 BBC sound programmes and a similar number of tele-recordings and films made by the BBC television service, and distribute them to broadcasting organisations in all parts of the world; the '*English by Radio*' service, which distributes English lessons with explanations in 32 languages and reaches an audience of several millions by direct transmission from London and by recorded broadcasts from local stations; and the *Monitoring Service*, which reports foreign broadcasts from more than 40 countries in more than 30 languages and works under a reciprocal agreement with its American counterpart as regards monitored material from the Far East and other areas inaudible in the United Kingdom.

The selection of the countries to which the external broadcasting services are to be directed, and the time on the air to be allotted to each, rests with the Government Departments concerned with overseas relations. On appropriate occasions, these Departments are consulted about the content of the programmes, for which the BBC is generally responsible.

The BBC maintains offices for its representatives in New York, Paris, Ottawa, Toronto, Sydney, New Delhi and Beirut, to encourage local interest in the BBC and to provide the BBC with advice and help concerning programmes, whether for home listeners about that area or for listeners in the area itself. The offices (which are concerned with the whole field of sound radio and, where appropriate, television) are also responsible for promoting good relations with the local broadcasting organisations, and for keeping the BBC informed about local broadcasting and other developments of interest; in these matters, they work closely with the BBC's Overseas and Foreign Relations Department. Audience research is undertaken by sampling surveys (carried out in five or six different countries each year), and by listener panels, of which there are more than 20 in operation, covering all parts of the world.

Television Broadcasting

In 1936, the BBC launched the world's first public television service. By 1958, this service was being transmitted from 20 stations and was available to over 98 per cent of the population.

The BBC television service broadcasts a maximum of 50 hours of programmes a week, with permitted extensions (averaging 10 hours) for outside and other broadcasts of a special character. In the course of a year, the service broadcasts more than 7,000 items on a national network, made up of studio productions, outside broadcasts, films, and relays from the continent of Europe.

BBC studio productions come from the London Television Theatre at Shepherd's Bush; eight main London studios; and fully equipped regional studios at Manchester, Birmingham, Cardiff, Glasgow, Bristol and Belfast. In addition, eight small interview studios (used mainly for short insertions into the news) have been established in London, Scotland, Wales, and in the north, midland and west of England regions. The Television Film Department of the BBC is housed at the Ealing film studios; and Television News and newsreel programmes originate from a specially equipped studio at Alexandra Palace, London. The studios at the Television Centre in London (which has been specifically designed for television purposes) will start coming into use in 1961.

Outside broadcasting (which during the year 1957-58 transmitted nearly 1,000 programmes, providing about 18 per cent of the total BBC television output) covers most parts of the United Kingdom with its mobile units, presenting

programmes both of national and of specifically regional interest, and also brings scenes of events in Europe to viewers in the United Kingdom.

The first regular independent television (ITV) service was inaugurated in September 1955, by a programme transmission from the ITA London station at Beaulieu Heights, Croydon. By 1958, programmes were being transmitted for 50 hours a week, with permitted extensions averaging a further 10 hours a week, from 7 stations in all parts of Great Britain, and approximately three-quarters of the total number of homes with television sets were able to receive ITV.

ITV programmes are produced at modern studio centres in London, Birmingham, Manchester, Glasgow, Cardiff, Southampton and Newcastle. The establishment of these studios is the direct result of the ITA's policy of encouraging the development of regional television, and the programmes are either for local broadcasting or for transmission to one or more of the other regions through the link system operated by the Authority, which, at the beginning of 1958, consisted of 959 miles of vision links, about 69 per cent of which were two-way circuits.

Generally speaking, both the BBC and the ITV services provide programmes of music, drama, light entertainment, variety, and films. Broadcasts for schools are produced on five days in the week both by the BBC and by Associated-Rediffusion Ltd. under contract with the ITA. Religious broadcasting is also a feature of both services, as are programmes on the arts, children's and family programmes, interviews with outstanding personalities, investigations into matters of public interest, news reports covering international, national and local events, and outside broadcasts, mainly of sport.

Advertising is altogether excluded from the television programmes of the BBC, as from their sound programmes. The ITA broadcasts advertisements (on which the programme companies depend for their revenue) subject to the relevant provisions in the Television Act, namely, that there should be no sponsoring of programmes by advertisers, that all advertisements should be clearly distinguishable as such and recognisably separate from the rest of the programme, and that the amount of time given to advertising should not be so great as to detract from the value of the programmes as a medium of entertainment, instruction and information. The ITA has also agreed rules with the Postmaster General about certain classes of broadcasts (including, in particular, religious services) in which advertisements may not be inserted and, on the advice of the Advertising Advisory Committee, has drawn up certain 'principles for television advertising' with a view to the exclusion of misleading advertisements from the programmes broadcast by the Authority. The cost of inserting advertisements in the ITA service is borne by the advertisers, who pay the programme companies for advertising time.

Wire Broadcasting

Wire broadcasting—a system whereby radio programmes are received at a central point, whence they are distributed by wire to listeners and viewers—began in the United Kingdom in 1925 as a private venture and remains in the hands of private enterprise. Wire broadcasting companies operate under licence from the Postmaster General. They are not allowed to originate programmes of their own, and their function is to distribute programmes from general broadcasting stations. A specified minimum of their programme material must be taken from BBC sources. Subscribers to wire broadcasting services must have ordinary broadcast receiving licences. At the beginning of 1958, there were 411 wire broadcasting services, of which 105 gave television service and the remainder sound-only service. The number of subscribers at that date was just over one million, including 108,019 who were receiving television services.

Audience Research

Audience research, as conducted by the BBC, is carried on by interviewing, each day, some 4,000 people throughout the country (a sample or cross-section of the public) to ascertain what programmes they have heard or viewed on the preceding day, and by means of listening and viewing panels, the members of which are volunteers, who are prepared to answer questions about the programmes they normally hear or see. Trends in public taste, which cannot be discovered by an examination of the results of interviews and of the reports of the panels, are the concern of a special section of the BBC's Audience Research Department, which also carries out general surveys.

Audience research is carried out on behalf of independent television by two independent research organisations: the A. C. Nielsen Co. Ltd., and Television Audience Measurement Limited.

Scientific Research

Research into the technical problems of broadcasting is carried out by the scientific and engineering staffs of the BBC, the Post Office and the radio industry in order to improve the technical facilities of broadcasting and thus to increase its efficiency.

Colour television has been, and still is, one of the main interests of the BBC Research Department which, following some years of laboratory work, began a series of experimental transmissions in colour from the London Television Station in 1955; the latest six-months series of tests ended in April 1958. The results of these transmissions have been communicated to the Television Advisory Committee which the Postmaster General appointed to advise him, *inter alia*, on the whole field of development of colour television.

The BBC has also been conducting experiments on a new system of recording television pictures on magnetic tape. The equipment produced for this operation, known as Vision Electronic Recording Apparatus (VERA), was publicly demonstrated in April 1958, and has since been installed in the Lime Grove studio centre, where it is being given a thorough service trial.

Other subjects of research undertaken by the BBC have been: the improvement of studio acoustics, microphones and loud speakers; the long-distance propagation effect of high and low power transmissions; the development of a mobile unit—known as the Roving Eye—for outside broadcasting, which contains television cameras and all the equipment needed to operate them, together with VHF transmitters, and which can be operated, if necessary, from a moving vehicle; and methods of increasing national coverage both in sound and television by such means as the sharing of frequencies between stations in different parts of the United Kingdom, the construction of transmitting aerials having special horizontal radiation patterns, and the development of a 'satellite' transmitter of very low power for providing a television service to small and isolated communities.

International Relations

The BBC is an active member and the ITA, together with the Independent Television Programme Companies Association, is an associate member of the European Broadcasting Union. The Union, which now has 27 active members among the broadcasting organisations in the European zone (and 16 associate members mostly from outside Europe, including the United States of America and many of the nations of the Commonwealth) meets every year to exchange views and information, and to study common problems in the programme, technical

and legal fields. It also maintains a Technical Monitoring Station, where frequency measurements and other observations on broadcasting stations can be carried out.

Within the Commonwealth, the BBC is closely associated with the broadcasting organisations of the other member countries and of the dependent territories. As a result of a decision to achieve still closer co-operation taken at the third Commonwealth Broadcasting Conference in 1956, the BBC joined with the Australian Broadcasting Commission, the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation, and the Rank Organisation in establishing the British Commonwealth International Newsfilm News Agency Trust. This joint enterprise provides, through an associated non-profit-making company (the British Commonwealth International Newsfilm News Agency Limited), a reliable service of international news on film for subscribers anywhere in the world who operate television services, produce cinematograph newsreels or acquire newsfilm for any other purposes, including education.

The BBC also participates in the work of the International Telecommunication Union (ITU)—the United Nations specialised agency responsible for the regulation and control of all international telecommunication services (including sound and television), for the allocation and registration of all radio frequencies, and (through its International Radio Consultative Committee) for the promotion and co-ordination of the international study of technical radio problems. In addition, the BBC has long-established relations with the United Nations Radio Division, with the United Nations Educational and Scientific Organisation, and with the Council of Europe.

Eurovision

As well as taking part in the exchange of sound radio programmes arranged between the member countries of the European Broadcasting Union (EBU), the BBC is a regular contributor to the network of European television (Eurovision). This network now includes twelve Western European member countries; the exchange of television programmes between them is arranged by the EBU, which maintains an International Television Co-ordination Centre (Eurovision) in Brussels. To facilitate programme exchanges on the Eurovision network a permanent television link, operating in either direction between London and the Continent, is being constructed by the Post Office. The range of Eurovision is steadily increasing as countries expand their networks and facilities, and new countries participate.

XV. THE PRESS

The British Press caters for all political views, different levels of education and a wide range of interests. It is free from Government censorship and interference.

The British public buys more newspapers per person than any other in the world. It has been estimated (by UNESCO) that for every 1,000 inhabitants of the United Kingdom 609 copies of daily papers are sold every day. Next comes Sweden with 506 per 1,000 inhabitants. Circulation figures of individual newspapers are proportionately high. The *Sunday News of the World*, which reached a circulation of over 8 million copies, and the average circulation of which has recently (January to end-June 1958) been 6,767,348, holds the world's record for the circulation of a newspaper¹; and seven of the daily morning newspapers have circulations in the millions. These high figures are largely explained by the fact that the London morning papers have 'national' circulations, i.e. they are distributed throughout the British Isles, being available on the day of publication everywhere except in a few outlying islands.

Britain imports half its newsprint requirements, while the other half is made from imported raw materials. A Government-controlled rationing scheme was in operation from 1940 until the end of 1956, when the Newsprint Supply Company took over responsibility for the distribution of supplies; from 1st January, 1959, newspaper offices will have to make their own arrangements for the provision of newsprint. The average size of London national morning papers, which was from four to six pages during the second world war and the immediate post-war period, is now from 10 to 20 pages.

Prices of daily newspapers vary from 2½d. (for the majority of papers) to 4d. (for *The Times*).

According to *The Newspaper Press Directory*² there are some 150 daily and Sunday newspapers: 16 London mornings, 3 London evenings, 11 London Sundays; 19 mornings, 65 evenings and 3 Sundays in England outside London; 1 morning and 3 evenings in Wales; 7 mornings, 8 evenings and 2 Sundays in Scotland; 3 mornings and 1 evening in Northern Ireland; 1 Isle of Man daily; and 1 morning and 2 evenings in the Channel Islands.

There are some 1,300 weekly papers published in Greater London and almost every sizable town in the rest of the country. These papers deal mainly with news of interest to the region where they are sold. There are also the sporting papers, papers in foreign languages for groups of nationals of other lands resident in Britain, and religious papers.

In 1947, a Royal Commission on the Press was appointed to inquire into the finance, control, management and ownership of the British Press. Its report was issued in June 1949 (*Cmd. 7700*) and has been recognised as a comprehensive and authoritative analysis. Among other recommendations it suggested the establishment of a General Council of the Press and this was set up in 1953 (see p. 473).

¹ The only higher circulation is that of the BBC's weekly, *Radio Times*, the average sale of which, for the same period, was 7,953,599 copies a week.

² Changes in the number of newspapers occur constantly; figures are based on the 1958 edition of *The Newspaper Press Directory*, published early in 1958.

TABLE 42
 'NATIONAL' NEWSPAPERS AND LONDON EVENINGS

Title	General Political Tendency	Owner	Circulation average Jan.-June (inc.) 1958
DAILIES			
<i>The Times</i> (1785)	Independent	Times Publishing Co. Ltd.	248,248
<i>Daily Telegraph</i> (1855)	Conservative	Daily Telegraph Ltd.	1,108,514
<i>Manchester Guardian</i> (1821)	Liberal	Manchester Guardian and Evening News Ltd.	178,692
<i>Daily Express</i> (1900)	Independent Conservative. Stresses importance of British Empire	Beaverbrook Newspapers Ltd.	4,040,572
<i>Daily Mail</i> (1896)	Conservative	Associated Newspapers Ltd.	2,105,988
<i>Daily Herald</i> (1912)	Labour	Daily Herald Ltd. (Odhams Press Ltd.)	1,523,334
<i>News Chronicle</i> and <i>Daily Dispatch</i> (1846, as <i>Daily News</i>)	Liberal	Daily News Ltd.	1,267,341
<i>Daily Worker</i> (1930)	Communist	People's Press Printing Society Ltd. Editorial executives members of Communist Party	not available
<i>Daily Mirror</i> (1903)	Left-wing	Daily Mirror Newspapers Ltd.	4,526,453
<i>Daily Sketch</i> (1909)	Conservative	Associated Newspapers Ltd.	1,223,948
<i>Financial Times</i> (1888)	Independent	The Financial Times Ltd.	83,713
LONDON EVENINGS			
<i>Evening News</i> (1881)	As for <i>Daily Mail</i>	As for <i>Daily Mail</i>	1,225,013
<i>Star</i> (1888)	As for <i>News Chronicle</i>	As for <i>News Chronicle</i>	789,485
<i>Evening Standard</i> (1827)	As for <i>Daily Express</i>	As for <i>Daily Express</i>	589,706
SUNDAYS			
<i>Observer</i> (1791)	Independent	The Observer Ltd. All shares owned by The Observer Trust	638,074
<i>Sunday Times</i> (1822)	Conservative	Kemsley Newspapers Ltd.	795,192

Continued overleaf

TABLE 42 (*contd.*)

Title	General Political Tendency	Owner	Circulation average Jan.-June (inc.) 1958
SUNDAYS (<i>contd.</i>)			
<i>News of the World</i> (1843)	General political sympathies Conservative	News of the World Ltd.	6,767,348
<i>People</i> (1881)	Independent	Odhams Press Ltd.	4,899,748
<i>Sunday Express</i> (1918)	As for <i>Daily Express</i>	As for <i>Daily Express</i>	3,397,913
<i>Sunday Dispatch</i> (1801)	As for <i>Daily Mail</i>	As for <i>Daily Mail</i>	1,834,857
<i>Reynolds News</i> (1850)	Supports the Co-operative Movement and the Labour Party	Co-operative Press Ltd. Co-operative societies are shareholders	367,635
<i>Empire News and Sunday Chronicle</i> (1884)	Conservative	Kemsley Newspapers Ltd.	2,161,230
<i>Sunday Pictorial</i> (1915)	As for <i>Daily Mirror</i>	Sunday Pictorial Newspapers Ltd.	5,378,242
<i>Sunday Graphic</i> (1915)	Conservative	Kemsley Newspapers Ltd.	952,781
<i>Woman's Sunday Mirror</i> (1955)	As for <i>Daily Mirror</i>	Pictorial Publications Ltd.	1,147,135

The Commission found that the British Press 'is completely independent of outside financial interests and that its policy is the policy of those that conduct it'; there was evidence that the direct influence of advertisers on policy was 'negligible'. After studying management and ownership, the Commission concluded that 'there is nothing approaching monopoly in the Press as a whole, or . . . in any class of newspaper'.

Ownership

As Table 42 shows, several companies or groups own a number of newspapers. The five largest press groups are: Associated Newspapers Limited, which, with four London papers, owns through subsidiary companies linked under the management of Northcliffe Newspapers Group Limited a total of nine dailies and nine weeklies in the provinces; Kemsley Newspapers Limited, which owns eleven dailies, five weeklies, and four Sundays; Westminster Press Group, which controls nine dailies and 38 weeklies; Provincial Newspapers Limited, which owns four dailies and 20 weeklies; and the Harmsworth Group, which owns four dailies and ten weeklies in the West country.

Groups also exist in the periodical press; among the best known are the Amalgamated Press, which publishes some 50 general, women's and children's papers (the affiliated Associated Iliffe Press has 39 trade, technical and specialised journals); the George Newnes group, which publishes 57 journals (general, specialised, trade

and technical); Odhams Press, Limited, which (in addition to two newspapers) publishes about 19 periodicals, including some with very high circulations; Hulton Press Limited, which publishes fewer titles but whose magazines have very large circulations; and the Thomson-Leng group, the largest publishers of magazines in Scotland (see p. 471).

Certain newspapers and periodicals are controlled by trustees whose aim is to preserve the character and traditions of the paper and prevent control from falling into unsuitable hands. Various forms of trust govern the direction of *The Times*, *Manchester Guardian*, *News Chronicle* and *Star*, *Observer*, *Economist*, *Spectator* and *New Statesman*.

The 'National' Press

Ten morning papers with headquarters in London, and one in Manchester, are 'national' in the sense of circulating throughout the British Isles, and there are 11 'national' Sunday papers (see Table 42). In addition, the leading Scottish papers (see below) circulate widely, and certain specialised daily papers also have a circulation not limited by region, e.g., *Lloyd's List and Shipping Gazette* and *Sporting Life*. The three London evening papers each have affiliations with one of the national dailies, but they draw their readership very largely from people living within fifty miles of London.

Provincial Newspapers

The provincial newspapers, numbering nearly a hundred morning or evening dailies and Sunday papers and nearly 1,000 weeklies, provide the general and local news expected by readers whose daily life and interests are known to, and shared by, the newspaper staff. Some 60 provincial papers still in existence were founded before 1800; the oldest being *Berrow's Worcester Journal*, dating back to 1709. With a few exceptions (e.g., *Yorkshire Post*, *Newcastle Journal*, *Northern Echo*, *Sheffield Telegraph*, *Western Mail*) they reflect no definite political tendency. The total circulation of the dailies is estimated at about 9 million and of the weeklies at about 12 million. Among the provincial dailies, the *Newcastle Journal*, the *Northern Echo* and the *Yorkshire Post* have circulations of well over 100,000; the *Sheffield Telegraph*, about 95,000; the *Birmingham Post* and the *Liverpool Daily Post*, over 70,000; two provincial Sunday papers—the *Sunday Sun* (Newcastle upon Tyne) owned by Kemsley Newspapers, and the *Sunday Mercury*, owned by a subsidiary company of the Birmingham Post and Mail Limited—each have circulations of over 200,000; while, among evening papers, the *Liverpool Echo* has a circulation of over 355,000 and the *Manchester Evening News* of over 330,000. The provincial newspaper, often read far more thoroughly than the national daily, is a valuable medium for national and local advertising.

London suburban weeklies, of which there are about 90, are closer to the provincial weeklies than to the national dailies in readership and appeal.

Ownership of the provincial Press is varied: it includes individual owners, two or more partner proprietors, local printing and publishing firms, newspaper companies owning between one and half a dozen papers, or press groups controlling a chain of newspapers in different parts of the country.

Scotland

Scotland has seven morning, eight evening and two Sunday newspapers. *The Glasgow Herald*, founded in 1783, and *The Scotsman*, founded in 1817 and a daily since 1855, published in Edinburgh, are among the organs influencing serious opinion in Great Britain. The circulation of the former is 75,853 and of the

latter 58,550 (average figures January to end-June 1958). Other morning papers are *The Daily Record*, *The Bulletin* (a picture paper), *The Courier and Advertiser*, and *The Press and Journal* (and Scottish editions of the *Daily Express* and *Daily Mail*). Glasgow, Edinburgh, Dundee and Aberdeen are the centres of publication. Evening papers include the *Edinburgh Evening News* and *Evening Dispatch*, Glasgow's *Evening Times* and *Evening Citizen*, Dundee's *Evening Telegraph and Post*, Aberdeen's *Evening Express*, and the *Paisley Daily Express* and the *Greenock Telegraph*. The Sunday papers are the *Sunday Mail*, the *Scottish Sunday Express*, and the *Sunday Post*.

Among the weekly papers are the *Weekly Scotsman* and *The People's Journal*, which also circulate outside Scotland; in all there are about 163 weekly papers published in Scottish towns.

Northern Ireland

Northern Ireland has three morning papers and one evening paper, all printed in Belfast: they are *Belfast News-Letter*, *Northern Whig*, *Irish News* and *Belfast Telegraph*. There are 46 weekly newspapers in Northern Ireland, including one published three times a week and one published twice a week. There is also a sporting paper, *Ireland's Saturday Night*, published each Saturday afternoon (Belfast). The majority are published by individual companies and all the counties have good coverage of local papers. There are no Sunday newspapers.

Wales

One daily morning newspaper, the *Western Mail*, a Kemsley newspaper, is printed and published in Cardiff; it has a circulation of over 93,000, mainly in the southern half of Wales. In North Wales, the *Liverpool Daily Post* gives wide coverage to events in the area. Evening papers published in Wales are the *South Wales Echo*, Cardiff, the *South Wales Daily Argus*, Newport, and the *South Wales Evening Post*, Swansea. North Wales is served by the *Liverpool Echo* and the *Liverpool Evening Express* and to a smaller extent by evening papers published in Manchester, the *Manchester Evening News* and the *Manchester Evening Chronicle*.

Since October 1954, a special Welsh edition of the *Empire News and Sunday Chronicle* has been printed in Cardiff. Other national Sunday papers carry columns of news on Welsh affairs.

The weekly press includes 48 weekly papers in English, some of them carrying articles in Welsh; nine bilingual papers; and twelve papers in Welsh, of which five are denominational papers.

Channel Islands and Isle of Man

The Channel Islands have one morning paper (*Guernsey Star*), two evening papers, one twice-weekly and two weeklies. The Isle of Man has one daily, a special weekly edition of which is published on Saturday, and four other weeklies.

Periodicals

Weekly, monthly and quarterly journals cover an enormous field. Salient features of the last twenty-five years have been the development of periodicals with a mass appeal and the growth of the trade and technical Press. There are over 3,500 periodical publications: general magazines with circulations ranging up to over a million; women's magazines, some of which have even larger circulations; numerous publications for children; religious periodicals of various denominations; magazines dealing with sports, hobbies, fiction and humour; periodicals specialising in various subjects such as politics, finance and economics, science, the professions, and the

arts; the large body of trade and technical publications, whose circulations are not confined to the United Kingdom; and the journals of learned societies, trade unions, business houses, regiments, universities, colleges, schools, and other associations.

Some popular periodicals, such as *Reveille*, *Weekend*, *Tit-Bits*, and *John Bull* (which became *John Bull and Illustrated* in October 1958) have circulations (January to June 1958) varying from over 2 million to over 900,000 copies. Six women's weeklies have circulations of over a million, *Woman* having nearly 3½ million buyers; a monthly, *Woman and Home*, also sells over a million copies of each issue.

Of considerable influence, although their circulations are only in the tens of thousands, are the weeklies dealing with political, social and economic affairs: *The Economist*, which covers topics of the day from a far wider angle than its title would indicate and is politically independent; *The New Statesman*, a review of politics, literature and the arts with an independent socialist political tendency; *The Spectator*, which covers much the same subjects and is non-party; *Time and Tide*, which has a right-wing tendency; and *Tribune*, with a left-wing but strongly anti-communist bias. Other papers whose circulations are in the tens of thousands are the illustrated weeklies such as *The Illustrated London News*, *The Sphere*, *The Field*, and *Country Life*, while *Punch* is the leading humour periodical. The readership of all these weeklies is greater than is apparent from their circulation figures, since they are widely read in libraries, clubs and other institutions.

Monthly and quarterly journals, generally speaking, appeal to the more serious type of reader, particularly the literary and political journals and those specialising in international and Commonwealth affairs.

In addition to the circulation of periodicals published in England, Wales has had, since 1957, its own farming weekly, the *Welsh Farm News*.

Four monthly illustrated periodicals are published in Scotland: *Scottish Field*, *Scotland's Magazine*, the *Scots Magazine* (founded 1739) and *Scotland*; and two weeklies devoted to farming interests, *Farming News* and the *Scottish Farmer*. Among literary journals, probably the most famous is *Blackwood's*, published in Edinburgh. Popular magazines are numerous: the Thomson-Leng group of Dundee alone distributes about 10 million copies of weeklies in the British Isles and abroad.

