



BRITAIN

AN OFFICIAL HANDBOOK

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BRITAIN

An Official Handbook

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An Official Handbook



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Introductory Note

AN OFFICIAL HANDBOOK on these lines appeared first in 1946 as part of the British Information Services overseas. Experience had shown that there was in existence no one book prepared primarily for the oversea reader and designed to answer the questions about Britain which are most frequently asked in oversea countries by their writers and teachers, their officials and administrators, and the leaders of their public life. In meeting this need, the book, which has a free distribution overseas, has proved valuable; four revised or rewritten editions have been issued; and in 1952, for the first time, it was placed on sale in the United States and Canada. The book is now established as a main foundation of the reference and library services provided by the official British Information Services in oversea countries.

Though it is thus well known in the circles for which it was intended, the handbook has not before been available in the United Kingdom, or on sale overseas except in North America. Suggestions have from time to time been made that it should be placed on general sale, and it was finally decided to do this after a recommendation by the Inter-Departmental Committee on Social and Economic Research.

The handbook contains factual and statistical information, compiled from authoritative and official sources, about the United Kingdom, its people and its institutions. It does not claim to be comprehensive. Its principal purpose is to provide basic data on the main aspects of national administration and national economy and to give an account of the part played by the Government in the life of the community.

In considering its contents, readers in the United Kingdom are asked to remember the original purpose of the book—its oversea distribution. Should any readers need additional or more detailed information they are referred to the Annual Abstract of Statistics, the Monthly Digest of Statistics issued by the Central Statistical Office, and the standard works of reference and Government publications, some of which are listed in the bibliography at the end of this handbook. They are asked to note that the Central Office of Information reference papers included in the bibliography are available only at United Kingdom Information Offices overseas and for visitors to Britain.

In general, the contents of the handbook refer to the United Kingdom as a whole, but where separate facts or figures are available for England and Wales, Scotland, and Northern Ireland, these have, in some cases, been given.

REFERENCE DIVISION,
CENTRAL OFFICE OF INFORMATION, LONDON.

October 1953

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 (approximately 315,000 sq. km.). The two 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, 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 (including the county of Monmouth on the Welsh border), with a total area including inland water of 32,558,774 acres (approximately 13,176,000 hectares), is divided into 41 geographical or 50 'civil' counties; Wales, with 4,780,533 acres (approximately 1,935,000 hectares), into 12 counties. Scotland, including its 186 inhabited islands, has a total area of 19,463,016 acres (approximately 7,876,000 hectares), and is divided into 33 counties.

Care must always 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), or to Great Britain which comprises England, Wales and Scotland. The position is further complicated by the fact that the county of Monmouth is sometimes included with Wales. The 'United Kingdom'—formerly the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, now the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland—is Great Britain with the addition of the six counties of Northern Ireland, 3,488,643 acres (approximately 1,412,000 hectares). Statistics and other data sometimes include but sometimes exclude the Isle of Man, 141,263 acres (approximately 57,000 hectares), and the Channel Islands, off the coast of France, 48,083 acres (approximately 19,000 hectares), which are strictly not part of the United Kingdom. Since southern Ireland became a separate country and independent republic there are now no statistics referring 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. In general terms the British Isles lie mainly within the rectangle 50–60 degrees North and 0–10 degrees West. It is thus rather under 600 miles (966 km.) 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 or 300 feet (91 metres)—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 Gulf Stream, 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 over it is magnified. The effect of tidal movement is also increased by the shallowness of the water.

Despite their small area, the British Isles include rocks representing all the major geological periods. It is largely because of their long and complicated geological history that the British Isles have a range of scenery almost unrivalled in any area of comparable size anywhere in the world.

In the main island of Great Britain the hilly and mountainous areas lie to the north and west, so that it is possible to draw a broad distinction between Highland Britain and Lowland Britain. An irregular line joining the mouth of the Tyne in the north-east with the mouth of the Exe in the south-west marks the division between these two contrasted parts of Britain.

Highland Britain thus includes the whole of Scotland; the broad upland running from north to south through the north of England and known as the Pennines; the well-known Lake District in the north-west of England; practically the whole of Wales; and the south-western peninsula coinciding approximately with the counties of Devon and Cornwall. Highland Britain is built up almost entirely of rocks older in age than the Coal Measures and there are large tracts of the surface lying more than 1,000 feet above sea level. Many parts of the surface 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 and the mountains of Wales as well as on the higher ground in the south-west. The farmer has been able to use only the valley lands and the plains where soils are deeper and richer, so that human settlements are sometimes widely scattered, and villages and towns may be separated by considerable stretches with few if any habitations.

Lowland Britain, comprising south-east England and the Midlands, is built up almost entirely of rocks younger than the Coal Measures, which are less resistant to weathering and have broken down to form deep fertile soils. Scarcely any part of Lowland Britain reaches 1,000 feet above sea level, so that practically the whole, with the exception of a few patches of poor soil or rocky land, 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.