In Northern Ireland, weekly, monthly and quarterly publications cover farming, the linen industry, building, motoring and politics.

News Agencies

There are three principal British news agencies:

Reuters Ltd., a world agency with some 40 offices abroad and correspondents in almost all the world's capitals, which distributes foreign and Commonwealth news to British newspapers, and foreign and British news to over 3,000 papers outside Britain. It is owned by the British Press (through the Press Association and the Newspaper Proprietors' Association) and two Commonwealth news agencies, the Australian Associated Press and the New Zealand Press Association. All profits are used to develop the service.

Press Association Ltd., which distributes home news. It is owned by British provincial newspapers. All profits are used to develop the service.

Exchange Telegraph Company Ltd., a public company which distributes home news to British papers and other subscribers.

Two other agencies supply a general service of overseas news:

Associated Press, which is a branch of the Associated Press of America.

British United Press, which is a Canadian subsidiary of the United Press Association of America.

There are also some 60 United Kingdom, Commonwealth and foreign agencies and news services with offices in London, specialising in various aspects of newspaper and periodical requirements.

Training for Journalism

Until recently, and this therefore applies to most newspapermen working today, journalists were, broadly, of two classes: those who entered newspaper offices on leaving school and worked their way up, learning by experience; and university graduates who held some of the specialised posts, such as correspondents abroad or on special subjects, leader-writers and editorial office staff. The second class has always been comparatively small. The Kemsley Newspaper Group made provision for combining instruction with the practice of journalism, and courses in journalism were organised by the London Polytechnic, and by King's College, London (until the outbreak of war in 1939).

In 1952 an agreement was reached for a more comprehensive plan for the training and education of junior journalists in newspaper offices. A National Council for the Training of Journalists, on which are representatives of the principal press organisations, administers the scheme, which is based on the voluntary co-operation of newspaper offices. Examinations are taken at two levels, the lower being a general proficiency test which may be taken only after three years of active journalism, the higher, a diploma, which is awarded after further examination and submission of a thesis.

Press Institutions

Both employers and employees in the industry are well organised. On the employers' side, the most important organisations are the Newspaper Proprietors' Association, whose members are proprietors of London (national) daily and Sunday newspapers; the Newspaper Society, whose members are proprietors of provincial daily and weekly newspapers in England and Wales; the Scottish Daily Newspaper Society; the Scottish Newspaper Proprietors' Association; the Belfast Newspaper Society; the Publishers' Group, Irish Master Printers' Association (Northern Alliance), whose members are the proprietors of weekly newspapers in Northern Ireland; and the Periodical Proprietors' Association, whose membership embraces the independent publishers of trade and technical publications and general magazines. On the employees' side there are the Institute of Journalists (IoJ)—the National Association of Journalists until 1889—incorporated by Royal Charter in 1890, and the National Union of Journalists (NUJ), founded in 1907. The National Union of Journalists has a membership of about 14,500 working journalists; editors who have powers of dismissal are excluded from full membership but may be associate members. The Institute of Journalists, which has a membership of some 2,700, admits editors. Free-lance journalists (who are not on the staff of any one paper or group of papers but send contributions to any journal) may belong to the NUJ or IoJ. The aims of these organisations are the improvement of the economic status of journalists, the promotion of their professional welfare, and the safeguarding of the status of the Press and its editorial staffs.

The aims of the Guild of British Newspaper Editors are, *inter alia*, to sustain the dignity of editorship, to raise and safeguard the professional status of editors, to protect the rights and freedom of the Press, and to improve the education and training of junior journalists: the Guild has over 300 members.

The Typographical Association, in the provinces, and the London Typographical Society, in London, are the principal craft unions organising such workers as compositors and machine minders. The National Union of Printing, Bookbinding

and Paper Workers is principally concerned with the publishing and distribution side, and the National Society of Operative Printers and Assistants (NATSOPA) includes machine assistants, clerical workers and general assistants in printing works. These unions cover the printing industry generally.

The General Council of the Press

Following the recommendations of the Royal Commission on the Press, a Press Council representative of the various Press organisations was set up in 1953. Its aims are:

- to preserve the established freedom of the British Press;
- to maintain the character of the British 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 promote and encourage methods of recruitment, education and training of journalists;
- to promote a proper functional relation among all sections of the profession;
- to promote technical and other research;
- to study developments in the British Press which may tend towards greater concentration or monopoly; and
- to publish periodical reports recording its own work and reviewing from time to time the various developments in the British Press and the factors affecting them.

The Council consists of eight editorial representatives, four nominees of the National Union of Journalists, three nominees of the Institute of Journalists, and ten managerial representatives.

The Press and the Law

The Press in Britain has the same freedom as the individual to do and say what it likes provided it does not transgress the law; and in general it enjoys very great liberty of comment on matters of public interest. There are no special press laws (other than those relating to such matters as the registration of newspapers), but requirements which affect the Press occur in a variety of Acts of Parliament; for example, the admission of the Press to meetings of local authorities is regulated by the Local Government Acts, and restrictions on the reporting of domestic proceedings and proceedings concerning juveniles are imposed by legislation governing procedure in the law courts.

In particular, the Press must comply with the copyright laws and with the laws against the publication of matters covered by the Official Secrets Acts, with the laws of seditious libel, blasphemous and obscene libel, and defamation, with the laws for the protection of children from publications which might do them moral harm, and against fraudulent advertising, against breach of parliamentary privilege, and against 'contempt of court'—publication of anything affecting a case before the courts which might tend to influence the result of the trial, or of comment on court proceedings which might tend to prejudice their reputation for fairness.

Legal proceedings against the Press are infrequent; the majority of such actions as do take place are brought by private individuals seeking to protect their own interests, for example, against libel. In such cases, the editor, proprietor, publisher, printer and distributor of the newspaper, as well as the author of the article, may all be held responsible.

APPENDIX

BRITISH CURRENCY AND CURRENCY EXCHANGE RATES, WEIGHTS AND MEASURES, AND CONVERSION TABLES

BRITISH CURRENCY

4 farthings = 1 penny (1d.)	5 shillings = 1 crown
12 pence = 1 shilling (1s.)	20 shillings = 1 pound (£1)
2 shillings = 1 florin	21 shillings = 1 guinea
2 shillings and 6 pence = 1 half-crown	

Coins in common use are: half-penny, penny, threepenny piece, sixpence, shilling, two shilling piece (florin), and half-crown.

Bank of England *notes* are issued in denominations of 10s., £1 and £5. Notes of £1 and 10s. are legal tender in the United Kingdom for the payment of any amount; notes of £5 are legal tender in England and Wales only.

CURRENCY EXCHANGE RATES

COUNTRY	CURRENCY UNIT	CURRENCY UNITS PER £1 STERLING (Par value as at 31st July, 1958)
Argentina	Peso	50·4 (a)
Australia	Australian Pound	1·25
Austria	Schilling	72·8
Belgium	Belgian Franc	140·0
Brazil	Cruzeiro	52·0 (a)
Canada	Canadian Dollar	2·70 (b)
Ceylon	Ceylon Rupee	13·33
China (People's Republic)	Jen Men Piao (Yuan)	6·90 (a)
Denmark	Danish Krone	19·34
East Africa	East African Shilling	20·0
France	Franc	1,180·0 (b)
Germany, Federal Republic of	Deutsche Mark	11·76
Ghana	British West African Pound	1·0
Greece	Drachma	84·0
Hong Kong	Hong Kong Dollar	16·0
India	Rupee	13·33
Irish Republic	Irish Pound	1·0
Italy	Lira	1,750·0
Japan	Yen	1,010·0
Malaya, Federation of	Malayan Dollar	8·57
Netherlands, The	Guilder (Florin)	10·64
New Zealand	New Zealand Pound	1·0
Nigeria, Federation of	British West African Pound	1·0
Norway	Krone	20·0
Pakistan	Pakistan Rupee	13·33

(a) Official rate: other rates are in operation for certain types of transactions.

(b) Average of daily mean telegraphic transfer rates in June 1958.

CURRENCY EXCHANGE RATES (contd.)

Portugal	Escudo	80.0
Rhodesia and Nyasaland, Federa- tion of	Rhodesian Pound	1.0
Singapore	Malayan Dollar	8.57
South Africa, Union of	South African Pound	1.0
Spain	Peseta	118.0
Sweden	Krona	14.4
Switzerland	Swiss Franc	12.23 (b)
Turkey	Turkish Pound	7.87
United States of America	Dollar	2.80
Union of Soviet Socialist Repub- lics	Rouble	11.20 (a)
West Indies, The		
Jamaica	Jamaican Pound	1.0
Barbados, Leeward Islands, Trinidad and Tobago, and Windward Islands	British West Indian Dollar	4.80

(a) Official rate; other rates are in operation for certain types of transactions.

(b) Average of daily mean telegraphic transfer rates in June 1958.

BRITISH WEIGHTS AND MEASURES AND THEIR METRIC EQUIVALENTS

MEASURES OF 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

MEASURES OF 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 = 0.404 hectare
640 acres	=	1 square mile = 2.589 square kilometres

MEASURES OF CAPACITY

1 gill	=	0.142 litre	2 gallons	=	1 peck = 9.092 litres
4 gills	=	1 pint = 0.568 litre	4 pecks	=	1 bushel = 36.37 litres
2 pints	=	1 quart = 1.136 litres	8 bushels	=	1 quarter = 2.909 hectolitres
4 quarts	=	1 gallon = 4.546 litres			

MEASURES OF WEIGHT (AVOIRDUPOIS)

1 ounce (oz.)	=	28.350 grams
16 oz.	=	1 pound (lb.) = 0.454 kilogram
14 lb.	=	1 stone (st.) = 6.35 kilograms
28 lb.	=	1 quarter (qtr.) = 12.7 kilograms
4 quarters (112 lb.)	=	1 hundredweight (cwt.) = 50.8 kilograms
20 cwt. (2,240 lb.)	=	1 long ton = 1.016 metric tons
2,000 lb.	=	1 short ton = 0.907 metric ton

DOUBLE CONVERSION TABLES FOR WEIGHTS AND MEASURES

(Note: the central figures represent either of the two columns beside them, as the case may be—e.g., 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	0.404	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
Kilo- grams		Av. Pounds	Litres		Pints	Litres		Gallons	Hecto- litres per Hectare	English Bushels per Acre	
0.454	1	2.205	0.568	1	1.760	4.546	1	0.220	0.898	1	1.113
0.907	2	4.409	1.136	2	3.520	9.092	2	0.440	1.796	2	2.226
1.361	3	6.614	1.705	3	5.279	13.638	3	0.660	2.695	3	3.340
1.814	4	8.818	2.273	4	7.039	18.184	4	0.880	3.593	4	4.453
2.268	5	11.023	2.841	5	8.799	22.730	5	1.100	4.491	5	5.566
2.722	6	13.228	3.409	6	10.559	27.276	6	1.320	5.389	6	6.679
3.175	7	15.432	3.978	7	12.319	31.822	7	1.540	6.287	7	7.793
3.629	8	17.637	4.546	8	14.078	36.368	8	1.760	7.186	8	8.906
4.082	9	19.842	5.114	9	15.838	40.914	9	1.980	8.084	9	10.019
4.536	10	22.046	5.682	10	17.598	45.460	10	2.200	8.982	10	11.132

THERMOMETRICAL TABLE

	<i>Fahrenheit</i>	<i>Centigrade</i>	<i>Réaumur</i>
Water boils	212°	100°	80°
Water freezes	32°	0°	0°
Blood heat	98.4°	36.9°	29.5°

To convert:

°Fahrenheit into °Centigrade: subtract 32, then multiply by $\frac{5}{9}$.

°Centigrade into °Fahrenheit: multiply by $\frac{9}{5}$, then add 32.

°Fahrenheit into °Réaumur: subtract 32, then multiply by $\frac{4}{5}$.

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This bibliography is in no sense comprehensive: it is only intended to be a guide to further reading on the subjects covered in this Handbook.

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In the United States, equivalent free material can be supplied by British Information Services, 45 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, N.Y.

Certain reference pamphlets produced by the Central Office of Information can be purchased from Her Majesty's Stationery Office and its Agents overseas. These pamphlets are listed here with their respective prices (postage extra, as on all H.M.S.O. publications, if ordered direct).

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——— Supplement	' <i>The Times</i> '	1957	2	6
WILDING, NORMAN and LAUNDY, PHILIP. An Encyclopaedia of Parliament	<i>Cassell</i>	1958	63	0
House of Commons Manual of Procedure in the Public Business	<i>HMSO</i>	1951	7	6

Report of Select Committee on Delegated Legislation, with Minutes of Evidence	<i>HMSO</i>	1953	s. d.	8 6
The British Parliament	Reference Pamphlet RF.P.3405 <i>COI</i>	1956	free*	
The Organisation of Political Parties in Britain	Reference Paper R.3546 <i>COI</i>	1957	free*	
Parliamentary Elections in Britain [<i>under revision</i>]	Reference Paper R.2865 <i>COI</i>	1955	free*	

The Privy Council, Her Majesty's Government, Government Departments

BRIDGES, Sir EDWARD. Treasury Control	<i>Athlone Press</i>	1950	2 6	
CHESTER, D. N., <i>Editor</i> , and WILLSON, F. M. G. The Organisation of British Central Government, 1914-1956	<i>Allen & Unwin</i>	1957	30 0	
FINER, S. E. A Primer of Public Administration	<i>Muller</i>	1950		
JENNINGS, Sir IVOR. Cabinet Government. 2nd edn	<i>Cambridge University Press</i>	1951	45 0	
KEITH, A. BERRIEDALE. The British Cabinet System. 2nd edn rev. by N. H. Gibbs	<i>Stevens</i>	1952	40 0	
MACKENZIE, W. J. M. and GROVE, J. W. Central Administration in Britain	<i>Longmans</i>	1957	30 0	
NEILL, DESMOND G., <i>Editor</i> . Devolution of Government: The Experiment in Northern Ireland				
For the Royal Institute of Public Administration	<i>Allen & Unwin</i>	1953		
Individual Government Departments (New Whitehall Series.)				
For the Royal Institute of Public Administration				
The Colonial Office, by Sir Charles Jeffries	<i>Allen & Unwin</i>	1956	18 0	
The Foreign Office, by Lord Strang and others	<i>Allen & Unwin</i>	1955	18 0	
The Home Office, by Sir Frank Newsam	<i>Allen & Unwin</i>	1954	18 0	
The Ministry of Pensions and National Insurance, by Sir Geoffrey King	<i>Allen & Unwin</i>	1958	18 0	
The Scottish Office, by Sir David Milne	<i>Allen & Unwin</i>	1958	21 0	
The Ministry of Works, by Sir Harold Emmerson	<i>Allen & Unwin</i>	1956	15 0	
Government Administration in Wales. Cmnd 334	<i>HMSO</i>	1957	6	
Handbook on Scottish Administration	<i>HMSO</i>	1956	2 6	
Her Majesty's Ministers and Heads of Public Departments [6 issues a year]	<i>HMSO</i>		1 6	
How Northern Ireland is Governed: Central and Local Government in Northern Ireland, by Hugh Shearman	<i>Belfast, HMSO</i>	1951	6	
Report of the Royal Commission on Scottish Affairs 1952-54	Cmd 9212 <i>HMSO</i>	1954	5 0	
Scottish Administration	Reference Paper R.3363 <i>COI</i>	1956	free*	

The Civil Service

BRIDGES, Sir EDWARD. Portrait of a Profession: The Civil Service Tradition	<i>Cambridge University Press</i>	1950	3 6	
CAMPBELL, G. A. The Civil Service in Britain	<i>Penguin Books</i>	1955	3 6	

			s.	d.
CRITCHLEY, T. A. <i>The Civil Service Today</i>	<i>Gollancz</i>	1951	12	6
DUNNILL, FRANK. <i>The Civil Service: Some Human Aspects</i>	<i>Allen & Unwin</i>	1956	18	0
MONCK, BOSWORTH. <i>How the Civil Service Works</i>	<i>Phoenix House</i>	1952	25	0
MUNRO, C. K. <i>The Fountains in Trafalgar Square</i>	<i>Heinemann</i>	1952		
WHEARE, K. C. <i>The Civil Service in the Constitution</i>	<i>Athlone Press</i>	1954	2	6
British Civil Service 1854-1954, by Wyn Griffith	<i>HMSO</i>	1954	1	0
Royal Commission on the Civil Service 1953-55. Report	Cmd 9613 <i>HMSO</i>	1955	6	6
The British Civil Service	Reference Paper R.3624 <i>COI</i>	1957		free*
Local Government				
BURTON, J. H. <i>Local Rates</i>	<i>Stevens</i>	1950	4	0
CHESTER, D. N. <i>Central and Local Government: Financial and Administrative Relations</i>	<i>Macmillan</i>	1951	30	0
CLARKE, J. J. <i>A History of Local Government</i>	<i>Jenkins</i>	1955	25	0
——— <i>Outlines of Local Government of the United Kingdom. 18th edn</i>	<i>Pitman</i>	1957	20	0
<i>The Corporation of London: Its Origin, Constitution and Duties</i>	<i>Oxford University Press</i>	1950		
FINER, HERMAN. <i>English Local Government. 4th edn</i>	<i>Methuen</i>	1950	36	0
HADFIELD, E. C. R. and MACCOLL, J. E. <i>British Local Government</i>	<i>Hutchinson</i>	1948	7	6
HART, W. O. <i>Introduction to the Law of Local Government and Administration. 6th edn</i>	<i>Butterworth</i>	1957	45	0
JACKSON, R. M. <i>The Machinery of Local Government</i>	<i>Macmillan</i>	1958	30	0
JACKSON, W. ERIC. <i>The Structure of Local Government in England and Wales. 2nd edn</i>	<i>Longmans</i>	1955	21	0
MAUD, Sir JOHN and FINER, S. E. <i>Local Government in England and Wales. 2nd edn</i>	<i>Oxford University Press</i>	1953	7	6
MORRISON, HERBERT. <i>How London is Governed. 2nd edn</i>	<i>James Barrie</i>	1949	8	6
ROBSON, WILLIAM A. <i>The Development of Local Government. 3rd edn</i>	<i>Allen & Unwin</i>	1954	25	0
SCHOFIELD, A. N. <i>Local Government Elections. 3rd edn</i>	<i>Shaw</i>	1954	65	0
SMELLIE, K. B. <i>History of Local Government. 2nd edn</i>	<i>Allen & Unwin</i>	1950	16	0
WARREN, J. H. <i>The Local Government Service</i>	<i>Allen & Unwin</i>	1952	18	0
——— <i>The English Local Government System. 3rd edn</i>	<i>Allen & Unwin</i>	1953	15	0
Annual Report				
Ministry of Housing and Local Government	For 1957 Cmnd 419 <i>HMSO</i>	1958	9	6
Local Government: Areas and Status of Local Authorities in England and Wales	Cmd 9831 <i>HMSO</i>	1956	1	0

Local Government Finance (England and Wales)			s. d.
	Cmnd 209 <i>HMSO</i>	1957	1 0
Local Government Finance in Scotland	Cmnd 208 <i>HMSO</i>	1957	8
Local Government: Functions of County Councils and County District Councils in England and Wales	Cmnd 161 <i>HMSO</i>	1957	8
Local Government in Scotland [<i>prepared by the Scottish Home Department and COI</i>]	<i>HMSO</i>	1958	4 0
Local Government in Britain			
	COI Reference Pamphlet RF.P.3745 <i>HMSO</i>	1957	2 3
The Corporation of the City of London			
	Reference Paper R.3654 <i>COI</i>	1957	free*
The Law			
ALLEN, Sir C. K. Administrative Jurisdiction	<i>Stevens</i>	1956	15 0
——— Law and Orders	<i>Stevens</i>	1956	42 0
AMOS, Sir MAURICE. British Criminal Justice			
	For the British Council <i>Longmans</i>	1957	2 6
ARCHER, PETER. The Queen's Courts	<i>Penguin Books</i>	1956	3 6
DENNING, Lord. The Changing Law	<i>Stevens</i>	1953	11 0
——— Freedom under the Law	<i>Stevens</i>	1949	11 0
DEVLIN, Sir PATRICK. Trial by Jury	<i>Stevens</i>	1956	15 0
EDDY, J. P. The Justices' Handbook: A Guide to Law, Evidence and Procedure in Magistrates' Courts. 3rd edn			
	<i>Stevens</i>	1953	18 0
GILES, F. T. The Criminal Law	<i>Penguin Books</i>	1954	
——— The Magistrates' Courts	<i>Penguin Books</i>	1949	2 6
GLOAG, W. M. and HENDERSON, A. D. Introduction to the Laws of Scotland. 5th edn	<i>William Green</i>	1952	75 0
HANBURY, H. G. English Courts of Law. 2nd edn			
	<i>Oxford University Press</i>	1953	7 6
JACKSON, R. M. The Machinery of Justice in England. 2nd edn			
	<i>Cambridge University Press</i>	1953	35 0
JAMES, PHILIP S. Introduction to English Law. 3rd edn			
	<i>Butterworth</i>	1955	17 6
JENKS, EDWARD. The Book of English Law. 5th edn rev. by D. J. LL. Davies			
	<i>John Murray</i>	1953	24 0
JOYCE, J. A. Justice at Work: The Human Side of the Law ¹			
	<i>Chapman & Hall</i>	1952	10 6
RUBINSTEIN, RONALD. John Citizen and the Law. 3rd edn			
	<i>Penguin Books</i>	1952	5 0
Annual Reports			
The Law Society on the Legal Aid and Advice Act			
	For 1956-57 <i>HMSO</i>	1958	3 0
The Law Society of Scotland on the Legal Aid Scheme			
	For 1956-57 <i>HMSO</i>	1957	2 0
Criminal Statistics for England and Wales <i>Annual</i>			
	For 1956 Cmnd 286 <i>HMSO</i>	1957	7 0
Criminal Statistics, Scotland <i>Annual</i>			
	For 1957 Cmnd 426 <i>HMSO</i>	1958	4 0

¹ Also in Pan Books, 1955, price 3s. 6d.

Treatment of Offenders

			s.	d.
ELKIN, WINIFRED A. The English Penal System				
	<i>Penguin Books</i>	1957	3	6
FOX, Sir LIONEL W. English Prison and Borstal Systems				
	<i>Routledge</i>	1952	32	0
FRY, MARGERY. Arms of the Law	<i>Gollancz</i>	1951	8	6
GRÜNHUT, M. Juvenile Offenders Before the Courts				
	<i>Oxford University Press</i>	1956	21	0
Annual Reports				
Commissioners of Prisons For 1957 Cmnd 496	<i>HMSO</i>	1958	9	6
Prisons in Scotland For 1957 Cmnd 429	<i>HMSO</i>	1958	3	0
Prediction Methods in relation to Borstal Training, by Dr. Hermann Mannheim and Leslie T. Wilkins	<i>HMSO</i>	1955	17	6
Prisons and Borstals. rev. edn	<i>HMSO</i>	1957	5	0
The Probation Service, Its Objects and Its Organisation. rev. edn	<i>HMSO</i>	1952	1	0
The Probation Service in Scotland	<i>HMSO</i>	1955	1	3
Report of the Committee on Discharged Prisoners' Aid Societies	Cmd 8879 <i>HMSO</i>	1953	2	3
Report of the Royal Commission on Capital Punishment 1949-53	Cmd 8932 <i>HMSO</i>	1953	12	6
Seventh Report on the Work of the Children's Department of the Home Office	<i>HMSO</i>	1955	8	6

The Police Service

BROWNE, DOUGLAS G. The Rise of Scotland Yard	<i>Harrap</i>	1956	25	0
HART, J. M. The British Police	<i>Allen & Unwin</i>	1951	15	0
MORIARTY, C. C. H. Police Procedure and Administration. 6th edn	<i>Butterworth</i>	1955	10	6
SCOTT, Sir HAROLD. Scotland Yard ¹	<i>André Deutsch</i>	1955	18	0
THOMAS, J. L. Police Administration. 2nd edn				
	<i>Police Review Publishing Co.</i>	1957	3	6
Annual Reports				
Commissioner of the Police of the Metropolis				
	For 1957 Cmnd 487 <i>HMSO</i>	1958	5	0
H.M. Inspector of Constabulary, Scotland				
	For 1957 Cmnd 437 <i>HMSO</i>	1958	1	0
H.M. Inspectors of Constabulary (Counties and Boroughs in England and Wales)	For 1956-57 <i>HMSO</i>	1958	1	6
Police. Choice of Careers. New Series No. 80	<i>HMSO</i>	1957	1	9
The Police Service in Britain [under revision]				
	Reference Pamphlet RF.P.2695 <i>COI</i>	1953		

The Fire Service

EYRE, FRANK and HADFIELD, E. C. R. The Fire Service To-day. 2nd edn	<i>Oxford University Press</i>	1953	9	6
Annual Reports				
Fire Research Board	For 1957 <i>HMSO</i>	1958	5	0

¹Also a Penguin Edition, 1957, price 3s. 6d.

H.M. Chief Inspector of Fire Services (England and Wales)		s. d.
For 1957 Cmnd 499 <i>HMSO</i>	1958	1 3
H.M. Inspector of Fire Services for Scotland		
For 1957 Cmnd 425 <i>HMSO</i>	1958	1 0
Fire Services in Britain	Reference Paper R.2915 <i>COI</i>	1955 free*

III. DEFENCE

Brassey's Annual: The Armed Forces Year Book 1957, edited by Rear-Admiral H. G. Thursfield	<i>Clowes</i>	1957	63 0
Jane's All the World's Aircraft 1957-58, edited by Leonard Bridgman	<i>Sampson Low</i>	1957	105 0
Jane's Fighting Ships 1957-58, edited by Raymond Blackman	<i>Sampson Low</i>	1957	105 0
KEMP, Lt.-Cdr. P. K. Fleet Air Arm	<i>Jenkins</i>	1954	16 0
— H.M. Destroyers	<i>Jenkins</i>	1956	16 0
LEWIS, MICHAEL. The History of the British Navy	<i>Penguin Books</i>	1957	3 6
LIPSCOMB, Cdr. F. W. The British Submarine	<i>Black</i>	1954	25 0
SHEPPARD, E. W. A Short History of the British Army. 4th edn	<i>Constable</i>	1950	30 0
Annual Estimates			
Air Estimates 1958-59	<i>HMSO</i>	1958	11 0
Memorandum by the Secretary of State for Air	Cmnd 373 <i>HMSO</i>	1958	1 0
Army Estimates 1958-59	<i>HMSO</i>	1958	11 0
Memorandum of the Secretary of State for War	Cmnd 372 <i>HMSO</i>	1958	2 0
Ministry of Defence Estimate 1958-59	<i>HMSO</i>	1958	1 3
Navy Estimates 1958-59	<i>HMSO</i>	1958	16 0
Statement of the First Lord of the Admiralty	Cmnd 371 <i>HMSO</i>	1958	1 9
Defence: Outline of Future Policy	Cmnd 124 <i>HMSO</i>	1957	9
Report on Defence: Britain's Contribution to Peace and Security	Cmnd 363 <i>HMSO</i>	1958	1 0
Defence Statistics 1958-59	Cmnd 364 <i>HMSO</i>	1958	9
Call Up of Men to the Forces, 1957-60	Cmnd 175 <i>HMSO</i>	1957	4
Central Organisation for Defence	Cmnd 476 <i>HMSO</i>	1958	6
Official Histories of the Second World War:			
United Kingdom: Civil Series.			
Civil Defence, by T. H. O'BRIEN	<i>Longmans & HMSO</i>	1955	37 6
Civil Defence. Manual of Basic Training [<i>pamphlets</i>]	<i>HMSO</i>	1949	1 0
		to	to
		1956	2 0
Manual of Civil Defence. Vol. I. Pamphlet No. 1. Nuclear Weapons	<i>HMSO</i>	1956	2 6
The Future Organisation of the Army	Cmnd 230 <i>HMSO</i>	1957	6
Britain's Defence Services	Reference Paper R.3877 <i>COI</i>	1958	free*
National Service in Britain's Armed Forces	Reference Paper R.3441 <i>COI</i>	1956	free*

IV. SOCIAL WELFARE

State and Voluntary Services

			s.	d.
BEVERIDGE, <i>Lord</i> . <i>Voluntary Action</i>	<i>Allen & Unwin</i>	1948	16	0
——— and WELLS, A. F., <i>Editors</i> . <i>The Evidence for Voluntary Action</i>	<i>Allen & Unwin</i>	1949	16	0
FAMILY WELFARE ASSOCIATION. <i>Guide to the Social Services, 1957-58. A Year Book of Information respecting the Statutory and Voluntary Means of Assistance. 48th edn</i>	<i>Staples Press</i>	1958	5	0
HALL, M. PENELOPE. <i>The Social Services of Modern England. 3rd rev. edn</i>	<i>Routledge</i>	1955	28	0
HAYNES, A. H. <i>The Practitioner's Handbook to the Social Services</i>	<i>Wright & Sons</i>	1955	9	6
KUENSTLER, P. H. K., <i>Editor</i> . <i>Social Group Work in Great Britain</i>	<i>Faber & Faber</i>	1955	12	6
MORRIS, C., <i>Editor</i> . <i>Social Case-Work in Great Britain. 2nd edn</i>	<i>Faber & Faber</i>	1955	15	0
MORRIS, MARY. <i>Voluntary Organisations and Social Progress</i>	<i>Gollancz</i>	1955	18	0
NATIONAL COUNCIL OF SOCIAL SERVICE. <i>Voluntary Social Services: Handbook of Information and Directory of Organisations. rev. edn</i>	<i>NCSS</i>	1957	10	6
Public Social Services: <i>Handbook of Information. 10th edn</i>	<i>NCSS</i>	1955	10	6
Official Histories of the Second World War: United Kingdom: Civil Series. <i>Problems of Social Policy, by R. M. Titmuss</i>	<i>Longmans & HMSO</i>	1950	25	0
Official Histories of the Second World War: United Kingdom: Civil Series. <i>Studies in the Social Services, by S. M. Ferguson and H. Fitzgerald</i>	<i>Longmans & HMSO</i>	1954	22	6
Social Services in Britain				
COI Reference Pamphlet RF.P.3756	<i>HMSO</i>	1958	5	0
Children in Britain [<i>under revision</i>]				
Reference Paper R.2548	<i>COI</i>	1953		free*
Social Work and the Social Worker in Britain [<i>under revision</i>]				
Reference Pamphlet RF.P.2238	<i>COI</i>	1951		free*

National Insurance and Related Services

MARSH, DAVID C. <i>National Insurance and Assistance in Great Britain</i>	<i>Pitman</i>	1951	20	0
RATHBONE, ELEANOR. <i>Family Allowances</i>	<i>Allen & Unwin</i>	1949	15	0
ROWNTREE, B. SEEBOHM and LAVERS, G. R. <i>Poverty and the Welfare State: A Third Social Survey of York</i>	<i>Longmans</i>	1951	7	6
SHENFIELD, B. E. <i>Social Policies for Old Age</i>	<i>Routledge</i>	1957	25	0
Annual Reports				
Ministry of Pensions and National Insurance				
For 1957 Cmnd 493	<i>HMSO</i>	1958	8	0
National Assistance Board				
For 1957 Cmnd 444	<i>HMSO</i>	1958	3	0
War Pensioners				
For 1957	<i>HMSO</i>	1958	5	0

Children in the Care of Local Authorities in England and Wales, March 1957 <i>Annual</i>	Cmnd 411 <i>HMSO</i>	1958	s. d.	9
Everybody's Guide to National Insurance. rev. edn	<i>HMSO</i>	1958		6
Report of the Care of Children Committee [Curtis Report]	Cmd 6922 <i>HMSO</i>	1946	4	6
Report of the Committee on the Economic and Financial Problems of the Provision for Old Age	Cmd 9333 <i>HMSO</i>	1954	4	0
Reports by the Government Actuary on the First Quinquennial Review				
National Insurance Act, 1946	<i>HMSO</i>	1954	2	6
National Insurance (Industrial Injuries) Act, 1946	<i>HMSO</i>	1955	1	3
Social Insurance and Allied Services [Beveridge Report]				
	Cmd 6404 <i>HMSO</i>	1942	6	0
Work of the Children's Department of the Home Office	<i>HMSO</i>	1955	8	6
Health				
CLARKE, J. J. Introduction to Public Health Law				
	<i>Cleaver-Hume Press</i>	1949	12	6
CLEGG, HUGH. Medicine in Britain. 4th edn				
	For the British Council <i>Longmans</i>	1951	2	0
ROSS, Sir JAMES STIRLING. The National Health Service in Great Britain	<i>Oxford University Press</i>	1952	35	0
Annual Reports				
Board of Control (Lunacy and Mental Treatment)				
	For 1956 <i>HMSO</i>	1957		8
Central Health Services Council	For 1957 <i>HMSO</i>	1958	1	6
Department of Health for Scotland				
	For 1957 Cmnd 385 <i>HMSO</i>	1958	7	0
General Board of Control for Scotland				
	For 1956 Cmnd 212 <i>HMSO</i>	1957	1	3
Health and Local Government Administration in Northern Ireland	For 1956 Cmd 379 <i>Belfast, HMSO</i>	1957	5	0
Ministry of Health				
Part I. 1. National Health Service.				
2. Welfare, Food and Drugs, and Civil Defence				
	For 1957 Cmnd 495 <i>HMSO</i>	1958	12	0
Part II. On the State of the Public Health				
	For 1956 Cmnd 325 <i>HMSO</i>	1958	9	0
National Health Service Summarised Accounts <i>Annual</i>				
	For 1956-57 <i>HMSO</i>	1958	3	0
National Health Service (Scotland) Summarised Accounts <i>Annual</i>				
	For 1956-57 <i>HMSO</i>	1958	2	0
Report of Committee of Enquiry into the Cost of the National Health Service [Guillebaud Report]	Cmd 9663 <i>HMSO</i>	1956	11	0
Report of Committee on General Practice within the National Health Service [Cohen Report]	<i>HMSO</i>	1954	2	6
Report of Committee on Social Workers in the Mental Health Services	Cmd 8260 <i>HMSO</i>	1951	1	6
Report of Committee on Rehabilitation, Training and Resettlement of Disabled Persons	Cmd 9883 <i>HMSO</i>	1956	5	6
Report of the Royal Commission on the Law Relating to Mental Illness and Mental Deficiency, 1954-57	Cmnd 169 <i>HMSO</i>	1957	10	6

			s.	d.
Services for the Disabled	<i>HMSO</i>	1955	4	6
Health Services in Britain [<i>under revision</i>]				
COI Reference Pamphlet RF.P.3424	<i>HMSO</i>	1957	3	0
Rehabilitation and Care of the Disabled in Britain [<i>under revision</i>]	Reference Paper R.2879 <i>COI</i>	1954		free*
Education				
ALEXANDER, W. P. Education in England: The National System, How It Works	<i>Newnes</i>	1954	12	6
ARMFELT, R. The Structure of English Education	<i>Cohen & West</i>	1955	12	6
BRITISH COUNCIL. Higher Education in the United Kingdom: A Handbook for Students from Overseas. rev. edn	<i>Longmans</i>	1956	5	0
COTGROVE, STEPHEN F. Technical Education and Social Change	<i>Allen & Unwin</i>	1958	25	0
CURTIS, S. J. History of Education in Great Britain. 4th edn	<i>University Tutorial Press</i>	1957	21	0
DENT, H. C. British Education. 3rd edn				
For the British Council	<i>Longmans</i>	1955	2	0
Growth in English Education, 1946-1952	<i>Routledge</i>	1954	16	0
Editor. Year Book of Technical Education and Careers in Industry	<i>Black</i>	1957	25	0
DONGERKERY, S. R. Universities in Britain	<i>Oxford University Press</i>	1953	10	6
LESTER SMITH, W. O. Education: An Introductory Survey	<i>Penguin Books</i>	1957	3	6
Education in Great Britain. 3rd edn	<i>Oxford University Press</i>	1958	7	6
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF ADULT EDUCATION. Adult Education in the United Kingdom: A Directory of Organisations	<i>National Institute of Adult Education</i>	1956	5	0
PEERS, R. A. Adult Education	<i>Routledge</i>	1958	35	0
VENABLES, P. F. R. Technical Education	<i>Bell</i>	1955	42	0
Annual Reports				
Ministry of Education				
Education in 1957	Cmd 454 <i>HMSO</i>	1958	9	0
Education in 1900-1950	Cmd 8244 <i>HMSO</i>	1951	9	0
Ministry of Education for Northern Ireland, 1956-57	Cmd 380 <i>Belfast, HMSO</i>	1957	5	0
Scottish Education Department				
Education in Scotland in 1957	Cmd 407 <i>HMSO</i>	1958	6	0
Further Education (Ministry of Education Pamphlet No. 8)	<i>HMSO</i>	1947	3	6
Further Education: A Report of the Advisory Council on Education in Scotland	Cmd 8454 <i>HMSO</i>	1952	5	0
The Health of the School Child. Report of the Chief Medical Officer of the Ministry of Education for 1954 and 1955	<i>HMSO</i>	1956	6	0
Junior Secondary Education [Scotland]	<i>HMSO</i>	1955	5	0
The New Secondary Education (Ministry of Education Pamphlet No. 9)	<i>HMSO</i>	1947	2	6
Public Education in Scotland. 3rd edn	<i>HMSO</i>	1958	3	6

Report of the Committee on Organisation and Finance of Adult Education	<i>HMSO</i>	1954	s. d. 2 6	
Scope and Content of the Three Year Course of Teacher Training (Sixth Report of the National Advisory Council on the Training and Supply of Teachers)	<i>HMSO</i>	1957	9	
The Supply of Teachers in the 1960s	<i>HMSO</i>	1958	9	
Technical Education	Cmd 9703 <i>HMSO</i>	1956	1 6	
The Training of Teachers (Ministry of Education Pamphlet No. 34)	<i>HMSO</i>	1957	1 9	
University Grants Committee				
Annual Return from Universities and University Colleges				
For 1956-57 Cmnd 477	<i>HMSO</i>	1958	4 0	
University Development 1952-56 Cmnd 79	<i>HMSO</i>	1957	1 3	
Memorandum on the Ministry of Education Estimates	<i>Annual</i>			
For 1958-59 Cmnd 377	<i>HMSO</i>	1958	6	
Education in Britain				
COI Reference Pamphlet RF.P.3798	<i>HMSO</i>	1958	3 6	
Technological Education in Britain				
COI Reference Pamphlet RF.P.3797	<i>HMSO</i>	1958	2 6	
Universities in Britain				
Part I. General	Reference Paper R.3165	<i>COI</i>	1955	free*
Part II. The English Universities				
Reference Paper R.3037	<i>COI</i>	1956	free*	
Part III. The Scottish Universities: The Universities of Wales and Northern Ireland				
Reference Paper R.3038	<i>COI</i>	1955	free*	
Youth Services				
BREW, J. MACALISTER. Youth and Youth Groups	<i>Faber & Faber</i>	1957	18 0	
EAGER, W. MCG. Making Men: The History of Boys' Clubs and Related Movements in Great Britain				
<i>University of London Press</i>		1953	20 0	
JEPHCOTT, PEARL. Some Young People	<i>Allen & Unwin</i>	1954	12 6	
JORDAN, G. W. and FISHER, E. M. Self-Portrait of Youth				
<i>Heinemann</i>		1955	12 6	
KUENSTLER, P. H. K., <i>Compiler</i> . Youth Work in England: Extracts from Ministry of Education and other publications relating to Statutory and Voluntary Youth Work				
<i>University of London Press</i>		1954	4 0	
Citizens of To-morrow: A Study of Influences Affecting the Upbringing of Young People				
For King George's Jubilee Trust	<i>Odhams</i>	1955	3 0	
Progress Report	<i>The Trust</i>	1958	free	
Purpose and Content of the Youth Service	<i>HMSO</i>	1945	4	
Youth Services in Britain [<i>prepared by COI for the Foreign Office</i>]	<i>HMSO</i>	1956	free	
Youth Services in Britain	Reference Paper R.3406	<i>COI</i>	1957	free*

V. HOUSING AND PLANNING

Annual Report			
Ministry of Housing and Local Government			
For 1957 Cmnd 419	<i>HMSO</i>	1958	9 6

Housing

			s.	d.
ASHWORTH, HERBERT. Housing in Great Britain	<i>Skinner</i>	1957	7	6
Houses: The Next Step	Cmd 8996 <i>HMSO</i>	1953		9
Housing in England and Wales: 1951 Census Housing Report	<i>HMSO</i>	1956	60	0
Housing Manual 1949	<i>HMSO</i>	1949	3	6
——— Supplement. Housing for Special Purposes	<i>HMSO</i>	1951	2	0
——— Supplement. Houses 1952	<i>HMSO</i>	1952	1	0
——— Supplement. Houses 1953	<i>HMSO</i>	1953	3	0
Housing Policy, Scotland	Cmd 8997 <i>HMSO</i>	1953		6
Housing Return, England and Wales	<i>Quarterly Cmnd Paper HMSO</i>			6
Housing Return, Scotland	<i>Quarterly Cmnd Paper HMSO</i>		1	0
The Rent Act and You				
Questions and Answers for Landlord and Tenant [England and Wales]	<i>HMSO</i>	1957		6
A Simple Guide for Scotland	<i>HMSO</i>	1957		6
Housing in Britain [<i>under revision</i>]				
Reference Pamphlet RF.P.2797 <i>COI</i>		1954		free*
 Town and Country Planning				
ABERCROMBIE, Sir PATRICK. Town and Country Planning. 2nd edn	<i>Oxford University Press</i>	1943	7	6
BROWN, H. J., <i>Editor</i> . Practical Points on Planning Law	<i>Sweet & Maxwell</i>	1951	16	6
GIBBERD, FREDERICK. Town Design. 2nd edn	<i>Architectural Press</i>	1955	73	6
HEAP, DESMOND. An Outline of Planning Law. 2nd edn	<i>Sweet & Maxwell</i>	1955	25	0
HOWARD, EBENEZER. Garden Cities of To-morrow. [<i>New edn of To-morrow: A Peaceful Path to Real Reform, first published in 1898</i>]	<i>Faber & Faber</i>	1946	8	6
KEEBLE, LEWIS. Principles and Practice of Town and Country Planning	<i>Estates Gazette</i>	1952	47	6
NICHOLSON, E. M. Britain's Nature Reserves	<i>Country Life</i>	1958	30	0
NUFFIELD COLLEGE SOCIAL RECONSTRUCTION SURVEY. Britain's Town and Country Pattern: A Summary of the Barlow, Scott and Uthwatt Reports, <i>Editor</i> G. D. H. Cole	<i>Faber & Faber</i>	1943		
WILLIAMS-ELLIS, CLOUGH. Town and Country Planning				
For the British Council <i>Longmans</i>		1951	2	6
TOWN AND COUNTRY PLANNING ASSOCIATION. Town and Country Planning <i>Monthly</i>	<i>T and CPA</i>		2	0
Annual Reports				
Development Corporations of the New Towns				
England and Wales	For 1956-57 <i>HMSO</i>	1957	16	6
Scotland	For 1957-58 <i>HMSO</i>	1958	7	0
National Parks Commission	For 1956-57 <i>HMSO</i>	1958	5	6
Nature Conservancy	For 1956-57 <i>HMSO</i>	1957	5	0
The Density of Residential Areas	<i>HMSO</i>	1952	5	0
Design in Town and Village, by T. Sharp, F. Gibberd and W. G. Holford	<i>HMSO</i>	1953	7	6

			s.	d.
National Parks and Access to the Countryside	<i>HMSO</i>	1950		6
The New Towns Grow [<i>prepared by the Ministry of Housing and Local Government and COI</i>]	<i>HMSO</i>	1957	free	
Programme of Highland Development	Cmd 7976 <i>HMSO</i>	1950	1	0
Town and Country Planning 1943-51: Progress Report	Cmd 8204 <i>HMSO</i>	1951	6	0
Town and Country Planning in Britain				
COI Reference Pamphlet RF.P.2984	<i>HMSO</i>	1955	2	0

VI. THE CHURCHES

BAPTIST UNION. Baptist Handbook: edited and published under the direction of the Council of the Baptist Union of Great Britain and Ireland	For 1958 <i>Carey Kingsgate Press</i>	1958	17	6
Catholic Directory, 1958	<i>Burns, Oates & Washbourne</i>	1957	18	0
CHURCH OF ENGLAND. Official Yearbook of the National Assembly of the Church of England				
	For 1958 For the Church Assembly, <i>Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge</i>	1957	25	0
CHURCH OF IRELAND. The Irish Church Directory and Year Book				
	For 1957 <i>Church of Ireland Printing & Publishing Company</i>	1957	8	0
CHURCH OF SCOTLAND. Year Book				
	For 1957 <i>Church of Scotland Committee of Publications</i>	1957	5	0
Church Relations in England	<i>Church Information Board</i>	1955		4
CONGREGATIONAL UNION OF ENGLAND AND WALES. Congregational Year Book	For 1957 <i>Independent Press</i>	1957	42	0
CONGREGATIONAL UNION OF SCOTLAND. Year Book				
	For 1957-58 <i>Congregational Union of Scotland</i>	1957	2	6
EPISCOPAL CHURCH IN SCOTLAND. The Scottish Episcopal Church Year Book and Directory				
	For 1958-59 <i>Representative Church Council of the Episcopal Church in Scotland</i>	1958	7	6
The Lambeth Conference, 1958 ¹				
	<i>Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge</i>	1958	7	6
MAYFIELD, GUY. The Church of England	<i>Oxford University Press</i>	1958	18	0
METHODIST CHURCH. Minutes of the Annual Conference of the Methodist Church, 1957	<i>Methodist Publishing House</i>	1957	15	0
PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH OF ENGLAND. Official Handbook				
	For 1957-58 <i>Presbyterian Church of England</i>	1957	5	0
PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH OF WALES. Year Book				
	For 1957 <i>Presbyterian Church of Wales</i>	1957	5	0
SALVATION ARMY. Year Book				
	For 1958 <i>Salvationist Publishing & Supplies</i>	1958		
UNITARIAN AND FREE CHRISTIAN CHURCHES. Year Book of the General Assembly	For 1957 <i>Lindsey Press</i>	1957	5	0
UNITED FREE CHURCH OF SCOTLAND. Handbook				
	For 1958 <i>United Free Church of Scotland</i>	1958	2	6

¹ Also in an abridged edition, price 1s. 6d.