Towards the end of its long geological history, when the ancestors of present-day man had already settled in Britain, 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 often covered deeply by the debris left by 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 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 enjoys not only very attractive and contrasting scenery within short distances but a remarkable, ever different, coastline. The ancient rocks of Highland Britain often reach the coast in



This map is adapted from *The Regions of Britain*, a map appearing in *The Face of Britain*, by L. Dudley Stamp, published for the British Council by Longmans, Green & Co.

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; the red sandstone of St. Bees Head; and the vertically jointed lavas of Skye and the island of Staffa. 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. Near at hand are accumulations of sand and shingle, and such tracts as Chesil Beach, Dungeness and the sandspits of the Norfolk coast have their own peculiar beauty. 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 rivers 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.

Situated for the most part on the border land between Highland and Lowland Britain are the outcrops of the Coal Measures containing nearly all Britain's coal. The older coal workings and collieries are found where the coal seams are at or near the surface and where the early miners followed them up the deep valleys into the highlands, as in Yorkshire or South Wales. The modern deep collieries seek the coal where it lies beneath a cover of younger rocks and amid the farming lands of Lowland Britain. This is well seen in Yorkshire where the newer pits are ever moving farther and farther east into farming country. Most of the coalfields of Britain, including those of the great Central Lowland of Scotland, have given rise to industrial regions, so that the old rural pattern of British settlement based essentially on the occurrence of good soils suitable for intensive farming has been largely overlaid by the newer urban industrial pattern, which is still growing and spreading.

Britain does not suffer from extremes of climate. It lies entirely in middle latitudes and the dominant winds are south-westerly. The weather from day to day depends mainly on a succession of depressions or lows, with intervening ridges of high pressure, which tend to approach the British Isles from the Atlantic and to pass over in an easterly direction. Long periods of settled weather associated with stable air masses are the exception rather than the rule.

Throughout the British Isles winters can be described as mild. Apart from the exposed uplands the average temperature for the coldest month is lowest along or near the east coast ($38^{\circ}\text{F.} = 3.3^{\circ}\text{C.}^1$). The warmest parts of the British Isles, the extreme south-west and the Scilly Isles, have an average January temperature of 44°F. Except on exposed mountains, temperatures as low as 15°F. or 20°F. are rare and until a recent exceptionally cold winter it was doubtful whether 0°F. had ever been recorded.

The summers are warm rather than hot. The average for August, usually the warmest month, ranges from 63°F. in the south to about 55°F. in the extreme north. Temperatures of 90°F. and above are rare, and 100°F. has scarcely ever been recorded.

Because the dominant winds are from the south-west this is the rainy quarter and there is a great contrast between the extremely heavy rainfall of the western mountains—in

¹ $32^{\circ}\text{F.} = 0^{\circ}\text{C.}$ and the conversion factor from Fahrenheit to Centigrade is $\frac{5}{9}$, thus $44^{\circ}\text{F.} = 6.7^{\circ}\text{C.}$, $11^{\circ}\text{F.} = -11.7^{\circ}\text{C.}$, $20^{\circ}\text{F.} = -6.7^{\circ}\text{C.}$, $0^{\circ}\text{F.} = -17.8^{\circ}\text{C.}$, $63^{\circ}\text{F.} = 17.2^{\circ}\text{C.}$, $55^{\circ}\text{F.} = 12.8^{\circ}\text{C.}$, $90^{\circ}\text{F.} = 32.2^{\circ}\text{C.}$, $100^{\circ}\text{F.} = 37.8^{\circ}\text{C.}$

some areas over 100 inches a year—and the relatively dry east coast tracts where the average may be less than 20 inches a year. Although the English farmer may complain of droughts, a period of as long as three weeks without rain is exceptional, and droughts disastrous to agriculture, so well known in other lands, do not occur in Britain. Indeed the drier years are usually marked by high crop yields.

Although Britain's fogs, to a large extent accentuated by the smoky atmosphere of London and other big cities, have attained world-wide notoriety, severe fogs are nowadays rarer than formerly, and are seldom widespread, though occasionally, as in the winter of 1952–53, fog persists for many consecutive days in certain areas. The hours of sunshine throughout the year are relatively low owing to broken cloud cover; the average is between 24 and 38 per cent of the possible total.

With its mild climate and varied soils, Britain has a complicated pattern of natural vegetation cover. When the islands were first settled, oak woodland doubtless covered the greater part of the lowland, giving place to thin forests of Scots fir on higher or sandy ground, interrupted by extensive marshlands 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 seems superficially to be well wooded because of the numerous hedgerows and isolated trees.

The hilly moorland with its famous heather (and cotton grass in the wetter parts), with its numerous hill grasses and the bracken fern, is a semi-natural wild vegetation. Most of Lowland Britain consists either of grass pastureland representing centuries of careful management, or ploughland. Because of the well-distributed rainfall coming in almost equal amounts in each month of the year, streams rarely dry up and grass remains green throughout the year.

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 colonizers 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-Celtic, Celtic, Roman, Anglo-Saxon and Norse—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 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 a reasonable contemporary estimate put the population of England and Wales at 5½ million and the population of Scotland at about one million. Natural increase was the main factor in this slow growth, though it was kept down 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, played some part 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 of September 1939, which was carried out mainly for other purposes.