VII. PROMOTION OF THE SCIENCES AND THE ARTS

The Sciences	s.	d.
BAILEY, Sir EDWARD. Geological Survey of Great Britain <i>Thomas Murby</i>	1952	22 6
BRITISH COUNCIL. Scientific and Learned Societies of Great Britain: A Handbook compiled from Official Sources. 58th edn <i>Allen & Unwin</i>	1956	35 0
CARDWELL, D. S. L. The Organisation of Science in England <i>Heinemann</i>	1957	18 0
CROWTHER, J. G. Nuclear Energy in Industry <i>Newnes</i>	1956	17 6
EDWARDS, R. S. Co-operative Industrial Research <i>Pitman</i>	1950	20 0
FEDERATION OF BRITISH INDUSTRIES. Report of the Third Conference of Industrial Research Directors and Managers <i>Federation of British Industries</i>	1953	3 6
GOLDRING, MARY. Economics of Atomic Energy <i>Butterworth</i>	1957	15 0
HARRIS, Miss P. M. and JAY, K. E. B. A List of Reports and Published Papers <i>Atomic Energy Authority</i>	1955	7 6
HORDER, Lord. Fifty Years of Medicine <i>Duckworth</i>	1953	5 0
HUDSON, DEREK and LUCKHURST, K. W. The Royal Society of Arts, 1754-1954 <i>Murray</i>	1954	30 0
JARAMILLO-ARANGO, Dr. JAIME. The British Contribution to Medicine <i>Livingstone</i>	1953	25 0
JAY, K. E. B. Atomic Energy Research at Harwell <i>Butterworth's Scientific Publications</i>	1955	5 0
——— Calder Hall: The Story of Britain's First Atomic Power Station <i>Methuen</i>	1956	5 0
MARTIN, T. The Royal Institution For the British Council <i>Longmans</i>	1948	
ROYAL SOCIETY OF LONDON. Report of Empire Scientific Conference 1946. 2 vols. <i>Cambridge University Press</i>	1948	42 0
——— The Year Book of the Royal Society of London, 1958 <i>Royal Society</i>	1958	21 0
Combining for Research: The Work of the Industrial Research Associations in the Government Scheme <i>DSIR</i>	1956	free
Annual Reports		
Advisory Council on Scientific Policy For 1956-57 Cmnd 278 <i>HMSO</i>	1957	1 4
Agricultural Research Council For 1956-57 Cmnd 432 <i>HMSO</i>	1958	7 0
Atomic Energy Authority Fourth Report For 1957-58 <i>HMSO</i>	1958	4 6
Department of Scientific and Industrial Research For 1955-56 Cmnd 213 <i>HMSO</i>	1957	9 6
Medical Research Council For 1956-57 Cmnd 453 <i>HMSO</i>	1958	13 0
Meteorological Office For 1957-58 <i>HMSO</i>	1958	3 6
National Physical Laboratory For 1957 <i>HMSO</i>	1958	6 6
National Research Development Corporation For 1956-57 <i>HMSO</i>	1958	2 0
Research Council of the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research For 1956-57 Cmnd 428 <i>HMSO</i>	1958	4 0
Research for Industry For 1956-57 <i>HMSO</i>	1958	7 6

Harwell: The British Atomic Energy Research Establishment 1946-51 [<i>produced by COI for Ministry of Supply</i>] <i>HMSO</i>	1952	s. d. 6 0
Hazards to Man of Nuclear and Allied Radiation (Medical Research Council Report) Cmd 9780 <i>HMSO</i>	1956	5 6
Jubilee Book of the National Physical Laboratory, by John Langdon-Davies <i>HMSO</i>	1951	4 0
Science Museum: The First Hundred Years <i>HMSO</i>	1957	15 0
Scientific Research in British Universities, 1955-56 <i>HMSO</i>	1956	21 0
Nuclear Energy in Britain COI Reference Pamphlet RF.P.3619 <i>HMSO</i>	1957	3 0
Science and Technology: Some Recent British Advances <i>COI</i>	1958	free

The Arts

ARTS COUNCIL OF GREAT BRITAIN. The First Ten Years. Eleventh Annual Report 1955-56 <i>Arts Council</i>	1956	2 6
——— Art in the Red. Twelfth Annual Report 1956-57 <i>Arts Council</i>	1957	2 6
BRITISH COUNCIL. Annual Report 1956-57 <i>British Council</i>	1957	1 0
CARNEGIE UNITED KINGDOM TRUST. Annual Report Dunfermline, <i>Carnegie United Kingdom Trust</i>	1957	free
Government and the Arts in Britain <i>HMSO</i>	1958	2 0

Visual Arts

Directory of Museums and Art Galleries in the British Isles <i>Museums Association</i>	1948	21 0
GARDNER, A. H. Outline of English Architecture. 3rd edn <i>Batsford</i>	1949	15 0
HENDY, Sir PHILIP. The National Gallery, London <i>Thames & Hudson</i>	1955	126 0
LAMB, Sir WALTER. The Royal Academy. 2nd edn <i>Bell</i>	1951	
LEES-MILNE, JAMES, <i>Editor</i> . The National Trust: A Record of Fifty Years' Achievement, 1895-1945. 3rd edn <i>Batsford</i>	1948	6 0
Museum Calendar <i>Annual</i> <i>Museums Association</i>	1958	5 0
The National Gallery, Jan. 1955-June 1956 <i>National Gallery</i>	1956	10 0
READ, Sir HERBERT. Contemporary British Art <i>Penguin Books</i>	1951	
ROTHENSTEIN, Sir JOHN. An Introduction to English Painting <i>Cassell</i>	1952	21 0
——— Modern English Painters: Lewis to Moore <i>Eyre & Spottiswoode</i>	1956	35 0
Who's Who in Art. 9th edn <i>Art Trade Press</i>	1958	60 0
Annual Reports		
Ancient Monuments Boards for England, Scotland and Wales For 1957 <i>HMSO</i>	1958	2 0
Historic Buildings Council for England For 1957 <i>HMSO</i>	1958	1 3
Historic Buildings Council for Scotland For 1957 <i>HMSO</i>	1958	9
Historic Buildings Council for Wales For 1957 <i>HMSO</i>	1958	6
Royal Fine Art Commission For 1957 Cmnd 447 <i>HMSO</i>	1958	1 0
Tate Gallery For 1956-57 <i>HMSO</i>	1957	3 6
Standing Commission on Museums and Galleries Report for 1949-53 <i>HMSO</i>	1954	1 6

<i>Literature</i>		s.	d.
British National Bibliography <i>Annual</i>			
<i>The Council of the British National Bibliography</i>	1957	210	0
Library Association Year Book 1958	<i>Library Association</i>	1958	21 0
SCOTT-JAMES, R. A. Fifty Years of English Literature, 1900-1950, new edn with Postscript, 1951-55	<i>Longmans</i>	1956	21 0
<i>Drama</i>			
The Stage Year Book, 1958 <i>Annual</i>	<i>Carson & Comerford</i>	1958	12 0
Who's Who in the Theatre, edited by John Parker. 12th rev. edn	<i>Pitman</i>	1957	105 0
<i>Films</i>			
FIELD, MARY. Children and Films			
<i>Dunfermline, Carnegie United Kingdom Trust</i>	1954	10	6
MANVELL, ROGER. The Film and the Public	<i>Penguin Books</i>	1955	3 6
POLITICAL AND ECONOMIC PLANNING. The British Film Industry: A Report on the History and Organisation of the Industry	<i>PEP</i>	1952	18 0
— The British Film Industry, 1958	<i>PEP</i>	1958	5 0
ROTHA, PAUL <i>and others</i> . Documentary Film. 3rd edn	<i>Faber & Faber</i>	1952	42 0
<i>Annual Reports</i>			
Cinematograph Films Council	For 1957-58 <i>HMSO</i>	1958	6
National Film Finance Corporation (and Statement of Accounts)	For 1957-58 Cmnd 448 <i>HMSO</i>	1958	1 3
The Cinema in Britain	Reference Paper R.3645 <i>COI</i>	1957	free*
<i>Music, Opera and Ballet</i>			
Ballet Annual 1958, edited by Arnold L. Haskell	<i>Black</i>	1958	25 0
British Federation of Music Festivals Year Book	<i>British Federation of Music Festivals</i>	1958	6 0
CLARKE, MARY. The Sadler's Wells Ballet: A History and an Appreciation	<i>Black</i>	1955	21 0
Music Book	<i>Hinrichsen</i>	1956	25 0
WALKER, ERNEST. A History of Music in England. 3rd edn	<i>Oxford University Press</i>	1952	40 0

VIII. THE NATIONAL ECONOMY

CAIRNCROSS, A. K., <i>Editor</i> . The Scottish Economy: A Statistical Account of Scottish Life by Members of the Staff of Glasgow University	<i>Cambridge University Press</i>	1954	30 0
CLAPHAM, Sir JOHN. A Concise Economic History of Britain: From Earliest Times to 1750	<i>Cambridge University Press</i>	1949	25 0
— An Economic History of Modern Britain. 3 vols	<i>Cambridge University Press</i>	1938	165 0
COURT, W. H. B. A Concise Economic History of Britain from 1750 to Recent Times	<i>Cambridge University Press</i>	1954	25 0
CROSLAND, C. A. R. Britain's Economic Problems	<i>Cape</i>	1953	12 6

DEVONS, E. An Introduction to British Economic Statistics		s. d.
	<i>Cambridge University Press</i>	1956 22 6
JONES, G. P. and POOL, A. G. A Hundred Years of Economic Development in Great Britain 1840-1940. 2nd edn	<i>Duckworth</i>	1948 21 0
LEWIS, W. ARTHUR. Economic Survey 1919-1939	<i>Allen & Unwin</i>	1953 18 0
SEERS, DUDLEY. The Levelling of Incomes since 1938	<i>Blackwell</i>	1951 5 0
STAMP, L. DUDLEY and BEAVER, S. H. The British Isles: a Geographic and Economic Survey	<i>Longmans</i>	1954 46 6
WORSWICK, G. D. N. and others. The British Economy, 1945-50	<i>Oxford University Press</i>	1952 35 0
Official Histories of the Second World War: United Kingdom: Civil Series. British War Economy, by W. K. Hancock and M. M. Gowing	<i>Longmans & HMSO</i>	1949 30 0
Annual Abstract of Statistics. No. 94, 1957	<i>HMSO</i>	1957 21 0
Council on Prices, Productivity and Incomes, First Report [Cohen Council]	<i>HMSO</i>	1958 2 0
— Second Report	<i>HMSO</i>	1958 2 0
Economic Implications of Full Employment	<i>Cmd 9725 HMSO</i>	1956 9
Economic Survey <i>Annual from 1947</i>		
	For 1958 <i>Cmd 394 HMSO</i>	1958 3 0
Economic Survey of Northern Ireland (Report prepared by K. S. Isles and N. Cuthbert)	<i>Belfast, HMSO</i>	1957 35 0
Enquiry into Household Expenditure in 1953-54	<i>HMSO</i>	1957 37 6
National Income and Expenditure of the United Kingdom 1938-46	<i>Cmd 7099 HMSO</i>	1947 1 0
1958 (prepared by the Central Statistical Office)	<i>HMSO</i>	1958 7 6
Digest of Scottish Statistics <i>Twice yearly from April 1953</i>	<i>HMSO</i>	4 0
Digest of Statistics: Northern Ireland <i>Twice yearly from March 1954</i>	<i>Belfast, HMSO</i>	5 0
Digest of Welsh Statistics <i>Annual from 1954</i>	<i>HMSO</i>	7 0
Economic Trends <i>Monthly from November 1953</i>	<i>HMSO</i>	2 6
Monthly Digest of Statistics	<i>HMSO</i>	5 0

IX. INDUSTRY

Organisation and Production

ALLEN, G. C. British Industries and their Organisation. 3rd edn	<i>Longmans</i>	1951 21 0
BRITISH PRODUCTIVITY COUNCIL. The British Productivity Council: Policy and Progress 1955-56	<i>BPC</i>	1956 1 0
— Better Ways: Nineteen Paths to Higher Production	<i>BPC</i>	1955 2 6
BRITISH STANDARDS INSTITUTION. Year Book	<i>BSI</i>	1957 12 6
BURN, DUNCAN, <i>Editor</i> . The Structure of British Industry: A Symposium. Vol. I	<i>Cambridge University Press</i>	1958 45 0
GOODMAN, EDWARD. Forms of Public Control and Ownership	<i>Christophers</i>	1951
GOODMAN, L. LANDON. Man and Automation	<i>Penguin Books</i>	1957 3 6

			s.	d.
HOULDSWORTH, <i>Sir HUBERT and others.</i> Efficiency in the Nationalised Industries				
For the Royal Institute of Public Administration				
<i>Allen & Unwin</i>	1952			
HUTTON, GRAHAM <i>and others.</i> We Too Can Prosper: The Promise of Productivity			12	0
<i>Allen & Unwin</i>	1953			
OAKLEY, C. A., <i>Editor.</i> Scottish Industry: An Account of what Scotland makes and where she makes it			25	0
<i>Scottish Council</i>	1953			
POLITICAL AND ECONOMIC PLANNING. Government and Industry: A Survey of the Relations between Government and Privately-Owned Industry			21	0
<i>PEP</i>	1952			
— Industrial Trade Associations: Activities and Organisation			30	0
<i>Allen & Unwin</i>	1957			
ROBSON, W. A. Problems of Nationalised Industry			25	0
<i>Allen & Unwin</i>	1952			
Room to Expand: Facilities which the Development Areas Offer to Manufacturers				free
<i>Board of Trade</i>	1955			
Annual Report				
Board of Trade on the Monopolies and Restrictive Practices Acts, 1948 and 1953		For 1957 <i>HMSO</i>	1	4
Distribution of Industry		Cmd 7540 <i>HMSO</i>	1	9
Report of the Monopolies and Restrictive Practices Commission. Collective Discrimination: A Report on Exclusive Dealing, Collective Boycotts, Aggregated Rebates and Other Discriminatory Trade Practices		Cmd 9504 <i>HMSO</i>	3	6
Report on the Census of Production for 1954				
Introductory Notes		<i>HMSO</i>	1	0
12 Volumes [<i>in progress</i>]		<i>HMSO</i>	1	6
				to
				2 0
Industry and Employment in Scotland and Scottish Road Report <i>Annual</i>		For 1957 Cmnd 384 <i>HMSO</i>	3	6
Wales and Monmouthshire: Report of Government Action for the year ended 30th June, 1957		Cmnd 319 <i>HMSO</i>	3	6
Economic Development in Scotland		Reference Paper R.3282 <i>COI</i>		free*
Nationalised Industries in Britain		Reference Paper R.3184 <i>COI</i>		free*
Productivity in the United Kingdom		Reference Paper R.3294 <i>COI</i>		free*
Agriculture				
COOPER, D. W. Farmers' Co-operation in England				
<i>Agricultural Co-operation Association Ltd.</i>	1954		1	0
DIGBY, MARGARET. Agricultural Co-operation in Great Britain			6	0
<i>Crosby Lockwood</i>	1949			
ERNLE, <i>Lord.</i> English Farming Past and Present		<i>Longmans</i>	1936	
HIRSCH, G. P. <i>and</i> HUNT, K. E. British Agriculture: Structure and Organisation				
For the National Federation of Young Farmers' Clubs		<i>Evans</i>	1958	3 6
ORWIN, C. S. A History of English Farming		<i>Nelson</i>	1949	

POLITICAL AND ECONOMIC PLANNING. Agriculture and Land Use	PEP	1957	s. d.
			2 6
SYKES, FRANK. Living from the Land	<i>Geoffrey Bles</i>	1957	21 0
WATSON, Sir JAMES SCOTT and MORE, J. A. Agriculture: The Science and Practice of British Farming. 10th edn	<i>Oliver & Boyd</i>	1956	31 6
Official Histories of the Second World War: United Kingdom: Civil Series. Agriculture, by Keith A. H. Murray	<i>Longmans & HMSO</i>	1956	30 0
Agricultural Research Service	<i>HMSO</i>	1953	2 6
Agricultural Statistics, United Kingdom 1956-57	<i>HMSO</i>	1958	4 0
Annual Reports			
Animal Health Services in Great Britain For 1956	<i>HMSO</i>	1958	6 0
Department of Agriculture for Scotland			
Agriculture in Scotland 1957	Cmnd 392 <i>HMSO</i>	1958	6 0
National Food Survey Committee: Domestic Food Consumption and Expenditure 1956	<i>HMSO</i>	1958	9 6
Annual Review and Determination of Guarantees			
For 1958	Cmnd 390 <i>HMSO</i>	1958	1 0
Crofters Commission: Report	For 1957 <i>HMSO</i>	1958	1 3
Crofting Conditions: Commission of Enquiry			
	Cmd 9091 <i>HMSO</i>	1954	3 6
Development Commission. Survey of Agricultural, Forestry and Fishery Products and their Utilisation, 1951	<i>HMSO</i>	1953	7 6
The Farm as a Business: A Handbook of Standards and Statistics. 2nd edn	<i>HMSO</i>	1957	7 0
Guides to Official Sources, No. 4. Agricultural and Food Statistics	<i>HMSO</i>	1958	4 6
Horticultural Marketing, Report of the Committee on			
	Cmnd 61 <i>HMSO</i>	1957	6 0
Long-term Assurances for Agriculture	Cmnd 23 <i>HMSO</i>	1956	8
National Agricultural Advisory Service Report: The First Eight Years 1946-1954	<i>HMSO</i>	1955	3 6
Report on Agricultural Marketing Schemes			
	For 1938-55 <i>HMSO</i>	1957	5 6
Farm Income in England and Wales <i>Annual</i>			
	For 1955-56 <i>HMSO</i>	1958	7 0
Farming Britain, by A. N. Duckham	<i>COI</i>	1958	free*
Rural Industries in Britain	Reference Paper R.3334 <i>COI</i>	1956	free*

Fisheries

Fisheries Year Book and Directory 1957	<i>British Continental Trade Press</i>	1957	20 0
Annual Reports			
Fisheries of Scotland	For 1957 Cmnd 395 <i>HMSO</i>	1958	4 0
Herring Industry Board	For 1957 Cmnd 435 <i>HMSO</i>	1958	2 0
White Fish Authority (and Accounts)	For 1957-58 <i>HMSO</i>	1958	2 0
Annual Statistical Tables			
Scottish Sea Fisheries	For 1957 <i>HMSO</i>	1958	5 0
Sea Fisheries	For 1956 <i>HMSO</i>	1957	4 0

Forestry

			s.	d.
CHAMPION, H. G. Forestry	<i>Oxford University Press</i>	1954	7	6
EDLIN, H. L. England's Forests	<i>Faber & Faber</i>	1958	30	0
TAYLOR, W. LING. Estate Forestry	<i>Crosby Lockwood</i>	1951	15	0
The Forestry Commission in Scotland	<i>Forestry Commission</i>	1953		free
The Role of State, Communities and Private Enterprise in the National Forest Policy of Great Britain, by W. H. Guillebaud	<i>Forestry Commission</i>	1952		free
Statement presented by the Forestry Commission of Great Britain to the Seventh British Commonwealth Forestry Conference, Australia and New Zealand, 1957	<i>Forestry Commission</i>	1957		free
Annual Reports				
Forestry Commissioners	For 1956-57	<i>HMSO</i>	1958	5 6
Forest Research	For 1956-57	<i>HMSO</i>	1958	9 6
Britain's Forests [13 booklets]		<i>HMSO</i>	1948	6
			to	to
			1953	1 3
			1951	9
Census of Woodlands 1947-49: Summary Report	<i>HMSO</i>			
Forestry, Agriculture and Marginal Land. Report by the Natural Resources (Technical) Committee	<i>HMSO</i>	1957	4	0
Marketing of Woodland Produce, Report of Departmental Committee on	<i>HMSO</i>	1956	4	6
National Forest Park and Forestry Commission Guides [9 booklets]	<i>HMSO</i>	1946	1	6
		to	to	
		1957	5	0

Fuel and Power

Ministry of Power Statistical Digest <i>Annual</i>				
	For 1957	<i>HMSO</i>	1958	37 6
Report of the Committee on National Policy for the Use of Fuel and Power Resources [Ridley Report] Cmd 8647		<i>HMSO</i>	1952	6 6

Coal

NATIONAL COAL BOARD. British Coal, The Rebirth of an Industry	<i>NCB</i>	1957		free
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INDEX

Bold type in a sequence of figures indicates main references

	Page	Page
A		
ASLIB <i>see</i> Association of Special Libraries		
Accession Council	25, 28	
Accident Prevention Movement ..	401	
Accidents:		
industrial	394, 402	
road users	354	
Administrative Tribunals	54, 84	
Admiralty 46 , 105, 107, 110, 112, 204, 205,	246	
Constabulary	96	
<i>See also</i> Research, naval		
Advisory Committee on Fishery		
Research	205	
Advisory Council for Scientific and		
Industrial Research	196, 198	
Advisory Council on Scientific Policy		
194, 197-8 , 208, 209, 404		
Advisory Council on Treatment of		
Offenders	89	
Aerodromes	121, 360, 362, 367-8	
Age groups <i>see under</i> Population		
Agricultural colleges	273, 274	
Agricultural Departments 170, 197, 260		
Agricultural Executive Committees ..	261 ,	
262		
Agricultural Improvement Councils ..	272	
Agricultural Land Commission	262	
Agricultural Land Service	272	
Agricultural Land Tribunals	262, 263	
Agricultural Loans Fund	271	
Agricultural machinery industry 312 , 428		
Agricultural Mortgage Corporation		
Ltd.	271, 421	
Agricultural Research Committee		
(Privy Council)	198, 200	
Agricultural Research Council 40, 198,	200 , 201, 273	
Agricultural Research Fund	200	
Agricultural Research Institutes 200, 273		
Agricultural workers:		
earnings and wages	391, 397	
numbers employed 226, 252 , 379, 380		
protective legislation	395-6	
Agriculture	252-75	
advisory services	271-3	
allotments	257	
Agriculture— <i>contd.</i>		
annual reviews	266-7	
artificial insemination	263-4	
crofts	261-2, 270	
crops 253-4, 255, 256, 257, 259 , 263,	270	
education	273-5	
farm drainage	269	
farm management	260, 262, 272	
farm tenure	253, 262-3	
farming, types of	253-7	
fertilisers	269, 270, 323-4	
grass	254, 259, 263 , 270	
hill farming	269-70	
horticulture	256 , 258, 266	
land use	170, 252-7	
livestock 253, 254, 256, 257, 259, 263-4 ,	266, 268, 269-70	
loan facilities	256, 271 , 421	
marginal production schemes	269	
marketing schemes	264-6	
mechanisation	258-9	
milk and dairying 255, 258, 259, 263,	266 , 267 , 268	
policy	260-3	
price guarantees	266-8	
production	252, 257-9 , 429	
research <i>see under</i> Research, agri-		
cultural		
shows	275	
smallholdings	256-7	
subsidies and grants	268-70	
veterinary services	272-3	
Agriculture, Fisheries and Food,		
Ministry of 46-7 , 200, 204, 205, 207,	246, 256, 260, 271, 272, 273, 278,	
281, 283		
Airbrokers Association	367	
Air Companies, Independent <i>see under</i>		
Civil Aviation		
Air Corporations <i>see under</i> Civil		
Aviation		
Air Council	47, 105, 119 , 121	
Air Finance Ltd.	421	
Air Force <i>see</i> Royal Air Force		
Air Ministry	47 , 102, 107	
Constabulary	96	
Air pollution, prevention of	285	

- | | <i>Page</i> | | <i>Page</i> |
|---|-----------------|---|---------------------------|
| Air Registration Board | 361 | Armed Forces— <i>contd.</i> | |
| Air Safety Board | 361 | recruitment and training | 108, 115,
118-9, 121 |
| Air, Secretary of State for 40, 47, 105, 119 | | research and development 57, 110-2, 113,
117-8, 120, 201, 202 | |
| Air Traffic Control Service | 369 | reserves | 108, 115-6, 119, 122, 125 |
| Air Training Corps | 122, 168 | resettlement service.. .. . | 382 |
| Air Transport Advisory Council 361, 363 | | staff colleges | 110 |
| Aircraft: | | strength .. 105-6, 107-8, 109, 377 | |
| civil .. 319-20, 364-5, 366, 367 | | Army 58, 104, 105, 108, 109, 110, 116-9, 125 | |
| industry 319-20, 360, 361 | | Army Cadet Force | 119, 168 |
| Service .. 110, 114, 120-1, 320 | | Army Council | 58, 105, 116 |
| Aircraft carriers | 113 | Army Emergency Reserve | 119 |
| Airmail services <i>see under</i> Civil Aviation | | Arrest, law relating to | 76 |
| Airports <i>see under</i> Civil Aviation | | Art colleges and schools | 214 |
| Aldermen | 69, 71 | Art exhibitions and galleries 45, 212, 213-4 | |
| Allotments | 257 | Art Exhibitions Bureau | 213 |
| Almoners | 145, 150 | Art societies | 213-4 |
| Amalgamated Press | 468 | Arts Council of Great Britain 210, 211,
212, 213, 216, 218, 219, 223, 224, 225 | |
| Ambulance services: | | Arts, promotion of | 210-25 |
| civil defence | 124 | Assay Offices | 332 |
| National Health Service | 147 | Assizes | 81-2 |
| Amphibious Warfare Headquarters 49, 105 | | Associated British Picture Corporation 222 | |
| Ancient Monuments Boards | 215 | Associated Iliffe Press | 468 |
| Anglican Communion | 186-7 | Associated Newspapers Ltd. 467, 468 | |
| <i>See also</i> Church of England | | Associated Press | 471 |
| Anglo-American Productivity Council 250 | | Association for Consumer Research 455 | |
| Antarctic Expeditions | 209 | Association for the Preservation of
Rural Scotland | 182 |
| Anti-Locust Research Centre | 206 | Association of British Chambers of
Commerce | 246, 250-1 |
| Apollo Society | 218 | Association of Special Libraries and
Information BureauX (ASLIB) .. 217 | |
| Appeal, Court of .. 79-80, 85, 87 | | Athlone Fellowship Scheme | 164 |
| Appeal Committee of Quarter Sessions 82 | | Atomic energy <i>see</i> Nuclear energy | |
| Appellate courts 40, 74, 79-80, 82-3, 84 | | Atomic Energy Authority 113, 198, 201-2,
203, 204, 296, 315 | |
| Appropriation <i>see under</i> Finance | | Attendance centres (young offenders) 94 | |
| Approved schools (for young offenders) | 93-4 | Attested herds | 264, 269 |
| Arbitration Boards | 391 | Attorney-General .. 41, 54, 82, 86 | |
| Archbishops: | | Audience Research (broadcasting) 462, 464 | |
| Canterbury 29, 42, 83, 185, 187, 190, 216 | | Auditor General <i>see</i> Comptroller | |
| Westminster, Cardinal Archbishop
of | 189 | Auxiliary Fire Service .. 124, 125 | |
| York | 29, 42, 83, 185 | Aviation <i>see</i> Aircraft, Civil Aviation
and Royal Air Force | |
| Architects' Registration Council .. 216 | | | |
| Architecture | 214-6 | | |
| Area Boards: | | | |
| electricity | 293, 294, 298 | | |
| gas | 299 | | |
| railways | 346 | | |
| Area Consultative Councils (electricity) 294 | | | |
| Armed Forces 25, 26, 30, 49, 104-22, 125-6 | | | |
| commissioned ranks in | 110 | | |
| equipment 57, 110-2, 112-3, 114, 117-8,
120-1 | | | |
| national service in 106, 108-9, 118, 119 | | | |
| overseas commitments 104, 105-6,
109-10, 114, 117, 120 | | | |
| participation in Civil Defence 125-6 | | | |
| pre-Service organisations 116, 119, 122,
168 | | | |