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 temporary and permanent movement of population between that country and the United Kingdom.

Preliminary reports of the censuses of England and Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland were obtained, in advance of the main statistical operations, direct from summaries supplied by the local census officers. They are, therefore, provisional, though no material correction to their figures is expected to be necessary. They relate only to the numbers of the population by sex for each country and for administrative areas within each country, except that in the Scottish report there is a table indicating by counties the number and percentage of the population returned as speaking Gaelic. To obtain advance information on the many other matters covered by the Census, an analysis has been made of a representative one per cent sample of the returns for Great Britain.

The short demographic account of the United Kingdom given in this chapter is based mainly on census reports (including the 1951 Census One Per Cent Sample Tables) and on the regular returns of births, marriages and deaths, though some use has been made of other special investigations.

Total Population

The enumerated population of the United Kingdom at the census taken on 8th April 1951 was, to the nearest thousand, 50,210,000, excluding 158,000 persons in the Isle of Man and the Channel Islands, which are not strictly parts of the United Kingdom. This represented a population density of about 533 persons per square mile, which is one of the highest in the world and is still rising.

The population has 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.

*Birth and Death Rates.*² During the nineteenth century the annual birth rate was usually around 3½ per cent. The annual death rate was just over 2 per cent. 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 1.2 per cent in 1851 to 1.4 per cent in 1881, and fell to 1.1 per cent in 1901.

These fertile years, with their comparatively high death rates in all age groups, produced

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

²Birth and death rates are the ratios of live-births and deaths to the population or population-group concerned. Strictly speaking, the ratios of total live-births and total deaths to total population should be referred to as crude birth and death rates (in contrast with age-specific or other specific rates.) In common usage, however, the word 'crude' is often omitted, particularly in reference to birth rates,

POPULATION

(From 1951 Census provisional figures, rounded to the nearest thousand)

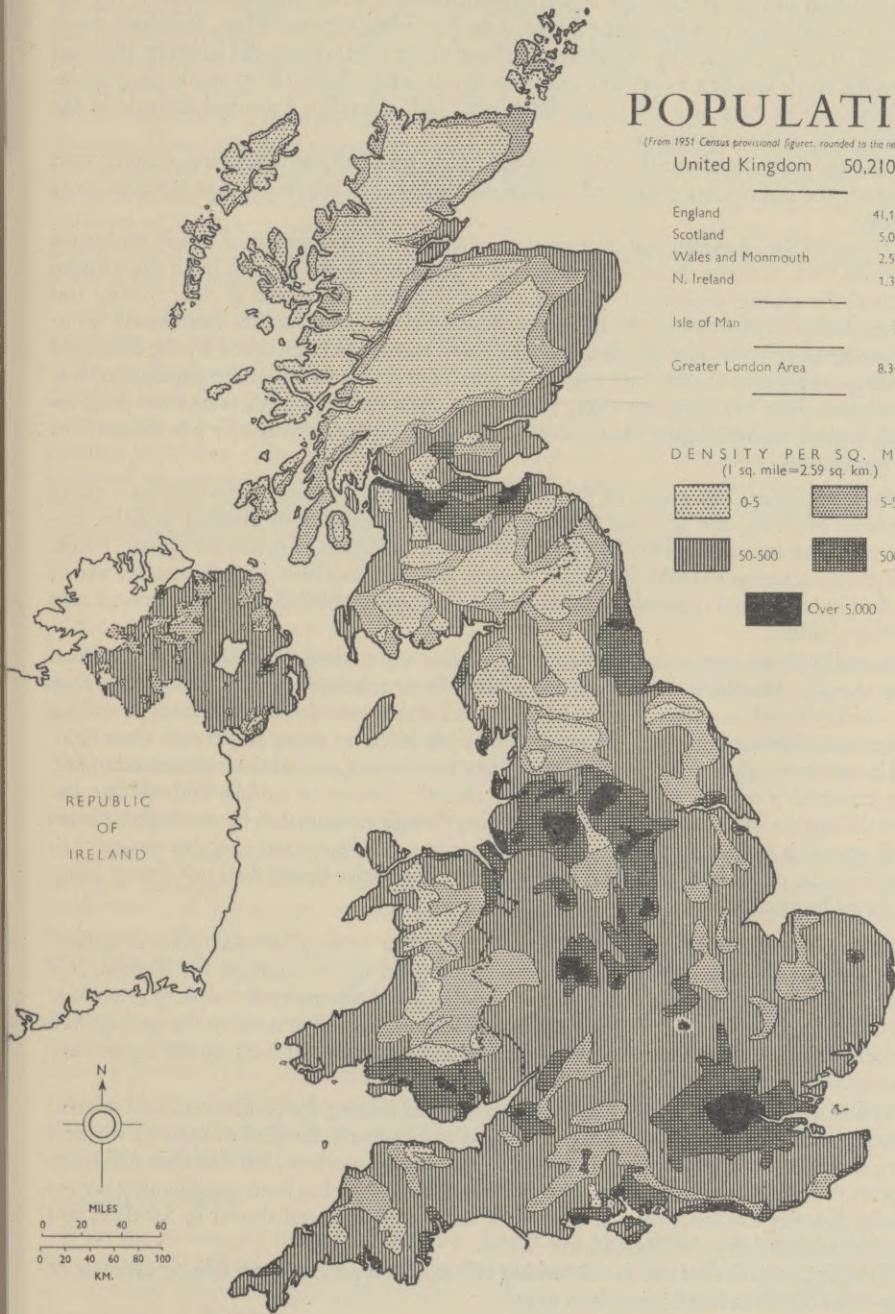
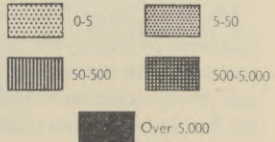
United Kingdom 50,210,000

| | |
|--------------------|------------|
| England | 41,148,000 |
| Scotland | 5,096,000 |
| Wales and Monmouth | 2,597,000 |
| N. Ireland | 1,370,000 |

Isle of Man 55,000

Greater London Area 8,346,000

DENSITY PER SQ. MILE
(1 sq. mile = 2.59 sq. km.)



REPUBLIC
OF
IRELAND



a population of low average age and at each successive census the population of any age group exceeded the corresponding figure at the preceding census. 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 crude 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.

Owing to the changing age composition, crude death rates remained nearly stationary at around 1·2 per cent though the death rates continued to fall heavily in all age groups, particularly among pre-school children, school children, and adults in their thirties and forties. From 1932 onwards the birth rate steadied itself and thereafter rose slowly up to the outbreak of 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, 1951 and 1952 birth rates were progressively lower, though higher than pre-war. The 1952 birth rate was 15·7 per thousand of the population.

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 infective diseases and infant and maternal mortality have declined very sharply. Mortality from the main acute infective diseases of childhood is less than one-thirtieth, and mortality from tuberculosis is less than one-tenth of the rates prevailing in the mid-nineteenth century. Infant mortality has fallen by about 80 per cent since 1900, and between 1934 and 1942 maternal mortality was halved and has since continued to fall. The reported mortality from many of the chronic diseases of middle and old age 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 births during the twentieth century has taken place in spite of an increase in the marriage rate and a drop in the usual age of marriage for women. It is due mainly to a decline in the number of children born per married couple (the average size of the family). Couples married in the mid-Victorian era produced on the average five to six liveborn children. Among the couples married in the years 1925-29 the figure may be estimated at 2·2.

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 considerably slower among Roman Catholics than in the rest of the population, and slower in Scotland and Northern Ireland than in England and Wales.

Changing social habits and the disturbing effects of war preclude any reliable estimate of long-term trends in family size since 1939.

Migration. 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. Over the whole 150 years 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 and Germans, 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.

Age Distribution. The continuous fall in death rates and the low inter-war birth rates are beginning to increase the proportion of elderly people, and thus to reduce the proportion of the working population to the total population. The small age groups born between the wars have been and are still 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 the death rate 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. In December 1952 the age distribution of the United Kingdom was estimated as follows:

| | | | |
|-------------|----|----|---------------|
| Under 15 | .. | .. | 22.6 per cent |
| 65 and over | .. | .. | 11.0 per cent |
| 15 to 64 | .. | .. | 66.4 per cent |

During the present decade the population of Britain will have abnormally large numbers aged between 40 and 50. 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 remain roughly constant;
- (2) the number of old people (over 65) will increase over the next 30 years by about three million.

These predictions are independent of the future course of births.

Sex Ratio. Total births of boys usually exceed those of girls by about 5 per cent, but owing to the higher stillbirth rate and infant mortality 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 nearly 50 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.

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 six per cent more females than males.

Population Policy

If the future brings a further reduction in family size, the decline of annual births will become rapid, with serious effects on the trend of population. Fear of this eventuality was an important factor in a growing concern with population problems, which led to the appointment in March 1944 of a Royal Commission on Population to inquire into the facts concerning British population trends, their causes and probable consequences; and to 'consider what measures, if any, should be taken in the national interest to influence the future trend of population'.

The Commission reported in March 1949. It found that the main cause, and very probably the only cause, of the fall in family size was the spread of deliberate family limitation. In the course of the nineteenth century powerful economic, social and cultural forces combined to tell against the continued acceptance of an uncontrolled birth rate. Changes in economic organization were reducing the importance of the family as a productive unit, while the Factory and Education Acts were extending the period during which children were an unrelieved expense to their parents. The result was that, in all classes of society except the wealthiest, married couples with young children to support were at an economic disadvantage compared with childless couples; and parents with a family of several young children were at a disadvantage as compared with those with only one or two.

The Commission's recommendations aimed at reducing the economic disadvantages of parenthood. It proposed increased family allowances; reform of income tax to reduce the disadvantages of parenthood for the well-to-do; the building of more houses with more than three bedrooms; the further development of family health and welfare services; and research and education in population questions.