B

- BBC *see* British Broadcasting Corporation
- BEA *see* British European Airways
- BOAC *see* British Overseas Airways Corporation
- Baghdad Pact
 104, 164 || Bail | 76 |
| Balance of payments .. 228, 409, 442-50 | |

	<i>Page</i>		<i>Page</i>
Ballet	224-5	Borstal institutions ..	89, 90, 94-5
Baltic Exchange	338-9, 440	Boy Scouts Association ..	165, 167
Air Section of	367	Boys' Brigade	165, 167
Bank Holidays	401	Bradford .. 14, 15, 220,	195, 240
Bank notes	416, 436, 474	Brewing industry	328, 329
Bank of England .. 55,	406, 416, 419, 420,	Brickmaking	330-1
	421, 436, 441	Bristol	178
Bank rate	235, 416	art and drama	213, 219, 220
Banking system	416-8, 419, 420, 454	College of Technology ..	195
Baptist Church	188	industries	241, 330, 331, 333
Barristers	79, 81, 83, 86, 87	population	15
Belfast:		port of	341, 342
art, drama and music ..	213, 219, 223	University	158, 220, 274
College of Technology ..	163	Bristol Steamship Owners' Association	338
Fire Brigade	102, 103	British Academy	218
Harbour Commissioners ..	343	British Actors' Equity	219
industries	241, 295, 311, 330	British Association for the Advance-	ment of Science
police	99	British Bankers' Association ..	417
population	15	British Board of Film Censors ..	222
port of	342, 343	British Boot, Shoe and Allied Trades	Research Association
university .. 158, 160,	216, 273, 274	British Broadcasting Corporation ..	156,
Beveridge Report (social insurance) ..	129	456-7, 457-8, 459-62, 463, 464, 465	
Bible	21 footnote, 26	British Ceramic Research Association	301
Bicycle industry <i>see</i> Cycle industry		British Colour Council	401
Bills, parliamentary:		British Commonwealth Scientific	Offices
Money Bills .. 34, 35-6,	406, 408	Offices	208
Private Bills	35, 69	British Cotton Industry Research	Association (Shirley Institute) ..
procedure	35-6, 46	Association (Shirley Institute) ..	325
Public Bills	35	British Council 48, 164, 165, 208-9,	212,
Royal Assent to	26, 35-6	216, 218, 223, 225	
Bird sanctuaries	6, 182	British Council of Churches	190
Birmingham:		British Drama League	217, 220
art and music	213, 223, 224	British Egg Marketing Board ..	265, 267
industries	240, 329	British Electrical and Allied Industries	Research Association
population	14, 15	Research Association	298
University	158, 160, 194	British Empire Cancer Campaign ..	151,
Birth rate	8-9, 11-12	192, 199	
Bishops	29, 42, 185, 187, 189	British Employers' Confederation ..	245,
Blind persons:		246, 250, 388, 391, 392, 402	
employment and training	386	British European Airways .. 359,	361-2,
National Library for	217	365-6, 372	
welfare	127, 136	British Film Academy	221
Blood transfusion service	145	British Film Fund Agency	222, 223
Board of Control	141	British Film Institute	221
Board of Survey (waterways)	356	British Film Production Fund	221
Board of Trade <i>see</i> Trade, Board of		British Glass Industry Research	Association
Boards of Management:		Association	332
BBC	458	British Independent Air Transport	Association
Transport	346	Association	367
Boilers and boilerhouse plant	315	British Industries Fair, end of	439
Book Society	218	British Institute of Management ..	250, 252
Books	216-8	British Isles	1-21
lent by public libraries	217	area	1
numbers published	217	climate	4-5, 253
sales of	334	fauna	6-7, 182, 200
Booksellers' Association	218		
Borough Councils	68, 69, 72, 75		

- | | Page | | Page |
|--|--------------------|---|-------------------------|
| British Isles— <i>contd.</i> | | Building and contracting— <i>contd.</i> | |
| geology and topography | 1-4 | of schools | 157-8 |
| population | 7-16 | overseas | 307-8 |
| soil and vegetation | 5-6 | prefabricated buildings .. | 306-7 |
| British Leather Manufacturers' Re- | | private | 172, 306 |
| search Association | 333 | production | 171-2, 306-8 |
| British Legion | 139 | reconstruction | 178 |
| British Medical Association .. | 193, 402 | <i>See also Housing and Research</i> | |
| British Museum | 212, 216 | Building Research Station .. | 308 |
| Natural History | 207, 217 | Building Societies | 424 |
| British Overseas Airways Corporation | 359, | Burghs (Scotland) 68, 69, 70, 71, 72, 73, 74, | |
| 360, 361-2, 363-5 | | 96, 100, 177 | |
| British Overseas Fairs Ltd. .. | 246 | Burnham Committee | 156, 400 |
| British Productivity Council .. | 250-1, 302 | By-elections | 30, 32 |
| British Railways 320, 345, 346, 348-51 | | Byelaws | 67, 68, 139 |
| Area Boards | 346 | | |
| British Rayon Research Association .. | 327 | C | |
| British Red Cross Society 128, 147, 150, | | CEMA <i>see</i> Northern Ireland, Council | |
| 168 | | for the Encouragement of Music | |
| British Road Services (haulage) 346, 353 | | and the Arts | |
| British Rubber Manufacturers, Re- | | CERN <i>see</i> European Organisation for | |
| search Association of | 334 | Nuclear Research | |
| British Standards Institution 251, 455 | | Cabinet .. 23, 26, 39, 42-3, 44, 45, 104 | |
| Consumer Advisory Council .. | 455 | Office | 43, 45 |
| British Sugar Corporation | 268 | Cable & Wireless Ltd. | 373 |
| British Transport Commission 343, 345-8, | | Calder Hall | 202, 203, 296 |
| 355-6 | | Calico Printers' Association .. | 327 |
| Board of Survey (waterways) .. | 356 | Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation .. | 211 |
| Divisions | 346 | Cambridge University 39, 118, 158, 160, | |
| Police | 96 | 274 | |
| British Transport Docks .. 343, 346 | | dramatic societies | 220 |
| British Transport Hotels and Catering | | library | 216 |
| Services | 346, 350 | museum | 213 |
| British Travel and Holidays Associa- | | Press | 218 |
| tion | 433 | Canals | 341, 355-6 |
| British United Press | 471 | Cancer research .. 151, 192, 199, 206 | |
| British Waterways | 346, 355-6 | Canteens | 403 |
| British Wool Marketing Board 265, 268 | | Capital Issues Committee .. 421-2, 450 | |
| Broadcasting | 456-65 | Cardiff | 158, 195, 213, 343, 470 |
| advisory councils and committees | 457-8, | Carnegie United Kingdom Trust 211, 213, | |
| 459 | | 224 | |
| international relations | 464-5 | Catholic Marriage Advisory Council .. | 128 |
| parliamentary summaries | 38 | Catholic Young Men's Society .. | 167 |
| research | 206, 462, 464 | Cement and Concrete Association .. | 308 |
| sound | 459-62, 465 | Cement industry | 330, 332 |
| television | 462-3, 465 | Censorship: | |
| to schools | 156, 458, 460, 463 | films | 222 |
| wire | 463-4 | plays | 219 |
| <i>See also Licences</i> | | Press's freedom from | 466 |
| Buddhist Community | 190 | Census of Distribution 57, 450-1, 451-2 | |
| Budget | 408-14 | Census of Population .. 7-8, 12-16, 378 | |
| Building and contracting .. 245, 305-8 | | Census of Production .. 57, 308-9 | |
| by local authorities | 171-2, 306 | Census of Woodlands | 279 |
| contractors' plant | 314 | Central Advisory Water Committee .. | 303 |
| employment in | 305, 378 | Central After-Care Association | |
| industrial | 242, 307 | (prisoners) | 92 |
| new towns, progress in | 180 | | |

	<i>Page</i>		<i>Page</i>
Central Council of Physical Recreation	169	China manufacture	330, 331
Central Criminal Court	82	Choral societies 223
Central Electricity Authority (former)	293, 297, 298	Christian Scientists 189
Central Electricity Board 243 footnote,	293,	Church Army 128
Central Electricity Generating Board	293, 294, 295, 297, 298, 307	Church Assembly	185-6
Central Fingerprint Bureau	99	Church Commissioners 186
Central Fire Brigades Advisory Councils 101	Church in Wales (Anglican) 186
Central Health Services Council	141 , 142	Church Lads' Brigade 167
Central Institutions (Scotland)	162	Church of England	184-6 , 191
Central Office of Information 45, 52-3 , 61		appointment of clergy 26, 42, 185
Central School of Arts and Crafts	214	archbishops 29, 42, 83, 185 , 187, 190, 216	
Central School of Speech Training and Dramatic Art	220	bishops	29, 42, 83, 185 , 187
Central Statistical Office	45, 247	chaplains 91, 184
Central Youth Employment Executive	384	Church Assembly	185-6
Chamber of Shipping	338	Ecclesiastical Courts	83, 186
Chambers of Commerce 246 , 250-1, 440		finance 186
Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster	41 , 85	membership 186
Chancellor of the Exchequer 40-1, 45, 49, 53, 57, 211, 247, 407 , 408 , 421		relations with Monarchy 25, 26, 185, 186	
Chancery Division (High Court)	79	relations with State	184-5, 186
Channel Islands:		schools	157, 186
air services	368	Church of England Children's Society	128, 137
area	1	Church of England Moral Welfare Council 128
holidays, statutory	401	Church of Ireland (Anglican)	91, 186
horticulture	256	Church of Scotland (Presbyterian) 91, 128, 137, 187 , 191	
language	16	Church of Wales (Presbyterian)	188
legislature	22, 27, 39	Church schools	157, 186, 190
population	13	Churches	184-90
Press	466, 470	co-operation	190-1
relationship with the UK	22, 23, 27 footnote, 39, 51	preservation of historic	215-6
social security	130	relations with Monarchy and State 25, 26, 184-5 , 186, 187	
temperature	5	welfare work 91, 127, 128, 137, 144, 165, 167	
war pensioners	51	<i>See also</i> Clergy and the individual denominations	
Chemical industries 250, 309, 322-5 , 428, 429		Churches of Christ 189
Chiefs of Staff Committee	105	Cinemas	20, 220, 221, 222
Children:		Cinematograph Films Council	220
adoption of	81, 137	Citizens' Advice Bureaux 128
art, drama and music 214, 219, 224		Civil Aviation	58, 358-69
care of	136-8	airmails	359, 364, 365, 371-2
cinema attendance	20, 222-3	airports	362, 363-4, 365, 367-8
employment	394	charter operations 367
handicapped	149, 157	Coach Class Services 366
numbers attending school	152	Constabulary 96
nurseries	147	Corporations 359, 360, 361-3 , 364-6	
publications for	470, 473	helicopter services 366
welfare services	136-8, 146-7, 157	independent airline companies	363, 366-7
<i>See also</i> Families, Family Allowances, Juvenile Courts, Schools, Young Offenders and Youth		international co-operation	361, 369
Children's Film Foundation	222-3	labour relations	362-3
		licences 361
		ministerial powers	360-1, 362
		navigational aids	368-9

	<i>Page</i>		<i>Page</i>
Civil Aviation— <i>contd.</i>		Colleges— <i>contd.</i>	
safety measures	361, 368-9, 401-2	police 99
scheduled services	360, 363-4, 365, 366	Services' 110, 115, 118, 121
tourist services	.. 364, 365, 366	teachers' training 155-6
traffic control 368-9	technical 160-3, 195
<i>See also Aircraft and Research</i>		Technical Staff 383
Civil Service	.. 23, 45, 62-7, 90, 370, 418	<i>See also Universities</i>	
Arbitration Tribunal 393	Colombo Plan 164, 449
classes and grades 64	Colonial Development Corporation	.. 449
Commission 63, 65	Colonial Office 41, 48
salaries 66, 393, 400	Colonial Research Council 206
staff associations 66, 393	Colonial Service <i>see</i> Overseas Civil	
Clean Air Council 285	Service	
Clergy 184, 185, 186, 187	Colonies, Secretary of State for	40, 48, 199
appointment of 26, 42, 185	Combined Cadet Force	.. 119, 168
chaplains 91, 184	Commissioners of Police 98
membership of House of Lords	29, 185	Commodity markets 440-1
non-membership of House of Com-		Commons, House of <i>see</i> House of	
mons 39, 185	Commons	
training 186, 187	Commons, Open Spaces and Footpaths	
Clerk of the Justiciary (Scotland)	.. 86	Preservation Society 182
Climate 4-5, 253	Commonwealth Agricultural Bureaux	208,
Clock and watch industry 316		273
Clothing industry 328, 378	Commonwealth co-operation:	
Clyde Navigation Trust 343	financial and trade	47, 48, 412, 417, 420,
Coal:		432, 433, 434, 437, 441-2, 449-50	
coalfields and mines	2, 238-9, 287, 401	for broadcasting 464-5
consumers' councils 287	for defence	48, 104, 110, 111, 113, 114
consumption 288	for scientific research	.. 208, 209
exports and imports	288, 427, 429, 430	in education 50, 164
industry 240, 241, 285-90	social service agreements	.. 129-30
National Coal Board	286-7, 289-90	Commonwealth Development Finance	
opencast workings	.. 286, 287, 401	Company Limited 420, 450
production and marketing	287-8, 290	Commonwealth Institute 50, 217
research 290	Commonwealth Institute of Biological	
<i>See also Mines and quarries</i>		Control 208
Coal Industry Social Welfare Organi-		Commonwealth Mycological and Ento-	
sation 289	mological Institutes 208
Coalminers:		Commonwealth, Queen as Head of	22, 23
earnings 397	Commonwealth Relations Office	.. 48-9
medical and welfare services	289, 395,	Commonwealth Relations, Secretary	
	403	of State for 40, 48, 199
numbers employed 286, 288	Commonwealth Scientific Offices	.. 208
Coal Utilisation Council 301	Commonwealth Trans-Antarctic Ex-	
Coastal Shipping Advisory Committee	347	pedition 209
Coastguard Service 339	Communications <i>see</i> Post Office and	
Coffee bars 20	Transport	
Coke production 300	Community centres 163
Colleges:		Comptroller and Auditor General	45, 200,
Advanced Technology	.. 162, 195		201, 407
agricultural 272, 273-4	Concert halls 223
art 214	Confectionery industries	.. 328, 329
Civil Defence 125	Congregational Church 188
Fire Service 102	Consolidated Fund	.. 271, 406, 415
for adult students 163	Consumer Consultative Councils and	
for disabled 386	Committees:	
music 224	agricultural marketing schemes	265-6

	<i>Page</i>		<i>Page</i>
Death grant	134	Dock and Harbour Authorities' Association	341
Death rate	8-9, 11-12	Dock workers	343-4, 397
Death sentence	81, 89	Docks	341, 343, 345, 346
Decca navigational aid	369	Dockyards, naval	62, 96, 110, 113-4
Defence	104-26	Doctor Barnardo's Homes	137
Board	105	Doctors:	
Civil	70, 122-6	Appointed Factory	402
Committee	104-5	in industry	402
expenditure 106-7, 230, 233, 413, 414, 442 footnote		in National Health Service	141, 143, 144, 150
Fighting Services	112-22, 125-6	qualifications and training	141, 150
manpower	105-6, 107-10, 377	Dollar area, trade with 431-2, 434, 436, 439	
Ministry of	49, 104-5, 107, 122	Domestic Help Service	147, 149
policy	104-6	Domestic proceedings (court)	81, 473
supply	57, 110-2	Domestic service <i>see under</i> Employment	
US aid	106, 111, 112, 113, 448	Dounreay	202, 203, 296
<i>See also under</i> Research		Drama	218-20
Defence Bonds	418	Duchy of Lancaster	41 footnote
Defence Research Policy Committee	197	Duke of Edinburgh's Award	167
Delegated legislation	36-7	Dyestuffs industry	323
Dental services	143, 144, 157		
Dentists:		E	
in National Health Service 142, 143, 144		Eady Fund	221
qualifications and training	141, 150	Earnings	397-400
Departments <i>see</i> Government, Departments of <i>also</i> individual titles <i>and</i>		Ecclesiastical Committee	185-6
Civil Service		Ecclesiastical Courts	83, 186
Derby Social Survey	19 footnote, 21 footnote	Economic Planning Board	248
Design Centre	214	Economy, national	45, 226-36
Design and Industries Association	214	<i>See also</i> Balance of payments <i>and</i>	
Detention centres (young offenders) 89, 94		Finance	
Detergents	322, 323	Edinburgh:	
Devaluation of sterling 443, 446 footnote		High Court of Justiciary	82
Development areas	241-2	industry	329, 330
Development Commission 197, 205, 242, 274, 278		International Festival	224
Development Corporations of New		museums and art galleries	213
Towns	171, 173, 178, 180	National Library of Scotland	216
Development Councils (in industry) 242-3, 250		population	15
Development Fund	197, 205, 274	Royal Society of	218
Development Plans	177-8	University	99, 158, 274
Dioceses	185, 189	Education	151-65
Diphtheria immunisation	148	adult	163
Director of Public Prosecutions 54, 99		agricultural	274
Disablement:		art	212, 214
benefit	134-5	examinations, school	154, 155, 224
employment of disabled	385-6	finance	151, 153, 160, 163
pensions (war)	138	forestry	284
rehabilitation	145, 382, 386	grants and scholarships 153, 159, 164	
Disablement Resettlement Service 385-6		Ministry of	44, 49-50, 152, 159, 212
Discharged Prisoners' Aid Societies	92	music	224
Discount market	419	physical	157, 169
Distributive trades 277, 378, 379, 450-4		prisoners	91
District Councils (Scotland) 68, 70, 71, 74		schools	152-8, 186, 190
		teachers	155-6, 379, 400
		technical	161-3

	<i>Page</i>	<i>Page</i>
Factories— <i>contd.</i>		
health and welfare in	386-7, 394-5 , 397, 402-3	
in Development Areas	.. 241, 242	
in new towns 180	
inspection	.. 386, 387, 394, 395, 401	
joint consultation in	.. 392-3	
personnel management	.. 403, 404	
safety measures	386, 394-5 , 397, 401-2	
Families, average size of	.. 10 , 17	
<i>See also</i> Households		
Family Allowances 130	
Family Service Units 138	
Family Welfare Association 127	
Farm Institutes 274	
Farming <i>see</i> Agriculture		
Fatstock Marketing Corporation	.. 266	
Fauna 6-7, 182, 200	
Federation of British Industries	246 , 250, 439, 440	
Fertilisers 269, 270, 323-4	
Festivals 218, 223-4	
Films 220-3	
Finance 405-24	
aid from overseas countries	106, 107 111, 228, 236, 251, 415, 432 footnote, 444, 446, 447-9	
aid to overseas countries	107, 111, 228, 420, 449-50	
Appropriation	.. 35, 405, 407 , 415	
banks 416-8	
Bills (parliamentary)	34, 35-6 , 406, 408	
Exchequer 405-15	
financial institutions	419-24, 441-2	
financing of international trade	440-2	
inflation, counter measures	232, 235 , 409	
local government	67-8, 73-5 , 233, 405, 410, 412, 413	
national income and expenditure	.. 226, 228-33 , 427	
overseas investment	227, 228, 231, 236, 420, 425, 440, 449-50	
parliamentary control	33, 34, 35-6, 45, 62, 405-8 , 416	
public corporations	243, 248 , 287, 290, 294, 298, 299, 301, 347, 362, 412, 413, 458	
sterling	235, 236, 440, 441 , 442, 443, 446 footnote	
Treasury bills 415, 419	
Vote system 406-7	
<i>See also</i> Balance of payments, Budget, Estimates, Exchange control, Expenditure, National Debt, Sterling area <i>and</i> Taxation		
Finance Corporation for Industry Ltd.	419, 420 , 421	
Finance corporations 419-20	
Fire Offices' Committee	.. 102, 199	
Fire Research Station	.. 102, 308	
Fire Service 70, 100-3	
<i>See also</i> Auxiliary Fire Service		
Fish, distribution 277, 451	
Fishing industry 275-9	
Fishing ports 240, 275	
Fleet Air Arm 114	
Flora 6, 200	
Food:		
consumer expenditure on 234	
imports	46, 226, 252, 257, 258 , 425, 430 , 435, 442	
processing	.. 205, 240, 277, 278, 328-9	
production 257-9, 260-1	
purity	47, 70, 140 , 266, 273, 278	
rationing, end of 260	
research 205	
return to private trading	260 , 264 435	
subsidies 234, 268-9	
<i>See also</i> Agriculture, School Meals Service <i>and</i> Welfare Foods Service		
Football Association 19	
Footwear 333	
Foreign Affairs, Secretary of State for	40, 50	
Foreign Exchange Market 441	
Foreign Office 41, 50	
Foreign Service	.. 50, 64-5 , 438	
Foreigners:		
employment of	.. 18, 54, 383-4	
visitors 433	
<i>See also under</i> Students		
Forest Nature Reserves 182	
Forest Products Research Laboratory	284 , 308	
Forestry 279-85	
Commission	50, 197, 205, 262, 281-2 , 283, 284	
education and research	197, 205, 284	
forest parks 179, 181-2 , 183	
Fund 282	
societies 283	
<i>See also</i> Timber		
Free Church of England 189	
Free Church Federal Council	.. 190	
Free Churches	.. 91, 187-8 , 190, 191	
Free Trade Area, proposed	.. 434-5	
Friendly Societies 422	
Friends, Society of 187, 189	
Fruit, production and marketing	256, 451	
Fuel:		
consumption	285 , 288, 291, 295, 297, 300	
efficiency 301-2	
research	56, 205 , 289-90, 292, 298, 301	

	<i>Page</i>		<i>Page</i>
Fuel— <i>contd.</i>		Gold and silver ware	332
<i>See also</i> Coal, Electricity, Gas and Oil		Gold Market (London)	441, 442
Fulmer Research Institute	196	Goldsmiths' Company	332
G			
GATT <i>see</i> General Agreement on		Government:	
Tariffs and Trade		Departments of 23, 37, 40-1, 42, 43, 44,	
GPO <i>see</i> Post Office		44-62, 246-7, 406-8	
Gas by-products	300	Ministerial	37, 40-4
Gas Council	205, 299, 301	organs of 22-3, 40-1, 42, 44, 84-5	
Gas supply	298-301	<i>See also</i> Civil Service, Finance,	
consumption	300	Local Government, Monarchy,	
General Agreement on Tariffs and		Parliament and Privy Council	
Trade	433, 434	Government Actuary, Department of	45
General Assembly of the Church of		Government Chemist, Department of	
Scotland	187	45, 196, 206, 403	
General Certificate of Education ..	155	Grangemouth, port of	342, 343
General Council of British Shipping..	338	Great Britain:	
General Council of the Bar	86	area and composition of	1
General Council of the Press	473	population of	7, 13
General Dental Council	150	<i>See also</i> British Isles	
General Medical Council	84, 150	Great Seal	26, 28, 54
General Nursing Council	150	Greenwich <i>see</i> Royal Observatory	
General Optical Council	150	Grids, electricity	293, 297
General Post Office <i>see</i> Post Office		Grids, gas	301
General Practitioner Services	144	Guardian's Allowance	133
General Register Division, Northern		Guernsey:	
Ireland	8 footnote	language	16
General Register Office 8 footnote, 51,	206	population	13
General Registry Office, Edinburgh		<i>See also</i> Channel Islands	
8 footnote, 60		Guided weapons 110, III, 113, 114,	
Geological Museum	207, 305, 308	117-8, 120	
Geological Survey 47, 196, 207, 305, 308		Guild of British Newspaper Editors	472
George Newnes publishing group ..	468	H	
Georgian Group	215	HMSO <i>see</i> Stationery Office	
Girl Guides Association	165, 167	Habeas Corpus	76
Girls' Friendly Society	165	Hall-mark (gold and silver)	332
Girls' Life Brigade	167	Hand tools industry	322
Girls' Nautical Training Corps ..	167	'Hansard'	34, 38
Girls' Training Corps	167	Hansard Society	38
Glasgow:		Harmsworth Group (Press)	468
art gallery and museum	213	Harwell Atomic Energy Research	
fire service	100	Establishment III, 202, 203, 324	
industry 241, 242, 307, 313, 314, 330		Health	139-51
police	99	air pollution, prevention of 139, 285	
population	15	centres	149
port of	342, 343	in industry 289, 294, 394, 395-6, 402-3	
Royal Scottish Academy	224	Ministry of 44, 51, 123, 140, 141, 142,	
University 99, 158, 160, 194, 216, 274		199, 200, 206, 247, 278	
Glass Delegation, Sheffield University		research 141, 150-1, 192, 199-200, 206,	
194, 195, 332		289, 403	
Glass industry	330, 331	sanitation	70, 139, 394, 395
Glyndebourne (opera)	225	school children	157
Gold and dollar reserves 227, 235, 236,	445, 446	visiting	147
		<i>See also</i> National Health Service	
		Helicopters	114, 320, 366
		Herring Industry Advisory Council ..	278