Regional Distribution and Trends

The populations of England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland¹ and of each of the principal regions of England were in every case greater in 1951 than in 1931, whereas in the period 1921-31 the populations of Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland had declined. The greatest increases were in the eastern, southern, midland and south-western districts of England, and in Northern Ireland. The smallest increase was in Wales.

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 conurbation 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, Glasgow, Birmingham and Wolverhampton, Manchester, Liverpool, Leeds and Bradford, and Newcastle upon Tyne.

During the twentieth century the general character of urbanization 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 withdrawal of rural population. 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 or very small towns tended to decline.

¹ For population figures see map on p. 7.

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. In 1951 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 in 1951 (8,346,000 to the nearest thousand) was nearly 400,000 less than in 1939. The populations of many urban and rural areas surrounding Greater London have continued to increase very rapidly.

After 1939—and therefore probably at least in part as a result of the war—there was a marked change in the relative rates of growth of rural and urban areas as a whole, and of small, medium-sized and large towns. For the first time in 100 years the population of administrative rural areas grew faster than that of urban areas, while within urban areas the greatest growth occurred in towns of 40,000 to 75,000 inhabitants, and smaller towns appeared to be increasing almost as fast.

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 about a quarter of the population at the time of the 1951 census. According to the 1951 census of Scotland nearly 100,000 persons, mainly in Ross and Cromarty, Inverness, Argyll, and Lanark, speak the Scottish form of Gaelic, while a few scattered families in Northern Ireland speak the Irish form of Gaelic.¹

French is the official language of the Channel Islands and dialect French is still spoken there by many people. The Manx and Cornish varieties of Celtic are no longer effectively living languages.

Social Patterns

A general summary of trends in social organization, similar in scope to the foregoing summary of population trends, is not practicable. Human relations and behaviour are too complex and too little susceptible to precise statistical treatment, while sources of sociological information are incomplete and not always reliable. 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 for the consideration of a number of planning problems, particularly in the fields of 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 were enumerated by the censuses of 1911, 1921, 1931 and 1951 in institutions (hotels, schools, hospitals, etc.).

In 1911 there were about nine million private households² in Great Britain. By 1951, according to the Census One Per Cent Sample Tables, there were about 14½ million households, an increase of about 60 per cent. This expansion seems out of proportion to the 19 per cent increase in the total population for the same period. It was in fact comparable with the increase in the population of persons over 24 years old and the slightly larger increase in the number of married persons. In other words, the increasing age of the

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

²Counting persons living alone as one-person households.

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 tripled 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 at least 43 per cent of families of two persons, at least one 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 destruction of property during the second world war. There were in 1951 only some 13.3 million structurally separate dwelling-places in Great Britain, so that over 2 million households had to share a home (see page 250). 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. The proportion of flats is 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, 11.5 million were estimated in the 1951 Census Sample 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.

Nearly another million households were of these simple types except for the inclusion of parents or non-married brothers or sisters of the head of the household. Only 2 million households contained persons less closely related to the head than parent or brother or sister, or contained non-relatives. There were nearly a million families consisting of married couples, or married or widowed persons with children, who were without their own homes, and the majority of these were living in the homes of their parents. Apart from these satellite family groups, 1,102,700 households contained an aggregate of 1,240,000 other persons unrelated or distantly related to the head of the household, the bulk of whom were presumably of the status of boarders. Of these more than half a million constituted sole individual additions to the more normal types of families with married heads. There were nearly 300,000 households consisting of two persons who were distantly related or were unrelated to one another.

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.

In Great Britain as a whole it was estimated that, in 1951, 180,000 households contained a total of 205,000 resident domestic servants. Of these, about half were in households of one or two other persons, and over a quarter were in the households of single or widowed or divorced persons, 40 years old or over, living alone except for a servant. A sample analysis of 1931 census data covering only England and Wales showed 706,800 resident domestic servants in private households, which compares with 178,000 in England and Wales in 1951.

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 (see p. 214). In many cases housewives also undertake part-time or even full-time employment.

Agreed hours of full-time work for the majority of occupations tend to be 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 (see p. 225). To these hours must often be added the time taken in travel to and from work. According to a sample survey made in August 1943, over 75 per cent of wage earners in large towns spent half an hour a day travelling to and from work, mainly by public transport, while over 30 per cent spent over an hour in such daily travel. This survey was made in exceptional war-time conditions, and the average time taken in travelling to work may have slightly decreased outside Greater London in spite of the continuing movement of population away from the centre of large towns. In Greater London, however, a sample survey made in 1949 showed that the average time taken in travelling to and from work was 88 minutes a day.

In addition, there is often a long journey from home 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, one or two shops much closer at hand.

One consequence of the distance from home to work and to shops is the growth of the habit of eating away from home. This habit has been encouraged by the rationing of certain uncooked foods and by the establishment of factory and office canteens providing cheap meals at places of work. The majority of all schoolchildren and probably about a third of all adults, except housewives, take some meals regularly outside their homes.

According to a sample survey made in 1947, only 6 per cent of housewives employ any paid help, and only 1 per cent¹ have a resident servant. Housewives appear, in general, to have rather less leisure and considerably fewer periods of continuous leisure of over one hour than other persons in Britain.

Most employees, in addition to 1½ or 2 days' holiday each week and 6 statutory public holidays a year, get at least one week's continuous holiday in the year. In fact, 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. About 4½ per cent of holidaymakers go abroad.

At least a quarter of the adult population is interested in playing or going to watch outdoor sports; the most popular are Association football and cricket. In England alone about 23,000 football clubs—mainly amateur clubs—are affiliated to the English Football Association, excluding another 9,000 clubs in the armed forces, universities and schools. Some 750,000 youths and men play in weekly football matches during the winter months; spectators at professional football matches number about a 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 somewhat smaller than at professional football matches, but the 'Test' matches between the cricket teams of Commonwealth countries have become 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. Every form of outdoor pursuit from

¹This estimate has been shown to be approximately correct by the analysis of households employing servants made in the 1951 Census Sample Tables (see p. 12).

swimming, hiking, cycling and motoring¹ to hunting, shooting and fishing has an enthusiastic following, though many sports, such as sailing and rock-climbing, can be practised only by relatively few keen amateurs.

Although climatic and physical conditions in Britain afford few opportunities for skiing and mountaineering, numbers of people go abroad regularly for these pursuits, and the whole nation was stirred by the news of the first ascent of Mount Everest on 29th May 1953 by members of the British Expedition.

The spread of television has added a vast new audience of indoor spectators to the crowds who go to watch sports and other outdoor events. In June 1953 more than one household in six had a television set; viewers are fairly evenly distributed among all sections of the population, irrespective of income. The number of television licences is increasing by 60,000 to 70,000 a month (see p. 282). Some districts, however, are still outside the regular range of the transmitters.

Television is one of the factors that have caused a considerable fall in cinema attendances since the end of the war, but it has not checked the growing popularity of plays, concerts, the ballet and the opera. The cinema remains, however, the most popular form of indoor entertainment outside the home; two out of five adults and one out of two schoolchildren go to the cinema, on average, at least once a week.

Dancing, card games and other social gatherings—often organized by local social clubs—are also popular; one traditional social rendezvous, the public house, has maintained and even increased its popularity, although there has been a marked decrease in drunkenness 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 such as darts. On the other hand many people, especially the married and the elderly, spend much of their leisure at home—reading, listening to the radio, viewing television, or pursuing hobbies. Gardening is perhaps the most widespread hobby, and the standard of rural and suburban gardens is high.

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

¹There are about 5 million motor vehicles licensed at the height of summer, of which some 2½ million are private cars and nearly a million are motor cycles. Most of the private cars, however, are used partly, if not primarily, for business purposes.

II. GOVERNMENT AND ADMINISTRATION

THE MONARCHY

The United Kingdom is a monarchical state, formed originally in the ninth century by the unification of all England under a Saxon king, and later expanded by the conquest of Wales and Ireland¹ by kings of England and by the dynastic union of the English and Scottish thrones in the person of James I of England and VI of Scotland. The United Kingdom is also a member nation of the Commonwealth, of which the Queen is the head.

The form of the Royal title is varied for the member countries of the Commonwealth to suit the particular circumstances of each. India, as a republic, owes no allegiance to the Crown, but accepts the Queen as the symbol of the free association of the member nations and, as such, as the head of the Commonwealth.

Agreement was reached at a meeting of Commonwealth representatives in December 1952 on the form of the Queen's title in the various parts of the Commonwealth, and legislation was passed by the Parliaments concerned to enable the necessary changes to be made.² The Royal Title in the United Kingdom is: 'Elizabeth the Second, by the Grace of God of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and of Her other Realms and Territories Queen, Head of the Commonwealth, Defender of the Faith'.

The 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 sole function of the Governor-General is to act in relation to the administration of public affairs according to the constitutional practice obtaining in his country in regard to the exercise of the powers of the Crown. As the Queen's representative he has no official dealings with the United Kingdom Government; nor has he any official existence even in the country to which he is appointed, except in the absence of the Queen. In the Dependencies—the Colonies, the Protectorates and the Trust Territories—the Queen is represented by Governors, High Commissioners or Residents, who are appointed by the Crown and perform the constitutional functions of 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.

Each of the member nations of the Commonwealth has its own separate constitution, governed by different laws and customs, and subject to different powers of change. The scope of this chapter will be confined to a description of one of those nations—namely the United Kingdom—and the machinery and processes through which its constitution works.

Succession

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 829.

¹In 1920 the United Kingdom was diminished by the separation of the 26 counties of southern Ireland.

²In the United Kingdom, the Royal Titles Act, 1953.

The permanence of the monarchy has been ascribed to the fact that the constitution of the United Kingdom is governed by conventions rather than by formal law. Conventions are those parts of the rules and practices under which a system of government works, which are not part of the law of the land in the sense that violation of them may lead to proceedings in a court of law, but which are nevertheless indispensable to the machinery of government. Since they are based upon usage, they are not absolutely binding; and they may therefore be adapted to changing conditions without serious disturbance to existing organs and forms.