- | | <i>Page</i> | | <i>Page</i> |
|---|--------------------|---|---|
| Herring Industry Board | 278 | Housing— <i>contd.</i> | |
| High Court of Justice 76, 79, 81, 82, 84, 85, 87 | | local authorities' responsibilities .. | 171 |
| High Court of Justiciary (Scotland) 82-3, 86 | | Ministerial responsibilities .. | 52, 170 |
| Highway Code | 355 | number of dwellings | 171 |
| Hire purchase | 417, 454 | progress in building .. | 171-2, 306 |
| Historic Buildings Bureau | 215 | purchase schemes | 174 |
| Historic Buildings Councils | 215 | rent control | 174-6 |
| Historic Churches Preservation Trust 215-6 | | repairs .. | 172, 173, 174, 175, 306 |
| Hobbies | 20-1 | slum clearance | 172-3 |
| Holidays | 19, 391, 400-1 | standards | 172, 174 |
| Hollow-ware industry | 321-2 | subsidies | 173-4 |
| Home Office | 51-2, 95, 102 | types of houses | 17 |
| Home Secretary 27 footnote, 40, 51, 70, 72, 81, 85, 89-90, 92, 93, 95, 96-7, 100-1, 102, 123, 199, 222, 278 | | <i>See also</i> Building | |
| Homicide <i>see</i> Murder | | Housing and Local Government, | |
| Honours | 26, 42, 52 | Ministry of .. | 52, 68, 74, 75, 170, 177, 178, 182, 205, 214, 247, 285, 303 |
| Hops Marketing Board | 265 | Hull | 15, 158, 178, 240, 342, 343 |
| Horticulture | 256, 266, 273, 274 | Hulton Press Ltd. | 469 |
| Hospital Car Service | 147 | Human Relations in Industry, | |
| Hospitals 141, 142, 143, 144-5, 151 | | Committee on | 404 |
| finance | 143-4 | Hungarian refugees | 10, 384 |
| mental | 147-8 | Hydraulics Research Station | 305, 308 |
| Northern Ireland | 149 | | |
| number | 144, 149 | I | |
| Scotland | 143, 144 | IGY <i>see</i> International Geophysical Year | |
| specialist services | 144-5 | ITA <i>see</i> Independent Television | |
| staff | 143, 144 | Authority | |
| teaching | 141, 142, 143, 144 | Immigration | 7, 10-11, 384 |
| voluntary | 139, 144 | Immunisation | 148-9 |
| voluntary help in | 150 | Imperial Cancer Research Fund .. | 192 |
| House of Commons 27, 29-30, 32-8, 41, 44, 45, 66, 185 | | Imperial Chemical Industries Ltd | 195, 243, 327 |
| election to | 29-31, 31-2 | Imperial College of Science and | |
| financial control 33, 34, 35-6, 405-8 | | Technology | 160, 197, 308 |
| officers | 30, 407 | Imperial Defence College .. | 105, 110 |
| party composition | 32 | Imperial Forestry Institute .. | 205, 284 |
| privileges | 31 | Imperial War Museum | 212 |
| <i>See also</i> Parliament and Speaker | | Imports 226, 229, 235, 425-8, 429-32, 435, 442, 444 | |
| House of Lords 27, 29, 31, 33, 34, 35-6, 41, 44, 71, 185 | | control of | 433-5, 436-7 |
| as Court of Appeal | 79, 80, 82 | <i>See also</i> Food and Raw materials | |
| officers | 29, 33 | Improvement grants: | |
| privileges | 31 | agricultural | 269-70 |
| <i>See also</i> Parliament and Speaker | | housing | 174 |
| Households | 16-18 | Income: | |
| Houses, preservation of historic 173, 182-3, 213, 215 | | Government | 233, 409-14, 415 |
| Housewives | 18, 376 | national | 228, 229-30, 427 |
| Housing | 170-6 | personal | 234, 397-400 |
| associations | 171 | Income Tax <i>see under</i> Taxation | |
| authorities | 170-1 | Independent Television 156, 456, 457, 463 | |
| costs | 173 | Authority 206, 456, 457, 458-9, 463, 464 | |
| finance | 173-6 | programme companies 211, 458, 459 | |
| investment | 231, 232 | Independent Television Companies | |
| | | Association Ltd. | 459, 464 |
| | | Independent Television News Ltd. .. | 459 |
| | | Indictable offences | 77 |

	<i>Page</i>		<i>Page</i>
Individual Efficiency in Industry, Committee on	404	Inspectors of— <i>contd.</i>	
Industrial and Commercial Finance Corporation Ltd.	419, 420	fire services	101
Industrial Civil Defence Service ..	124	mines and quarries .. 56, 289, 395,	401
Industrial Court	391	port health	140
Industrial Design	214	prisons	89
Industrial Disputes Tribunal ..	391	schools	49, 152
Industrial engines	313	Institute of Cancer Research ..	199
Industrial Estate Companies ..	241	Institute of Journalists ..	472, 473
Industrial Grants Committee (DSIR)	196	Institution of Civil Engineers	193, 308
Industrial Health and Safety Centre	401	Institution of Electrical Engineers ..	193
Industrial injuries insurance .. 128-9,	131,	Institution of Mechanical Engineers ..	161,
	134-5		193
Industrial Safety Training Centre ..	401	Insurance	422-4
Industrial valves industry	314	brokers	423
Industry	237-334	companies	102, 422-3
associations	245-6	export	438-9
controls 241-2, 247, 248-9		marine	337, 423, 424
design in	214	<i>See also</i> National Insurance	
development areas	241-2	International Aeradio Ltd. ..	369
development councils	242-3	International Bank for Reconstruction and Development	449
distribution policy	178, 241-2	International Convention for Preven- tion of Pollution of Sea by Oil ..	339
health and welfare services 386-7, 402-3		International Geophysical Year ..	209
human relations in	403-4	International Labour Organisation	54, 383,
investment in	230-3, 420		388
location	237-42	International Monetary Fund	236, 433, 446
management	251-2, 403-4	International Synthetic Rubber Com- pany	334
manufacturing .. 229, 230, 232, 244-5,	308-34, 378	International Telecommunication Union	375, 465
mining and quarrying .. 229, 244, 378,	395	International Union of Forest Re- search Organisations	284
organisation	237-52	International Whaling Commission ..	279
production and productivity .. 228, 229,	230, 246-7, 249-51, 309	Investment	230-3, 420
Regional Boards	248	trusts	422
relations with Government .. 246-9, 392		<i>See also under</i> Finance and Savings	
safety regulations	386-7, 394-7	Ireland, Churches	186, 187, 188, 189
trading estates	241	Ireland, Northern <i>see</i> Northern Ireland	
<i>See also</i> Employment, Exports, indi- vidual industries, Labour, Nationalisation and Research		Ireland, Republic of	1, 22
Infectious diseases:		air services	365
control of	140, 148-9, 264	census	8, 13
mortality from	10, 149	citizens' employment in UK ..	18, 384
Inflation <i>see under</i> Finance		citizens' voting rights in UK ..	30, 71
Information, Central Office of .. 45, 52-3, 61		exports to	432, 437
Injury benefit (industrial injuries) ..	134	insurance reciprocity	130
Inland Revenue:		population	13
Board of	53, 74, 409-10	relations with UK Government ..	48
Commissioners of	84	Roman Catholic Church in ..	189
sources of	233, 409-14, 415	visitors from Britain	19
Inland waterways	355-6	war pensioners	51, 55
Inns of Court	86	Iron and Steel Board	310
Inspectors of:		Iron and Steel Holding and Realisa- tion Agency	310
constabulary	97	Iron and steel industry	309-10, 429
factories	386, 387, 394, 395, 401	Isle of Man:	
		air services	365, 367, 368

- | | <i>Page</i> | | <i>Page</i> |
|----------------------------------|-------------|---|------------------------------|
| Isle of Man— <i>contd.</i> | | Labour— <i>contd.</i> | |
| area | 1 | working conditions .. | 289, 393-404 |
| language | 7, 16 | <i>See also</i> Employment, Safety | |
| legislature | 22, 27, 39 | measures, Trade Unions, Wages | |
| national insurance | 129 | and Work, hours of | |
| population | 13 | Labour and National Service, Ministry | |
| Press | 470 | of 44, 53-4, 92, 108, 109, 199, 244, 247, | |
| relationship with UK | 22, 23, | 381-6, 391-3, 394 | |
| 27 footnote, 39, 51 | | Lambeth Conference | 187 |
| war pensioners | 51 | Lancaster, Duchy of | 41 footnote |
| Isotope School (Harwell) | 202 | Land Registry | 54 |
| Isotopes, radioactive | 202, 324-5 | Land Settlement Association Ltd. | 256-7 |
| | | Land use: | |
| | | agriculture | 170, 252-7 |
| | | Armed Forces | 170 |
| | | town and country planning | 52, 170, |
| | | 176-83, 205 | |
| | | Lands Improvement Company | .. 271 |
| | | Lands Tribunal | 74, 84 |
| | | Lands Valuation Appeal Court | .. 74 |
| | | Language | 7, 16 |
| | | Law | 75-88 |
| | | appointment of judges | 26, 54, 85 |
| | | arrest, law of | 76 |
| | | bail | 76 |
| | | civil and criminal | 76 |
| | | courts | 54, 75, 76, 77, 78-84, 84-5, |
| | | 87-8, 186 | |
| | | criminal proceedings | 76-7, 80-2, 87-8 |
| | | equity system | 75, 79 |
| | | evidence, law of | 76, 78 |
| | | judiciary 23, 25, 41, 54, 75, 77, 78, 79, | |
| | | 80, 81, 82, 84-6 | |
| | | jury system | 77-8, 79, 81, 82, 83, 93 |
| | | legal aid | 55, 76-7, 86-8, 135 |
| | | legal profession | 86 |
| | | legal system | 75-8 |
| | | penalties for breaking | .. 88-9 |
| | | Press | 473 |
| | | sources of | 75 |
| | | subjects' right of appeal to the Crown | 40, 51, 52 |
| | | Law Officers' Department | 54 |
| | | Law Officers of the Crown 41, 54, 61, 86 | |
| | | Law Reform Committee | 85 |
| | | Law Society | 84, 86, 87 |
| | | Lawyers | 76, 86, 87 |
| | | Learned societies | 192-4 |
| | | Leather industry | 194, 332-3 |
| | | Lee Conservancy Board | 303, 304 |
| | | Leeds 15, 158, 160, 194, 213, 240, 301, 328 | |
| | | Legal Aid Fund | 87 |
| | | Legal system <i>see under</i> Law | |
| | | Leicester 15, 158, 213, 240, 313, 333 | |
| | | Leisure activities 18-21, 163, 165-9 | |
| | | <i>See also</i> Arts, promotion of | |
| | | Leverhulme Fellowships | 195 |
-
- | J | |
|--|----------------------|
| Jersey: | |
| language | 16 |
| population | 13 |
| <i>See also</i> Channel Islands | |
| Jewellery industry | 330, 332, 441 |
| Jewish Board of Guardians | 128 |
| Jewry | 184, 190 |
| Joint consultation in industry | 390-3 |
| Joint Exchequer Board | 415 |
| Joint Fire Research Organisation | 102, 199 |
| Joint Industrial Councils 73, 294, 299, 390, | |
| 392 | |
| Journalists | 38, 472, 473 |
| Judge Advocate General's Department | 54 |
| Judge Advocate of the Fleet 54 footnote | |
| Judicial Committee of the Privy Council | 40 |
| Judiciary <i>see under</i> Law | |
| Jury, trial by | 77-8, 81, 82, 83, 93 |
| Justice of the Peace Courts | 82 |
| Justices of the Peace | 80-1, 84, 85, 96 |
| Jute industry | 327-8, 435 |
| Juvenile Courts | 81, 82, 93, 137 |
| Juvenile delinquency <i>see</i> Young | |
| offenders | |
-
- | K | |
|---------------------------------|-----------------|
| Kemsley Newspapers Ltd. | 467, 468 |
| Kew Gardens | 47, 207 |
| King George VI Memorial Founda- | |
| tion | 136, 166-7, 169 |
| Kirk Session | 187 |
-
- | L | |
|--|-------|
| Labour: | |
| conciliation in disputes | 391-2 |
| deployment of | 378-9 |
| industrial relations 252, 289, 294, 299, | |
| 362-3, 387-93 | |
| protective legislation | 393-7 |

	<i>Page</i>		<i>Page</i>
Libraries	91, 150, 193, 194, 207, 215, 216-7, 221, 223	Local Government— <i>contd.</i>	
Library Association	217	functions and services	69-71, 303, 304
Licences:		health responsibilities	139-40, 145-9, 285
aircrews and aircraft	361	housing	170-1, 172, 174, 306
broadcast	19, 456, 457, 458, 463	internal organisation	72-3
cinemas and films	222	officers	73
driving	355	police services	70, 96
export	437	regulation of working conditions ..	394
house-building, abolition of ..	171	relations with central Government	23, 52, 68
import	436-7	responsibility for aerodromes ..	367
issue of, by Post Office	375	responsibility for approved schools	93
livestock breeding	263-4	responsibility for civil defence	70, 124
local authorities' revenue from ..	74	responsibility for licensing of films ..	222
milk (special designations)	266	responsibility for mental defectives	148
motor vehicles	19 footnote, 344, 352, 353, 357	town and country planning	70, 177, 181
road transport (carriers)	354	Local Valuation Courts	74, 84
theatres and plays	219	Locomotives:	
Life assurance	422, 423	industry	320-1
Life imprisonment	81, 89, 92	types in use	349, 350, 358
Life peerages	29	London:	
Lifeboats	339-40	airports	368
Lighthouses	339-40	art institutions	212, 213, 214
Linen industry	327	as financial and trading centre	417, 419, 421, 422, 423-4, 440-1
Linen Industry Research Association	327	broadcasting studios	460, 462-3
Lister Institute of Preventive Medicine	192	City of London Corporation	69-70, 74, 170
Literary prizes	216	civil defence	70
Literary societies	218	Colleges of Advanced Technology	195
Literature	216-8	concert halls and orchestras	223
Liverpool:		courts of law	79, 81, 82
commodity exchanges	325, 441	drama and music colleges	220, 224
Crown Court	82	Exchanges	440-1
industry	240, 325, 330	Fire Brigade	100
museum and art gallery	213	industries	237, 240, 313, 318, 321, 330, 332, 333
orchestra	223	libraries	216, 217
population	15	local authorities	69, 70, 74
port of	341, 342, 343	markets	277, 440, 441, 442
University	158, 194	museums	207, 212
Liverpool, Employers' Association of		newspapers	466, 467, 469
Port of	338	police forces	70, 96, 97, 98, 99
Liverpool Steamship Owners' Associa- tion	338	population	14, 15
Livestock <i>see under</i> Agriculture		port of	341, 342, 343
Lloyd's	337, 423, 424	rebuilding of war damaged areas ..	178
Lloyd's Register of Shipping	337	Stock Exchange	421
Local Government	23, 67-75	taxicabs	357
arts, promotion of	211, 212	teaching hospitals	144
authorities, types of	68-9	telephone information service	373
Commissions	69	theatres and opera house	218-9, 224-5
councils, constitutions of	69, 73	transport	356-7
education authorities	91, 152, 159	University	158, 160, 214, 216, 274
elections	51, 71-2	water supply	303
employment in	73, 378, 400	London County Council	69-70, 72, 75, 100, 170, 214
finance	67-8, 73-5, 233, 405, 410, 412, 413		
fire services	70, 100, 102, 103		

- | | <i>Page</i> | | <i>Page</i> |
|---|-------------|--|----------------------------|
| 'London Gazette' | 39 | Mass radiography | 148 |
| London Gold Market | 441, 442 | Master of the Rolls | 80 |
| London Transport Executive | 346, 357 | Maternity benefit | 132-3 |
| Lord Advocate | 41, 61, 86 | Maternity services | 146-7 |
| Lord Advocate's Department | .. 61 | Mayor's and City of London Court | 79, 80, 82 |
| Lord Chamberlain | .. 219 | Mayors and Lord Mayors | 25, 38, 69, 81 |
| Lord Chancellor 26, 29, 40, 41, | 54-5, 79, | Medical Practices Committee | .. 144 |
| 80, 81, 84, 85, 86, 87, 184 footnote, | 186, 262 | Medical profession <i>see</i> Doctors | |
| as Speaker of the House of Lords | 29, 33 | Medical research <i>see under</i> Research | |
| Lord Chancellor's Department | 54-5 | Medical Research Council | 40, 150-1, 197, |
| Lord Chief Justice | 42, 79, 82 | 199-200, 201, 403, 404 | |
| Lord High Commissioner | 187 | Medical services: | |
| Lord Justice Clerk | 80, 82, 85 | for ships | 375 |
| Lord Justice General <i>see</i> Lord Presi- | | general practitioners' | 144 |
| dent of Court of Session | | in coalmines | 289 |
| Lord Lieutenants of Counties | 42, 81 | in National Health Service | 144-9 |
| Lord President of the Council | 39, 40, 41, | Mental health services | .. 141, 147-8 |
| 197, 198, 200, 201, 305 | | Merchant Navy | 113, 115, 338, 340-1 |
| Lord President of the Court of Session | 80, 82, 85 | Established Service Scheme | 338, 341 |
| Lords, House of <i>see</i> House of Lords | | Establishment Administration | .. 338 |
| Lords Commissioners (Treasury) .. | 45 | training | 340-1 |
| Lords Justices of Appeal .. 40, 80, 85 | | Training Board | 340 |
| Lords of Appeal in Ordinary | 29, 40, 80 | Welfare Board | 341 |
| | | Merchant shipping | 204, 335-9 |
| | | Mercy, Royal Prerogative of .. | 52, 89 |
| | | Mersey Docks and Harbour Board | .. 343 |
| | | Metal manufacture | 309-11, 321-2, 427, |
| | | | 428, 429 |
| | | Metallurgical Equipment Export Com- | |
| | | pany Ltd. (MEECO) | 316 |
| | | Meteorological Office | 47, 196, 305 |
| | | Methodist Association of Youth Clubs | 167 |
| | | Methodist Churches | 188, 191 |
| | | Metropolitan Borough Councils | 69, 70, |
| | | | 71, 74, 170 |
| | | Metropolitan Police Force | 96, 97, 98, 99 |
| | | Metropolitan Water Board | 303 |
| | | Middlesbrough | 310, 342, 343 |
| | | Midwives | 146, 150 |
| | | Military Courts <i>see</i> Courts-martial | |
| | | Milk: | |
| | | for children and mothers | 146 |
| | | in schools | 157 |
| | | marketing and subsidy | 265, 266, 267, 268 |
| | | production | 259 |
| | | tuberculin tested | 266 |
| | | Mines and quarries: | |
| | | employment statistics | 244, 286, 378 |
| | | fatal accidents | 402 |
| | | industry | 229, 244, 285-90, 291, 401 |
| | | Inspectorate | 56, 289, 395, 401 |
| | | safety measures | 205, 289, 395, 401 |
| | | Ministers (of the Crown) | 23, 26, 31, 35, |
| | | | 39, 40-4 |
| | | of State | 41 |
| | | ministerial responsibility | 23, 26, 37, 39, |
| | | | 40-2, 43-4, 44-5, 63 |

M

- Machine tools industry 313
- Magistrates' courts .. 77, 80-1, 85, 88
- Mail order firms 453
- Malting industry 328, 329-30
- Man, Isle of *see* Isle of Man
- Management *see under* Industry
- Manchester:
- Crown Court 82
- industries 240, 327, 328, 330
- museum and art gallery 213
- newspapers 467, 469, 470
- orchestra 223
- population 16
- port of 341, 342, 343
- Royal College of Music 224
- University 158, 160, 194, 195
- Manchester Ship Canal
 240, 341, 355 || Manchester Ship Canal Company | .. 343 |
| Man-made fibres | 326-7 |
| Manpower *see* Employment | |
| Manufacturing establishments, size | 244-5 |
| Manufacturing industries *see under* | |
| Industry | |
| Markets: | |
| Billingsgate | 277 |
| commodity | 440-1 |
| financial | 419, 421, 422-4, 441 |
| local | 264 |
| Marketing boards, agricultural | 265-6, 267-8 |

	<i>Page</i>		<i>Page</i>
Ministers (of the Crown)— <i>contd.</i>		National Agricultural Advisory Service	251, 271-2
<i>See also</i> Prime Minister and individual Government Departments		National Assembly <i>see</i> Church Assembly	
Ministries <i>see</i> Government Departments		National Assistance	129, 135-6
Moderator of the Church of Scotland	187	National Assistance Board	55, 92, 135-6, 143
Modular Society	215	National Association for Mental Health	128
Monarchy	22, 23-7	National Association of Boys' Clubs ..	167
accession	24, 25	National Association of Discharged Prisoners' Aid Societies	92
ceremonial	25, 27	National Association of Mixed Clubs and Girls' Clubs	167
coronation	24, 25	National Association of Prison Visitors ..	91
powers and functions	23, 25-7, 35-6, 37, 38, 85, 89, 96	National Blood Transfusion Service ..	145
relations with Armed Forces	25, 26, 185, 187	National Book League	217, 218
relations with Churches	25, 26, 185, 187	National Buildings Record	215
relations with Commonwealth	22, 23, 25	National Central Library	217
relations with courts of law	26, 40, 84-5	National Certificates	161, 162
relations with Ministers	26, 41, 42, 43, 44	National Coal Board	243, 286-8, 289-90, 301, 307, 413
relations with Parliament	23, 26, 27, 28, 31, 35, 405	medical services	289
relations with Privy Council	25, 26, 28, 39	research	205, 290
Royal Prerogatives	25-6, 39, 52, 89	National Colleges	162, 214
Royal Proclamations	26, 39	National Corporation for the Care of Old People	136
Royal title	23	National Council for Domestic Food Production	257
subjects' right of appeal to Crown	40, 51, 52	National Council for Technological Awards	161
succession	24, 25, 27	National Council for the Training of Journalists	472
<i>See also</i> Royal Family		National Council of Associated Children's Homes	128, 137
Monopolies Commission	249	National Council of Labour Colleges ..	163
Moravian Church	189	National Council of Social Service	127, 136
Mortality <i>see</i> Death, causes of		National Debt	45, 406, 412, 415
Moslem community	190	Commissioners	418
Motor Industry Research Association	319	Office	45
Motor vehicles:		National Dock Labour Board ..	343-4
industry	250, 318-9, 428	National Economy <i>see</i> Economy, national	
numbers licensed	19 footnote, 344, 352, 357	National Farmers' Union	253
research	319	National Federation of Community Associations	163
taxation	413	National Federation of Gramophone Societies	224
<i>See also</i> Road transport		National Federation of Music Societies	223
Murder, law relating to	88, 89	National Federation of Women's Institutes	20
Museum of English Rural Life	275	National Federation of Young Farmers' Clubs	168, 274
Museums	42, 45, 50, 60, 207, 212-3, 216, 275	National Film Archive	221
Commission on	210	National Film Finance Corporation ..	221, 421
Museums Association	213	National Film Theatre	221
Music	217, 223-5	National Food Survey	46
Mutual Defence Assistance Programme	448	National Forest Parks ..	179, 181-2, 183
Mutual Security Programme	106, 448		

N

NATO *see* North Atlantic Treaty Organisation

National Advisory Committee on the Employment of Older Men and Women

383

	<i>Page</i>		<i>Page</i>
National Gaelic Mod	224	National Research Development Corporation	196
National Gallery	212	National Road Transport Federation	354
National Gas Turbine Establishment	110, 204, 320	National Savings Certificates	417, 418
National Health Service	140-9	National Savings Committee	45, 418
administration	141-3	National Sea Training Schools	338, 341
charges	143	National Service <i>see under</i> Armed Forces	
finance	131, 143-4, 233, 414	National Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children	138
general practitioner services	144	National Society of Operative Printers and Assistants (NATSOPA)	473
hospital services	144	National theatre, scheme for	218
local health services	145-9	National Trust	183, 215
mental health services	141, 147-8	National Union of Journalists	472, 473
Northern Ireland	62, 149	National Union of Manufacturers	246, 251
Scotland	60, 143	National Union of Townswomen's Guilds	20
specialist services	144-5	National Whitley Council	66, 393
National Hospital Service Reserve	124	National Wool Textile Corporation	326
National income <i>see under</i> Income		National Youth Employment Council	385
National Industrial Development Council of Wales and Monmouthshire	242	National Youth Orchestra	224
National Industrial Fuel Efficiency Service	302	Nationalisation	243-4, 248-9
National Institute for Medical Research	199	air corporations	360, 361-3
National Institute for Research in Nuclear Science	202, 204	Bank of England	416
National Institute of Adult Education	163	cable and wireless services	373
National Institute of Oceanography	46, 204	coal industry	286-7
National Insurance	128-35	electricity supply	293-5
benefits	132-5, 375	gas supply	299
contributions	131-2, 233	inland transport	345-8
Ministry of Pensions and	55, 129, 138	Select Committee on the Nationalised Industries	248-9
reciprocal agreements	129-30	Nature Conservancy	40, 182, 200
supplementation by private firms	402	Nature Conservation, Committee for (Privy Council)	198, 200
National Insurance Fund	233, 405	Nature Reserves	182
National Joint Advisory Council (industry)	247, 392, 401	Navy <i>see</i> Merchant Navy and Royal Navy	
National Joint Council for Chief Officers of Local Authorities' Fire Brigades	101	Navy League	116
National Joint Council for Civil Air Transport	363	New Towns	178-80, 413
National Joint Council for Local Authorities' Fire Brigades	101	Newcastle	16, 158, 195, 330, 342, 469
National Maritime Board	338	News agencies	38, 471-2
National Marriage Guidance Council	128	Newspaper owners	467-9, 472
National Old People's Welfare Council	136	Newspaper Proprietors' Association	472
National Parks	179, 180-1	Newspaper Society	472
<i>See also</i> National Forest Parks		Newspapers	38, 466-70
National Parks Commission	180	Newsprint, supply of	333, 466
National Physical Laboratory	197, 308, 320	Nonconformists	187-9
National Playing Fields Association	169	North Atlantic Treaty Organisation	47, 104, 106, 107, 109, 111, 114, 117, 120, 121, 448
National Portrait Gallery	212	North of Scotland Hydro-Electric Board	294, 296, 297, 298
National product (gross)	106, 228, 230, 425	Northcliffe Newspapers Group Ltd.	468
National Production Advisory Council on Industry	247	Northern Ireland:	
National Register of Archives	217	agricultural research	204, 273
		Agricultural Loans Fund	271

	<i>Page</i>		<i>Page</i>
<i>Northern Ireland—contd.</i>		<i>Northern Ireland—contd.</i>	
agriculture	253, 254, 255, 261, 264, 265, 266, 269, 271, 272, 273, 274, 275, 380-1	orchestra 223
Agriculture, Ministry of	61, 260, 261, 264, 268, 271, 273	Parliament 22, 38, 61, 83, 242
airport 368	Parliamentary Draftsmen, Office of	61
area and counties	.. 1, fold-in map	police 96, 99-100
art gallery and museum 213	population 10, 12, 13, 15
banks 417	ports 275, 342, 343
broadcasting 457, 458, 460	Press 466, 470, 471, 472
censuses 13	prison system	.. 88, 89, 90, 91, 92
child care 137	probation 95
Churches 91, 186, 188, 189	production council 247
cinemas 220	railways 358
civil defence	.. 123, 124 footnote	Registrar-General 61
Commerce, Ministry of	61-2, 278, 358	relations with UK Government	.. 51
Council for the Encouragement of Music and the Arts	211, 219, 223	representation in UK Parliament	22, 38
courts of law 83, 84	research 204, 273
Development Council 242-3	roads 358
Education, Ministry of	152, 159, 162, 166	savings movement 418
electricity	.. 243 footnote, 295, 297	scholarships 153, 159, 162
employment	380-1, 383, 393, 396-7	schools	.. 152, 153, 154, 155, 157
examinations, school 155	teachers' training colleges 156
Exchequer and Audit Department	61	technical education 162-3
family allowances 130	theatres 218-9, 219
finance 73, 74-5, 415-6	town and country planning 183
Finance, Ministry of	8 footnote, 61, 215, 415, 418 footnote, 422 footnote	transport	.. 243 footnote, 357-8
fire services 102-3	university 158, 160, 274
fisheries 275, 276, 277	war pensioners 55
forest park 179, 183	water supply 304
forestry 284-5	welfare services	.. 136, 137, 149
gas supply 299, 300	Women's Rural Institutes 20
Government Departments	22, 61-2	working population 380
Health and Local Government, Ministry of	62, 183, 206, 215, 302	Young Farmers' Clubs 274
Health Services 149	young offenders, treatment of	93, 95
holidays, statutory 401	Youth Employment Service	.. 385
Home Affairs, Ministry of	61, 72, 90, 91, 93, 95, 96, 99, 100, 123, 124 footnote, 137	youth hostels 168
Hospitals Authority 149, 206	youth services 166
housing	.. 170, 171, 172, 174, 175-6	Northern Ireland Council of Social Service 127
industrial development	.. 242, 247	Northern Ireland Fire Authority	100, 102, 103
industries	.. 241, 311, 313, 327, 330	Northern Ireland Housing Trust	.. 171
Labour and National Insurance, Ministry of 62, 385, 393	Northern Ireland Joint Electricity Committee 295
language 16	Northern Ireland Road Fund	.. 358
legal aid 88	Northern Ireland Tourist Board	.. 433
local authorities	68, 69, 70, 71, 72, 73, 74-5, 136, 137, 149, 170	Northern Ireland Tuberculosis Authority 149
milk 265, 266, 267	Northern Theatre School 220
National Assistance 129, 136	Nottingham	.. 16, 158, 240, 313, 330
National Insurance 129	Nuclear energy:	
nuclear power station (proposed)	.. 297	expenditure on 210, 296
		for marine propulsion	111, 113, 201, 312, 315, 335-6
		power station plant 315
		power stations 296-7, 315
		research establishments 202-4
		responsibility for 56, 201

Page

Page

Nuclear energy— <i>contd.</i>	
weapons	106, 111-2 , 117, 120, 202
<i>See also</i> Atomic Energy Authority	
Nuclear Energy Trade Associations'	
Conference	315
Nuffield Foundation	136, 151, 192 , 195, 274
Nurseries	147
Nursing	144, 147, 150 , 379
Appointments Offices	381
Home	147
in Armed Forces	115, 119, 121
in Civil Defence	124
in industry	402
Nylon industry	327

O

OEEC <i>see</i> Organisation for European Economic Co-operation	
Odhams Press Ltd.	467, 468, 469
Offenders, treatment of	88-95
Office machinery industry	314 , 428, 448
Oil	227, 291-2 , 296, 335
prevention of sea pollution by	339
<i>See also</i> Petroleum	
Old age pensions <i>see under</i> Pensions	
Old Bailey	82
Old people:	
proportion in population	11-12
tax concessions for	411
welfare	136
in work	376, 383
<i>See also</i> Pensions	
Old Vic Theatre and School	218, 219, 220
Opera companies	224-5
Ophthalmic services	141, 143, 144
Opposition, parliamentary	31 , 32-3, 37
Opticians	144, 150
Orchestras	223, 224
Orders in Council, definition of	39
Ordnance factories	57, 62, 110, 244
Ordnance Survey Department	47 , 207
Organisation for European Economic Co-operation	47, 226, 431-2, 433, 434-5
Outward Bound Trust	168
Overseas Civil Service	48
Overseas Liaison Division of DSIR	208
Overseas Scientific Relations, Standing Committee on	198, 208
Oxford University	39, 158, 160, 274
dramatic society	220
Imperial Forestry Institute	284
library	216
museum	213
Press	218

P

PAYE (income tax scheme)	410
Paint industry	324
Paper and board industry	194, 333 , 429
Parish Councils and Meetings	68 , 70, 71
Parishes (Church of England)	185
Parliament	22, 23, 26, 27-38 , 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 52, 63, 76 footnote, 85
Committees	34-5 , 37, 185-6, 207, 248-9, 406, 407-8
control of:	
Armed Forces	104
finance	33, 34, 35-6, 45, 62, 405-8 , 416
Government in power	28, 33, 37-8 , 41, 44
local authorities	68
public corporations	243, 248-9
debates	31, 33-4 , 35-6, 38
delegated legislation	36-7
dissolution of	26, 28, 30
Ecclesiastical Committee	185-6
electoral system	30-1 , 31-2, 51
functions and powers	22, 23, 27-8, 33 , 34, 35-6, 37-8
'Hansard'	34, 38
legislation	27-8, 33, 34, 35-6 , 44
meeting of	28-9
Northern Ireland	38
party system	28, 31-3 , 71
privileges	31
procedure	33-8
questions to Ministers	37 , 41, 42, 44, 57
relations with Churches	185, 186, 187
relations with Monarchy	23, 26, 27 , 28, 31, 35, 405-6
relations with the public	38
secret sessions	31, 34
sessions	28-9 , 406
Speakers	28, 29 , 30 , 31, 32, 33-4 , 38, 186
structure	27, 29-30
Whips	30, 33 , 41, 45
Parliamentary Boundary Commissions	30
Parliamentary and Scientific Committee	207
Parliamentary Counsel, Office of	46
Parliamentary Secretaries	33, 41 , 44, 45, 59
Parochial Church Councils	186
Passports	50 , 54
Paymaster-General's Department	55
Peers	25, 26, 29 , 31, 52, 71
Penal system	88-95
Pensions:	
appeal tribunals	84
for Civil Servants	65, 66
Ministry of, and National Insurance	55 , 129, 138

	<i>Page</i>		<i>Page</i>
Pensions— <i>contd.</i>		Population— <i>contd.</i>	
old age	129, 135	mortality, causes of decline in ..	9-10
retirement	133-4	new towns	180
war	55, 129, 138	racial composition	7, 10-11
widows	133, 135, 138	regional distribution	12-16
Periodicals	466 footnote, 470-1	Royal Commission on	8 footnote
Personnel management	403-4	sex ratio	12
Personnel Management Advisory		social organisation	16-21
Service	251, 393, 404	urbanisation	14-16, 170, 176
Pesticides	324	working	11-12, 237, 376-7, 380
Petroleum	291-2	Port of London Authority	343
chemicals industry	323	Police	96
equipment industry	316	Port Health Authorities	140
exports and imports	291, 292, 427, 429	Ports	341-4
refining industry	292, 448	fishing	240, 275
tankers	335, 336, 344	Post Office 44, 55-6, 123, 244, 369-75, 413,	458, 465
Petty Sessional Courts <i>see</i> Magistrates'		Advisory Council	370
courts		agency services	375
Pharmaceuticals	324	Cable and Wireless Services	373-4
Pharmacists	143, 144, 150	finance	370, 458
Pig Industry Development Authority		mail services	364, 365, 370-2
.. .. .	264, 265	research	56, 206, 371, 464
Pilgrim Trust	182, 211	Research Station	371
Pilotage	339	Savings Bank	55, 417, 418
Planning, town and country	52, 170,	Postage rate (minimum)	371
.. .. .	176-83, 205, 241	Postmaster General 55, 56, 369-70, 456,	457, 458, 459, 460, 463, 464
Plastics	323, 429	Potato Marketing Scheme	265, 268
Playing fields, provision of	70, 169	Pottery industry	331
Poetry Book Society	218	Power, Ministry of 56, 205, 246, 287, 294,	299, 310
Poles, resettlement	135, 384	Prefabricated buildings industry	306-7
Police Cadets	98	Premium Savings Bonds	55, 418
Police Council for Great Britain	97, 98	Presbyterian Churches	187, 188, 191
Police Federation	98	Pre-Service organisations 116, 119, 122, 168	
Police Gazettes	99	Press	38, 466-73
Police service	70, 75, 76, 95-100, 125	Press Association Ltd.	471
Poliomyelitis vaccination	149	Preventive detention	88-9, 90, 92
Political party system	28, 31-3, 38, 62,	Price control	266-8
.. .. .	66-7, 71, 390, 457, 460	Prices	228, 234-5, 398
Political party youth groups	168	Prices, Productivity and Incomes,	
Political tendencies (newspapers)	467-8	Council on	235
Pollution, prevention of:		Prime Minister 26 footnote, 29, 31, 32-3,	39, 40, 41-2, 43, 45, 63, 66, 85, 104, 185,
air	285	198, 201	
rivers	305	Princess Mary's Royal Air Force	
sea (by oil)	339	Nursing Service	121
Poor's Roll	88	Principal Clerk of Session	86
Population	7-16	Printing and publishing industry	333-4
age groups	8-9, 11-12	Prison Commission	89, 90, 91, 92
birth rate	8-9, 11-12	Prison system	88, 89-92
censuses	7-8, 12-16, 378	Private International Law Committee	85
death rate	8-9, 11-12	Privy Council 25, 26, 27 footnote, 28,	39-40, 221
density	8, 226	Committees	39-40, 198
expectation of life	9	Counsellors	39, 43
fertility trends	10		
households	16-18		
increase in	7, 8, 12-13		
language	7, 16		
migration	7, 10-11, 384		

- | | <i>Page</i> | | <i>Page</i> |
|--|--------------------|--|--------------------|
| Privy Council— <i>contd.</i> | | Radio communications: | |
| Office | 40 | air | 369 |
| Probate, Divorce and Admiralty Division (High Court) | 79 | Army | 117 |
| Probation | 95 | Post Office | 373-5 |
| officers | 92, 95 | research | 206 |
| Procurator Fiscal | 83 | sea | 375 |
| Production and productivity <i>see under</i> | | <i>See also</i> Broadcasting | |
| Industry | | Radio telescope | 195, 209 |
| Production Departments | 246-7, 249 | Radioactive isotopes <i>see</i> Isotopes | |
| Professional and Executive Register | 381, 382 | Radioactive Substances Advisory Committee | 201 |
| Profits tax <i>see under</i> Taxation | | Radiochemical Centre | 202, 324 |
| Provincial Agricultural Economics Service | 273 | Railways 307, 344-5, 348-51 , 357, 358, 413 | |
| Provincial Newspapers Ltd. | 468 | vehicles industry | 320-1 |
| Psychiatric social workers | 145 | workers' earnings | 397 |
| Public Accounts, Select Committee on | 407-8 | Rainfall | 5, 305 |
| Public corporations 23, 243-4 , 248-9 , 393, 402 | | Ramblers' Association | 182 |
| <i>See also</i> Nationalisation and Finance | | Rank Organisation | 222, 465 |
| Public Health Laboratory Service | 151 | Rates | 74-5, 233, 405 |
| Public houses | 20 | water | 393 |
| Public libraries | 217 | Rationing (food), end of | 260 |
| Public Record Office Library | 217 | Raw materials: | |
| Public footpaths and rights of way | 179 | commodity markets | 440-1 |
| | 181, 182 | imports 227, 425, 429, 430, 435 , 448 | |
| Public schools | 153, 154-5 | re-exports | 433 |
| Public Trustee Office | 54-5 | Rayon industry | 326-7 |
| Public Works Loan Board 45, 75, 173, 412 | | Reactor Operation School (Calder Hall) 202 | |
| Publishers' Association | 218 | Reactor School (Harwell) | 202 |
| Publishing | 56-7, 217-8, 333-4 | Rearmament | 106, 112, 117, 227 |
| Puisse judges | 79 | Reconstruction, post-war | 178, 419 |
| Purchase tax <i>see under</i> Taxation | | Recorder (Quarter Sessions) | 81, 82, 85 |
| | | Recorder of London | 82 |
| | | Records, gramophone | 217, 224 |
| | | Recreations <i>see</i> Leisure activities | |
| | | Recruitment: | |
| | | to armed forces 108, 115, 118-9, 121 | |
| | | to Civil Service | 65 |
| | | Refineries <i>see</i> Petroleum, refining | |
| | | industry | |
| | | Refractories | 331 |
| | | Refrigeration machinery industry | 314 |
| | | Regent, appointment of | 26-7 |
| | | Regiments, Regular Army | 116-7 |
| | | Regional Boards for Industry 247, 248 | |
| | | Regional Hospital Boards 141, 142, 143 | |
| | | Regional Library Bureaux | 217 |
| | | Registrar-General of Shipping and Seamen | 339 |
| | | Registrar of Restrictive Trading | |
| | | Agreements | 249 |
| | | Registrar General | 51 |
| | | Regular Forces Resettlement Service 108, 382 | |
| | | Rehabilitation of disabled 145, 382, 386 | |
| | | Religion | 184-91 |
| | | freedom of | 184 |
| | | in broadcasting 457, 458, 459 , 460, 463 | |

Q

- Quakers *see* Friends, Society of
- Quarries *see* Mines and quarries
- Quarrying machinery industry
 314 || Quarter Sessions | 81, 82 |
| Queen *see* Monarchy | |
| Queen Alexandra's Royal Army Nursing Corps | 116-7, 119 |
| Queen Alexandra's Royal Naval Nursing Service | 115 |
| Queen's Bench Division (High Court) 76, **79**, 81, 82, 85 | |
| Queen's Counsel | 86 |
| Questions, parliamentary *see under* Parliament | |

R

- RAF *see* Royal Air Force
- Radar .. 110, 111, 113, **120**, 204, 317, 369

	<i>Page</i>	<i>Page</i>
Religion— <i>contd.</i>		
in prisons	91	
in schools	156-7	
<i>See also</i> Churches		
Religious Orders	144, 190	
Remand homes	93	
Remploy Ltd.	386	
Rent control	174-6	
Rent tribunals	84, 175	
Repertory theatre companies	219	
Research, scientific and industrial	39, 40,	
	56, 192-210	
agricultural 200, 204, 209, 263,	273-4,	
	323-4	
aircraft	112, 320, 361	
anti-locust	206	
associations	196, 199, 210, 290	
botanical	207	
broadcasting	206, 464	
building and civil engineering	205, 308	
chemistry	206, 323-4	
coal	205, 289, 290	
Colonial development	206	
defence 57, 110-2, 113, 197, 201, 202,	204, 210	
Department of 40, 56, 196, 197, 198-9,	201, 205, 207, 208, 217, 251, 284,	
	305, 308, 403, 404	
Development Fund, grants for 197, 205		
ecological	200	
electricity	298	
employment in	194, 209	
entomological	204	
Executive Council for	198	
expenditure on 195, 196, 209-10, 284		
fellowships	164, 195, 199, 200	
fire prevention	102, 199, 308	
fisheries	204-5, 278	
food	205	
forestry	205, 284	
fuel	205	
gas	205, 301	
Government responsibility for 40, 192,	196-8, 201	
grants for	195, 196	
in universities and technical colleges 160,	162, 194-5, 198, 210, 273, 284, 301,	
	308, 403	
industrial 195-6, 198-9, 210, 251, 404		
industrial health	289, 403	
land use and planning	205	
learned societies	192-4	
marine navigation	205	
medical 141, 150-1, 192, 197, 199-200,	206, 209	
meteorological	47, 196, 204	
mines, safety in	56, 205, 289	
Research, scientific and industrial— <i>contd.</i>		
National Research Development		
Corporation	196	
naval	110-1, 112, 113, 204, 205	
nuclear 111-2, 113, 201-4, 210, 315, 335-6		
nutrition	205, 206	
overseas liaison 111, 193, 194, 204, 206,	207-9, 284	
petroleum technology	292	
plant pathology	204, 272	
postal, radio and telecommunica-		
tions	206, 371	
Privy Council Committees for 39-40,	198, 199, 200	
radio telescope	195, 209	
roads	205, 308	
veterinary	200, 204, 264, 273	
water supplies	305	
<i>See also</i> individual manufacturing		
industries		
Retail trade 277, 288, 379, 394, 451-5		
Retirement pensions	133-4	
Reuters Ltd.	471	
Revenue	233, 406, 409-14, 415	
River Boards	304-5	
River pollution, prevention of	305	
Road Research Laboratory	308	
Road transport	344-5, 346, 352-4	
Roads	205, 344, 351-2, 358	
Roman Catholic Church	30, 91, 184,	
	189-90, 191	
schools	93, 157, 190	
Royal Academy	213	
Royal Academy of Dramatic Art	220	
Royal Academy of Music	217, 224	
Royal Air Force 47, 104, 108, 109, 110,	119-22, 125	
Reserve	122	
Royal Aircraft Establishment (Farn-		
borough)	110, 204, 320	
Royal Albert Hall	223	
Royal Auxiliary Air Force	122	
Royal Ballet and School	225	
Royal Botanic Gardens (Kew) 47, 207		
Royal College of Art	214	
Royal College of Music	217, 224	
Royal Commissions:		
appointment and functions of	42-3	
on Ancient and Historical Monu-		
ments	215	
on Local Government (Greater		
London)	69	
on Mental Health	141 footnote	
on Population	8	
on the Press	466, 468	
Royal Family:		
ceremonial	27	

	<i>Page</i>
Royal Family— <i>contd.</i>	
financial provision for	406
genealogical tree	24
order of succession	24, 25
Royal Festival Hall	223
Royal Fine Art Commission	210, 215
Royal Fleet Auxiliary Service	113
Royal Household, political officers	33
Royal Institute of British Architects (RIBA)	215, 216
Royal Institution	193-4
Royal Marines	114
Police	96
Royal Mint	45, 416
Royal National Lifeboat Institution	339-40
Royal Naval Minewatching Service	116
Royal Naval Scientific Service	204
Royal Navy 46, 104, 108, 109, 110, 111,	112-6, 204
Reserves	109, 113, 115-6
Royal Observatory	1, 46, 196, 204
Royal Observer Corps	122
Royal Opera House, Covent Garden	224
Royal Ordnance Factories 57, 62, 110, 244	
Royal Prerogatives <i>see under</i> Monarchy	
Royal Proclamations <i>see under</i> Monarchy	
Royal Radar Establishment	110, 204
Royal Society	193, 197, 199, 200, 209
Royal Society for the Prevention of Accidents	354-5, 401
Royal Society of Arts	193, 214
Royal Society of Edinburgh	218
Royal Society of Literature	218
Royal title <i>see under</i> Monarchy	
Royal Ulster Constabulary	99-100
Rubber industry	330, 334
Rule Committees	85
Rural Community Councils	274
Rural District Councils	68, 72, 74
<i>See also</i> County District Councils	
Rural Industries Bureau	274, 284
Rural Industries Loan Fund	274
Rural Music Schools Association	224

S

Sadler's Wells Ballet and School <i>see</i> Royal Ballet and School	
Sadler's Wells Theatre	225
Safety measures:	
agriculture	395-6
air	121, 361, 368-9, 396
industry 294, 295, 386-7, 393-7, 401-2	
mines	56, 205, 289, 395, 401
railways	396
roads	70, 353, 354-5, 396
sea	121, 278, 337, 339-40, 375, 396

	<i>Page</i>
St. Andrew's Ambulance Association	128, 147
St. John Ambulance Brigade	128, 147, 168
Salaries	398-400
Salvation Army	128, 187, 189
Sanitation	70, 139, 305, 394, 395
Savings	231, 232-3
Defence Bonds	418
National Savings Certificates	417, 418
Post Office Savings Bank	55, 371, 417, 418
Premium Savings Bonds	55, 418
Trustee Savings Banks	417, 418
<i>See also</i> Investment, trusts	
Scholarships	153, 159, 163, 164, 199
School Health Service	157
School Meals Service	157
Schools	152-8
approved	93-4
architecture	216
art	214, 216
ballet	225
broadcasting to 156, 457, 458, 460, 463	
building of	157-8, 180
Church	157, 186, 190
drama	220
examinations	154, 155, 224
fees	153
free transport to	157
health and welfare in	157, 158
Inspectorate	49, 152
leaving age	152, 154, 155, 377
meals in	157
numbers attending	152
religious teaching in	156-7
scholarships	153
teachers	155-6, 379, 400
types of	152-5, 156-7, 190
visual aids in	156
Science:	
international collaboration	194, 206, 207-9
promotion of	192-210
university expansion for	160, 194-5
Scientific and Industrial Research:	
Department of <i>see under</i> Research	
Executive Council for	198-9
Scientific instruments industry	316
Scientific Library and Technical Information Committee	198
Scientific Manpower, Committee on	194, 198
Scientific museums	50, 207, 216
Scientific Policy, Advisory Council on	197-8, 208, 209
Scientists:	
employment of	194, 209