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 except by common consent of the member nations of the Commonwealth² 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, or, if there are no sons, the daughters in order of their own seniority. When a daughter succeeds, she becomes Queen-Regnant, and powers of the Crown or Royal Prerogatives³ 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 attended by the Privy Council; the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, the Lord Mayor, Aldermen and citizens of the City of London, and the High Commissioners in London of the member nations of the Commonwealth also have the right 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 occasion and the time, has remained much the same in substance for nearly a thousand years. The service used at the coronation of Queen Elizabeth II was derived from the service 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 supreme authority, an integral part of the legislature, the head of the judiciary in England and Wales, Northern Ireland, and Scotland, the head of the Navy, Army and Air Force of the United Kingdom, the temporal head of the established Church of England, and the sole representative of the nation in international affairs. In practice, as a result of a long evolutionary process, during which many restrictions on the royal prerogative have been imposed, these powers have

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

²A provision of the Statute of Westminster, 1931.

³'The residue of discretionary or arbitrary authority which at any time is legally left in the hands of the Crown.' Professor A. V. Dicey's *Law of the Constitution*.

changed from being the weapon of the monarchy to being the means of giving effect to the 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.¹

The Queen summons, prorogues and dissolves Parliament; she opens the new session with a speech from the throne, and 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 makes appointments to peerages, knighthoods and other honours; to all important State offices,² including judges, officers in the armed forces, governors, diplomats and consuls; 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 international affairs, it is the Queen's prerogative to conclude treaties, to cede or accept territory and to declare war or to make peace.

That there is clear ministerial responsibility for all these acts of government is shown in the three ways in which the royal will can be constitutionally expressed: by Order in Council (see pp. 26-27) made 'by and with the advice of the Privy Council'; by Order, Commission or Warrant under the sign manual, which generally bears the signature of one or more responsible ministers; or by Proclamation, Writs, Patents, Letters 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.

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 on life of both the Sovereign and the people, certain customs and usages are the same today as they were many centuries ago.

The Queen still holds Courts, at which the formal ceremony of presentation is retained. 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. 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

¹Provision is made by Act of Parliament for the appointment of a Regent in the event of the Sovereign's total incapacity. 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 such of the royal functions as are delegated to them.

²In 1901 the Demise of the Crown Act provided that the holding of any such office should not be affected by the demise of the Crown and that no fresh appointment should be necessary.

the United Kingdom; State investitures are still held at Buckingham Palace, although today honours may be bestowed without the personal attendance of the recipient upon the Sovereign. State processions are still an integral part of royal ceremonial; they grace such social occasions as the Ascot Race Meeting, known as Royal Ascot, and add significance to the opening of Parliament, when the Queen drives from Buckingham Palace accompanied by other members of the Royal family, officers of State and members of the Royal Household.

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 nationwide 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 do different work in different places and 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 Act, 1949.¹

There are other Parliaments in parts of Britain besides the Parliament at Westminster. There are, for instance, the ancient legislatures of the two Channel Island Bailiwicks and of the Isle of Man, each of which legislates on domestic matters although the United Kingdom Parliament retains the supreme authority.² There is also the Northern Ireland Parliament, created to perform specific functions by an Act of the United Kingdom Parliament.³ The Northern Ireland Parliament consists of the Governor (as representative of the Queen), a Senate and a House of Commons, and is federal in type, certain legislative and fiscal powers being reserved to the Parliament of the United Kingdom. The Parliament at Westminster, however, has no rival 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 a 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;

¹See p. 25.

²The channel of communication between the United Kingdom Government and the local legislatures is the Secretary of State for the Home Department, who advises the Crown on the exercise of the royal prerogatives. The Queen is represented in each of the Channel Island Bailiwicks and in the Isle of Man by a Lieutenant-Governor.

³Under the Government of Ireland Act, 1920, the Northern Ireland Parliament has power to make laws for the peace, order and good government of Northern Ireland in relation to all domestic matters except those reserved to the United Kingdom Parliament, provided that such laws do not conflict with legislation passed by the United Kingdom Parliament and extending to Northern Ireland. Matters reserved to the United Kingdom Parliament include the postal services, the judiciary, the imposition of customs and excise duties and of income and profits taxes, and certain other services. The Northern Ireland Parliament has no power to legislate concerning such matters as defence and foreign relations.

it can legalize 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, there is a large and increasing amount of delegation of powers to ministers, local authorities, public corporations, etc., and although these powers could be withdrawn at any time by Parliament, 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.¹

A session is the period of time between the meeting of a Parliament (whether after prorogation or dissolution) and its prorogation. 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 shall be summoned again.

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 reassembly of the House can be accelerated or delayed either by proclamation or by virtue of powers specially conferred by each House on its Speaker.

The average length of a session is 149 days divided by custom into the following periods: one from Christmas to Easter lasting about 45 days; one from Easter to the summer (August) lasting about 70 days; and one from October to Christmas lasting about 34 days. The exact length of each period varies according to the amount of business to be done.