	<i>Page</i>		<i>Page</i>
Scientists— <i>contd.</i>		Scotland— <i>contd.</i>	
from overseas	207-9	hospitals, number of	144
training of	159, 160-2, 192, 194, 195	housing	170, 171, 172, 174, 175, 180
Scilly, Isles of	1, 68 footnote, 256	Industrial Design, Scottish Com- mittee 214
Scotland:		industry	238, 241, 242, 310, 311, 313, 314, 326, 327, 329, 330, 331
Advisory Committee on Medical Research 206	judges, appointment of 85-6
After-care Council (prisoners)	92	language	7, 16
agricultural research	60, 200, 204, 273	law	75-6, 77, 78, 93
Agricultural Wages Board	391	Law Officers	41, 61, 86
agriculture	253, 254, 255, 257, 260, 261-2, 262-3, 263-4, 266, 267, 269-70, 271, 272, 273, 274, 275	Law Society 87
airports	367, 368	legal aid	87, 88
ambulance service	124, 147	libraries 216
Ancient Monuments Board	215	local government	68, 69, 70, 71, 74, 75, 410
architects 215	Lord Advocate	41, 61, 86
area and counties	1, 261, fold-in map	Lord Justice Clerk	80, 82, 85
art galleries and museums	60, 213	Lord President of the Court of Session	80, 82, 85
banks	417, 421	Lords Commissioner of Justiciary	82
borstals	95	medical research	151, 206
broadcasting	457, 458, 459, 460, 462, 463	Minister of State for	41, 59
canals	355, 356	National Forest Parks	179, 181
censuses	8, 13, 15	National Gaelic Mod 224
Church of (Presbyterian)	91, 128, 137, 187, 191	National Parks (proposed)	179, 181
civil defence	123, 124, 125	National Savings, Scottish Com- mittee 418
coalfields	238, 241	National Trust for	183, 215
Convenors	69	National Youth Employment Coun- cil, Advisory Committee for	385
Council on Tribunals, Scottish Committee 84	Nature Reserves 182
courts of law	80, 82-3, 84, 86, 87	new towns	178, 179, 180
crofts	261-2, 270	nuclear energy establishments	202, 203, 206, 297
Crown Office	61	orchestras 223
Department of Agriculture for	60, 204, 262, 270, 272, 273, 283	Peers 29
Department of Health for	60, 123, 206, 278	police	95, 96, 97, 98, 99
Department of the Lord Advocate	61	population	7, 10, 12, 13, 14, 15
Department of the Registrar- General for 60	ports	275, 342, 343
Development Area	242	Press	466, 469-70, 471, 472
Discharged Prisoners' Aid Society	92	prison system	90, 91, 92
Edinburgh Festival 224	probation 95
elections	71, 72	Procurator Fiscal 83
electricity	293, 294-5, 296, 297-8	Provosts and Lord Provosts	69
Episcopal Church	186, 191	rates 74
fire service	70, 100, 101, 102	research institutes	200, 204, 205, 273, 323-4
fisheries	204, 275, 276, 277	Registers of Scotland, Department of	61
forestry	279, 281, 282, 283, 284	Roman Catholic Church in	189
General Registry Office (Depart- ment of the Registrar-General)	60	Royal Commission on Ancient and Historical Monuments 215
Government Departments	59-61	Royal Fine Art Commission	210, 215
health services	60, 139, 143	Royal Scottish Academy (music) 224
Historic Buildings Council 215	Royal Scottish Forestry Society 283
holidays, statutory 401	Royal Scottish Museum	60, 213
		scholarships 159

	<i>Page</i>	<i>Page</i>
Scotland— <i>contd.</i>		
schools	152, 153, 154, 155, 157	
Secretary of State for	22, 40, 41, 54, 59, 60, 72, 74, 75, 84, 86, 89, 90, 92, 93, 95, 96-7, 100-1, 102, 123, 154, 170, 199, 200, 260, 262, 278, 281, 294, 295, 302	
Sheriffdoms	80	
shipbuilding areas	241, 311	
Solicitor-General	41, 54, 86	
State Management Districts	59	
teachers' training colleges	156	
technical education	160, 162	
theatres	218-9	
town and country planning	170, 176, 177, 178, 179, 180, 181, 182	
Transport Users' Consultative Committee	347	
universities	39, 99, 158, 160, 274	
war pensioners	60	
water supply	304	
Young Farmers' Clubs	274	
young offenders, treatment of	93, 95	
youth hostels	168	
youth services	165	
Scotland Yard	99	
Scottish Agricultural Improvement Council	272	
Scottish Agricultural Securities Corporation Ltd.	271, 421	
Scottish Board for Industry	248	
Scottish Community Drama Association	220	
Scottish Council (Development and Industry)	242	
Scottish Council of Physical Recreation	169	
Scottish Council of Social Service	127	
Scottish Country Industries Development Trust	274	
Scottish Education Department	60, 152, 156, 158, 220, 384	
Scottish Fire Service Training School	102	
Scottish Gas Board	301	
Scottish Grand Committee (parliamentary)	34	
Scottish Health Services Council	143	
Scottish Home Department	59-60, 68, 90, 102, 123, 204, 278	
Scottish Industrial Estates	241	
Scottish Information Office	61	
Scottish Institute of Adult Education	163	
Scottish Land Court	80, 263	
Scottish Leaving Certificate	155	
Scottish Office	59	
Scottish Old People's Welfare Committee	136	
Scottish Omnibus Group	346	
Scottish Police Federation	98	
Scottish Record Office	60	
Scottish Special Housing Association	171	
Scottish Standing Committee (parliamentary)	34	
Scottish Tourist Board	433	
Scottish Trades Union Congress	390	
Scottish Valuation Advisory Council	74	
Scottish Women's Rural Institutes	20	
Scouts and Guides	165, 167	
Sea Cadet Corps	116, 168	
Sea pollution, prevention of	339	
Seamen:		
conditions of employment	338, 339, 341, 396	
organisations	338	
training	338, 340-1	
Search and Rescue Organisation	121	
Secretaries of State	40	
Select Committee on Estimates	408	
Select Committee on Nationalised Industries	248-9	
Select Committee on Public Accounts	407-8	
Select Committee on Statutory Instruments	37	
Selection, Committee of (parliamentary)	34	
Services' Land Requirements, Inter-departmental Committee on	170	
Sewerage	52, 70, 139, 305	
Shakespeare Memorial Theatre Company	218, 219	
Sheffield:		
industries	240, 310, 321	
newspaper	469	
population	16	
University	158, 194, 195, 332	
Sheriff Courts	80, 82, 87	
Shipbuilding industry	46, 240, 241, 250, 311-2, 336, 420	
Ship Mortgage Finance Company Ltd.	420	
Shipowners	337, 338	
Shipping	335-44	
coastal	337, 342, 345, 347	
conferences	338	
cross-channel services	343, 349	
insurance	337, 423, 424	
medical advice, service for	375	
merchant fleet, composition	335-7	
organisations	337-9	
ports	341-4	
radio communications	375	
relations with Government	339-40	
safety	337, 339-40, 375, 396	
tankers	291, 301, 335, 336, 337, 344	
tonnage	335-7	
weather reports for	375	

	<i>Page</i>	<i>Page</i>
Shipping— <i>contd.</i>		
<i>See also</i> Docks and Shipbuilding industry		
Shipping Federation	338	
Shirley Institute	325	
Shop stewards	389	
Shops	180, 394, 451-3	
Sickness benefit	132	
Silicones	323	
Silk industry	328	
Silo grants	270	
Silver ware	332	
Slade School of Fine Arts	214	
Slum clearance	172-3	
Smallholdings	256-7	
<i>See also</i> Scotland, crofts		
Smallpox vaccination	148, 149	
Smoke control	285	
Social services	127-69	
expenditure on	127, 414	
reciprocal agreements with other countries	129-30	
training of social workers	128	
voluntary organisations	127-8, 136, 137, 138, 139, 147, 148, 149-50, 152, 163, 165, 166, 167-9	
Society for Education through Art	214	
Society for the Protection of Ancient Buildings	182, 215	
Society for Theatre Research	219	
Society of Authors	218	
Society of British Aircraft Constructors	320	
Society of Industrial Artists	214	
Society of Motor Manufacturers and Traders Ltd.	319	
Society of St. Vincent de Paul	128	
Solicitor-General	41, 54, 86	
Solicitors	83, 86, 87	
Sondes Place Research Institute	196	
South of Scotland Electricity Board	293, 294, 295, 297-8	
Southampton	158, 178, 194, 213, 292, 296, 311, 342, 343	
Sovereign <i>see</i> Monarchy		
Speaker:		
House of Commons	28, 30, 31, 33-4, 38, 186	
House of Lords	28, 29, 31, 33	
Special Constabulary	97, 125	
Speech from the Throne	26, 406	
Sport	19, 169, 460	
Staff colleges (Armed Forces)	105, 110	
Stamp duty <i>see under</i> Taxation		
Standing Commission on Museums and Galleries	210	
Standing Conference of Drama Associations	220	
Standing Conference of Music Committees	224	
Standing Conference of National Voluntary Youth Organisations	166	
State Management Schemes	52, 59	
Stationery Office	45, 56-7, 217, 244	
Statutory Instruments <i>see</i> Delegated legislation		
Steel <i>see</i> Iron and steel industry		
Steelworks plant industry	315-6	
Sterling area	226, 436, 441-2, 445-6, 447	
United Kingdom trade with	431-2, 434, 436, 441-2, 445	
Stock Exchanges	421	
Stoke-on-Trent	16, 240, 331	
Street traders	451	
Strikes and lock-outs	387, 392	
Students:		
from overseas	48, 50, 163-4, 209	
technical college	161, 162	
university	159, 160	
Subsidies:		
agricultural and food	266-70, 414	
fishing industry	278, 279	
housing	173-4	
Sugar Board	47	
Sunshine, hours of	5	
Supply, Committee of	34, 37, 406	
Supply, Ministry of	57, 105, 107, 110-1, 201, 204, 205, 246, 320, 361	
Supply Services	406, 415	
Supreme Court of Judicature	79, 85	
Surface Water Survey Centre	305	
Surtax <i>see under</i> Taxation		
Swansea, port of	342, 343, 344	
T		
Tanker terminals	344	
Tankers <i>see under</i> Shipping		
Tanning	332-3	
Tariff policy	412, 433-5	
Tate Gallery	212	
Taxation	49, 53, 74, 233, 234, 405, 408-14, 415	
Customs and Excise duties	49, 408, 409, 411-2, 415, 434	
entertainments duty (cinemas)	221, 412, 415	
estate duty	53, 410-1, 414, 421	
for non-residents	410	
income tax	53, 234, 408, 409, 410, 411, 415, 417	
of companies	410	
profits tax	53, 409, 410, 415	
purchase tax	409, 411, 412, 414, 415	
stamp duty	53, 410, 417	

	<i>Page</i>		<i>Page</i>
Taxation— <i>contd.</i>		Trade— <i>contd.</i>	
surtax .. 53, 409, 410 , 411, 415		balance of payments .. 228, 442-50	
Taxicabs (London) 357		composition 427-30	
Teachers <i>see under</i> Schools		distribution 431-2	
Technical and Scientific Register .. 381		financing of 440-2	
Technical Staff College 383		Government assistance to .. 410, 433-5, 437-40 , 450	
Technical education <i>see under</i> Education		overseas investment .. 227, 228, 231, 236 , 420, 425, 440, 449-50	
Technology, Colleges of Advanced .. 162, 195		return to private trading .. 435	
Telecommunications, overseas .. 373-5		tariff policy 412, 433-5	
Telegraph system .. 206, 372 , 373, 374		value and volume 426-30	
Telephones 206, 372-3 , 374		<i>See also</i> Exports and Imports	
Teleprinter system 372, 374		internal .. 264-6, 277, 283-4, 288, 378, 379, 450-5	
Television .. 19, 456-7, 458-9, 462-3 , 464, 465		retail 277, 288, 379, 451-5	
advertising on 458-9, 463		wholesale .. 277, 288, 451 , 454 footnote	
licences 19, 456 , 457		Trade Commissioners 438	
Television Advisory Committee .. 464		Trade fairs 246, 439-40	
Telex Service 372, 374		Trade unions .. 98, 247, 387, 388-90 , 393	
Temperature 5		civil aviation 363	
Territorial Army 119		Civil Service 66, 393	
Textile industries .. 194, 325-8 , 378, 381, 427, 428, 429		local government service .. 73, 393	
cotton 245, 325-6		miners 289	
jute 327-8 , 435		musicians 224	
linen 327		Press 472	
machinery industry .. 313-4		seamen 338	
man-made fibres 326-7		stage 219	
silk 328		Trades councils 390	
woollen 194, 240, 245, 326		Trades Union Congress .. 248, 250, 389-90 , 391	
Thames Conservancy Board .. 303, 304		Traffic:	
Theatres 20, 218-9		air 359, 364, 365, 367, 368	
Thomson-Leng publishing group .. 469, 471		air control 368-9	
Tilling (bus) Group 346		canals 345, 356	
Timber .. 279, 280-1, 283-4, 285, 430		coastal 345	
Tobacco:		London 18, 344, 357	
consumer expenditure on 234		ports 342, 343	
industry 328, 330		Post Office 371 , 372, 373, 374	
revenue duty 412, 414		rail and road .. 19 footnote, 344-5 , 348, 354, 357, 358	
Toilet preparations industry .. 324		Traffic Commissioners 353	
Tomato and Cucumber Marketing Board 265		Training schemes for industry .. 161-3, 382-3, 386, 403-4	
Tourist trade 433		Transatlantic telephone cables .. 374	
Tourists' currency allowances .. 436		Transport 335-69	
Town Commissioners 68		air 358-69	
Town Councils .. 68, 70, 71, 74, 96, 100		consultative committees .. 347-8	
Town and country planning .. 52, 70, 170, 176-83 , 205, 241		free for patients 147	
Townswomen's Guilds 20		free for school children .. 157	
Toy industry 332		inland water 345, 355-6	
Tractors 258, 312		London 18, 356-7	
Trade 235-6, 425-55		Ministry of, and Civil Aviation .. 57-8 , 102, 205, 246, 278, 339, 340, 341, 346, 360-1, 362, 368	
Board of .. 41, 57, 196, 221-2, 241-2, 246, 247, 249, 251, 435, 436, 437, 438		nationalisation, legislation .. 345-6	
President of 57, 222, 433		Northern Ireland 357-8	
external .. 226-7, 228, 235-6 , 288, 425-50			

	<i>Page</i>	<i>Page</i>
Transport— <i>contd.</i>		
rail	344, 345, 348-51 , 357	
research	205, 308	
road	344, 345, 346, 352-5 , 358	
sea	335-44 , 349	
Tribunal	347	
Users' Consultative Committees	347-8	
<i>See also</i> British Transport Commission, Traffic and Safety		
Travel allowance	436	
Treasure trove	78, 83	
Treasury 45-6 , 53, 57, 63-4, 66, 241, 247, 248, 406-7 , 408, 415, 416, 419 421-2, 436, 450		
bills	415, 419	
Solicitor's Department	45	
Treaties, international	26, 33 , 50	
Tribunals:		
administrative	54, 84	
agricultural land	262, 263	
Civil Service Arbitration	393	
Council on	54, 84	
industrial disputes	391	
lands	74, 84	
pensions appeal	84, 129	
rent	84, 175	
transport	347	
Trinity House, Corporation of	340	
Trustee Savings Banks	417, 418	
Tuberculosis:		
bovine	264, 269	
mortality rate	10	
prevention and treatment of	148, 149	
Tyneside	15, 237, 241 , 311, 342	
<i>See also</i> Newcastle		
U		
UKAEA <i>see</i> Atomic Energy Authority		
Ulster Drama League	220	
Ulster Group Theatre	219	
Ulster Savings	61, 418 footnote	
Ulster Special Constabulary	100	
Ulster Transport Authority	357-8	
Unemployment 227, 230, 241, 377, 379-80 , 381		
Unemployment benefit	132	
Unit trusts	422	
Unitarian and Free Christian Churches	189	
United Kingdom:		
area and composition	1, 22, 226	
demography	7-21	
physical	1-6	
population	7-16, 226	
United Nations Organisation:		
relations with	47, 50, 89, 208	
Technical Assistance	449	
United States:		
aid from 106, 111, 112, 113, 228, 236, 251, 446, 447-9		
Export-Import Bank	236, 446	
private investment in UK	448-9	
trade with 251, 318, 319, 320, 321, 323, 325, 326, 329, 330, 331, 333, 431-2 , 437, 448		
Universities	158-60	
agricultural degree courses	274	
departments of education	156	
drama	220	
extra-mural extension courses	163, 217	
finance	158	
forestry courses	284	
museums and libraries 213, 216, 275		
Presses	218	
Privy Council committees for	39	
research 160, 194-5 , 198, 210, 273, 284, 301, 308, 403		
scholarships and research fellowships	159, 164, 195, 200	
students	159, 160, 163-4	
technological education in 159, 160, 194		
University Grants Committee	158, 195	
Urban District Councils	68	
<i>See also</i> County District Councils		
Utilisation of Home Grown Timber, Advisory Committee on	283-4	
V		
VHF (broadcasting)	369, 460, 464	
Vaccination	148-9	
Valuation (for rates)	74	
Vegetables, production and marketing	256, 257, 265, 266, 451	
Vehicles industry 231, 245, 250, 309, 318-21 , 425, 428		
Veterinary Service and research 200, 204, 272-3		
Victoria and Albert Museum 50, 212 , 213, 217		
Visitors, Boards and Committees of (prisons)	89, 90, 91-2	
Vital statistics	8-10, 11-12	
Vocational guidance	385, 386	
Vocational training	382, 386	
Voluntary organisations:		
cultural and sporting 19, 20, 21, 211, 213, 215-6, 218, 219-20, 221, 222, 223, 224, 225		
for child care	137, 138, 147, 149	
for prisoners	92	
for sick, handicapped and aged 127-8, 136 , 139, 147, 148, 149-50 , 386		
in civil defence	123	

- | | <i>Page</i> | | <i>Page</i> |
|--|-------------------------|---|---------------------------------------|
| Voluntary organisations— <i>contd.</i> | | War pensioners | 51, 55, 60, 129, 138-9 |
| in education | 152, 163 | Warburg Institute | 214 |
| in industry | 245-6, 387-90, 401, 404 | Watch Committee (police) | 70, 96 |
| in youth services | 165, 166-9 | Water Pollution Research Board | 305 |
| Voting: | | Water Pollution Research Laboratory | 305 ,
308 |
| in House of Commons | 34 | Water power | 294, 296 |
| in local government elections | 71-2 | Water supply | 269, 302-5 |
| in parliamentary elections | 30-1 , 31-2, 72 | Waterways | 355-6 |
| | | Committee of Inquiry | 356 |
| | | Ways and Means, Committee of | 34 |
| | | Weather | 4-5, 253 |
| | | bulletins for ships | 375 |
| | | forecast services | 47, 373 |
| | | Welfare: | |
| | | blind | 127, 136, 217, 386 |
| | | centres | 146 |
| | | in civil defence | 124 |
| | | industrial | 289, 294, 393-7 , 402-3 |
| | | maternity and child | 136-8, 146-7 |
| | | Merchant Navy | 341 |
| | | old people | 136 |
| | | overseas students | 164-5 |
| | | prisoners and probationers | 91-2, 95 |
| | | school children | 157 |
| | | sick and handicapped | 149-50 |
| | | war pensioners | 55, 129, 138-9 |
| | | young offenders | 94 |
| | | <i>See also</i> National Assistance and
National Insurance | |
| | | Welfare Foods Service | 146 |
| | | Wellcome Foundation and Trust | 192 |
| | | Welsh Agricultural Land Sub-
Commission | 262 |
| | | Welsh Board for Industry | 248 |
| | | Welsh Board of Health | 51 |
| | | Welsh Department of Ministry of
Education | 49 |
| | | Welsh Folk Museum | 213 |
| | | Welsh Land Settlement Society | 257 |
| | | Welsh League of Youth | 167 |
| | | Welsh National Opera Company | 225 |
| | | Welsh Tourist Board | 433 |
| | | Wesleyan Reform Union | 188 |
| | | Western European Union | 104, 113 |
| | | Westminster Press Group | 468 |
| | | Whaling | 279 |
| | | Whips, parliamentary | 30, 33 , 41, 45 |
| | | Whisky industry | 329 , 429 |
| | | White Fish Authority | 278-9 |
| | | White Fish Industry Advisory Council | 278 |
| | | Whitechapel Art Gallery | 214 |
| | | Whitley Councils | 66, 73, 393 |
| | | Wholesale trade | 277, 288, 451 , 454 footnote |
| | | Widow's benefit | 133 |
| | | Widow's pensions | 133, 135, 138 |
| | | Wigmore Hall | 223 |

W

Wages:

- manual workers (average) .. 397-8
 negotiations .. 245, 338, 387-8, **390**

Wages Boards and Councils .. 391

Wales:

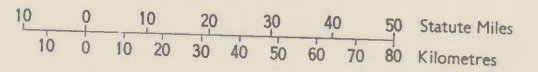
- agriculture **253**, 255, 257, **262**, 274, 275
 Ancient Monuments Board .. 215
 area and counties .. 1, fold-in map
 broadcasting .. 457, 458, **460**, 462
 Church in (Anglican) .. 186
 Church of (Presbyterian) .. 188
 Civil Defence, Director of .. 123
 Eisteddfods .. 218, 224
 forestry .. 279, 282, 283, 284
 gas .. 301
 Historic Buildings Council .. 215
 holidays, statutory .. 401
 industries 239, **240**, 241, 242, 248, 292,
 310, 321, 327, 331
 language .. 7, 16
 Local Government Commission .. 69
 Ministers for Welsh Affairs 22, 40, 41,
 44, 52
 National Forest Park .. 179, 181
 National Industrial Development
 Council .. 242
 National Library .. 216
 National Museum .. 213
 National Parks .. 179, 180, 181
 National Youth Employment Council,
 Advisory Committee for .. 385
 nuclear power station .. 297
 population .. 12, 13, 14, **15**
 ports and tanker terminals 275, 342, 344
 Press .. 470, 471
 Royal Commission on Ancient and
 Historical Monuments .. 215
 Transport Users' Consultative
 Committee .. 347
 University of .. 158, 274
 Wallace Collection .. 212
 War-damaged cities, reconstruction .. 178
 War Department Constabulary .. 96
 War, economic effects of .. 227
 War, Secretary of State for 40, 58, **105**, 116
 War Office .. **58**, 96, 102, 107, 116, 118

	<i>Page</i>		<i>Page</i>
Winds	4	Work, hours of— <i>contd.</i>	
Wire broadcasting	463	in Civil Service	66
Women:		lost by strikes	392
earnings	397, 398, 400	Work, travel to	18
employment	62, 90, 96, 97, 98, 100, 101, 102, 305, 376-80, 395, 400	Workers' Educational Association ..	163
<i>see also</i> individual industries		Working conditions	393-404
hours of work	395, 400	Working Men's Club and Institute Union	20
housewives	18-19, 376	Works Councils	390, 392-3
in Armed Forces	107, 108 , 115, 116, 116-7, 119, 121, 122, 377	Works, Ministry of	58-9, 182, 205, 215, 224 footnote, 246, 307
in civil defence	123, 124	World Assembly of Youth	166
in Civil Service	62, 400	World Council of Churches	191
in fire services	101, 102		
in Free Church Ministry	188	Y	
periodicals for	471	York:	
police	96, 97, 98, 100	Archbishop of	29, 42, 83, 185
prison officers	90	Festival	224
proportion in population	12	industry	240
Women's Advisory Council on Solid Fuel	302	museum	213
Women's Group on Public Welfare ..	128	Young Farmers' Clubs	168, 274
Women's Institutes	20	Young Men's Christian Association (YMCA)	165
Women's Junior Air Corps	167	Young offenders	81, 88, 89, 93-5
Women's Royal Air Force	121	Young Women's Christian Association (YWCA)	165
Women's Royal Army Corps	116-7, 119	Youth:	
Women's Royal Naval Service	115	centres	165
Women's Royal Naval Volunteer Reserve	115	Employment Service	384-5
Women's Rural Institutes	20	National Youth Orchestra	224
Women's Voluntary Services	123, 128 , 147, 150	organisations	116, 119, 122, 165-8 , 274
Woodlands	5-6, 279-80 , 281, 282-3 , 284-5	services	165-9
Wool Industries Research Association	326	<i>See also</i> Children, Employment and Leisure activities	
Wool industry	240, 245, 326	Youth Hostels Associations	168
Wool Marketing Board, British	265, 268		
Work, hours of:		Z	
average	400	Zebra crossings	354
for children and women	394, 395, 396, 400	Zeta	202
for prisoners and young offenders	91, 94		

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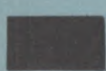


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