Structure of Parliament

The two Houses of Parliament are constituted on entirely different principles, as follows:

The House of Lords

In November 1952 the House of Lords consisted of 775 temporal peers and 26 spiritual peers, as follows: (1) princes of the royal blood (who by custom take no part in proceedings), (2) all hereditary peers (other than minors and those who had not then applied for a writ of summons) of England and the United Kingdom,² (3) 16 hereditary peers of Scotland elected from their own number for each Parliament in accordance with the provisions of the Act of Union, 1707, (4) five representative peers of Ireland elected for life,³ and (5) several Lords of Appeal in Ordinary appointed to perform the judicial duties of

¹Formerly the death of a Sovereign involved the dissolution of Parliament, since Parliament meets on the personal summons of the monarch. Since 1867, however, when the Representation of the People Act of that year 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.

²Peerages created since the Act for the Union of England and Scotland, 1707, are all peerages of the United Kingdom.

³By the Act for the Union of Great Britain and Ireland, 1800, the Irish peers were entitled to elect 28 representatives, but since 1920 no new peers have been elected.

the House and holding their seats therein for life. The spiritual peers are the archbishops and senior bishops of the Church of England.

Temporal peerages are conferred by the Sovereign on the advice of her ministers as a mark of distinction. They are all, except the judicial peerages, hereditary and, with the exception of the Scottish and Irish peerages, they carry with them, for men over 21 years of age, a right to a seat in the House of Lords. A summons to Parliament cannot be withheld from a peer who is entitled to it, although most of the work of the House is done by fewer than 85 of the 801 peers who receive the writ of summons. Party politics have little effect upon the membership of the House, which remains relatively stable over a long period of time.

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 assents 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 regardless of income or occupation. There are at present 625 members of the House of Commons, each representing a single-member constituency.

Members of the House of Commons hold their seats during the life of a Parliament. They are elected either at a General Election which takes place after 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 during the life of a Parliament. Election 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 are serving a prison sentence or have been certified as insane. All who are entitled to vote are entitled to stand for election, except clergymen of the established Churches of England, Scotland and Northern Ireland and of the Roman Catholic Church; undischarged bankrupts; and persons holding certain offices under the Crown.

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 the Committee 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 Commons, who is appointed by letters patent and is charged with keeping the records, endorsing Bills, signing Orders, etc.; the Serjeant-at-Arms, who is likewise appointed by letters patent and attends the Speaker in the House; the Counsel to the Speaker; the Examiner of Petitions for Private Bills and Taxing Officer; the Speaker's Secretary; the Librarian; the Chaplain to the Speaker; the Accountant; and the Editor of Official Reports of Debates—*Hansard*.

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 the 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; freedom of speech; and the right of access

to the Crown, which is a collective privilege of the House and is exercised by the Speaker on its behalf. Further privileges include the right (rarely exercised) to debate in secret; the right to control internal proceedings; and the right to pronounce upon legal disqualifications for membership and to declare a seat vacant on such grounds.

The privileges of the House of Lords are (1) freedom from civil arrest for themselves and their servants for a period of 40 days before and after a meeting of Parliament, (2) freedom of speech, (3) freedom of access to the Sovereign for each peer individually, (4) the right to commit for contempt, (5) the right to try and be tried by their fellow peers for treason or felony, and (6) the right to exclude disqualified persons from taking part in the proceedings of the House. 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 fact that there are three effective political parties in the United Kingdom: Conservative, Labour and Liberal, each of which lays rival policies before the electorate. Whenever there is a General Election, these parties (and any minor parties that may be in existence at the time) may all put up candidates for election in each of the constituencies into which the United Kingdom is divided for the purpose. Independent candidates may also stand. As a rule, the electorate has a choice of three candidates (Conservative, Labour and Liberal);¹ and by its choice it indicates 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 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 larger of the two minority parties becomes the official Opposition with its own leader and its own council of discussion or unofficial 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 25th October 1951, 82.6 per cent of the electorate voted, compared with 70 per cent in 1945 and 84 per cent in 1950. The number of votes cast for the principal parties is shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1*

| Party | 1945 | 1950 | 1951 |
|--------------------------------|------------|------------|------------|
| Labour | 11,967,985 | 13,248,957 | 13,949,105 |
| Conservative and Supporters .. | 9,960,809 | 12,450,403 | 13,730,642 |
| Liberal | 2,227,400 | 2,634,482 | 730,597 |
| Communist | 102,780 | 91,746 | 21,640 |

*These figures exclude those few constituencies for which candidates were returned unopposed.

¹In the General Election of October 1951, the choice was between Labour and Conservative in most constituencies. In a few constituencies, two of the parties agreed to support the same candidate. Liberal candidates numbered 109, and the number of candidates representing other political parties was very small.

The distribution of seats in the House of Commons resulting from the General Elections of 1950 and 1951 is shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2

| 1950 | | 1951 | |
|-------------------------------|-----|-------------------------------|-----|
| Labour | 315 | Conservative and Supporters.. | 320 |
| Conservative and Supporters.. | 297 | Labour | 295 |
| Liberal | 9 | Liberal | 6 |
| Others (a) | 3 | Others (c) | 3 |
| The Speaker (b) | 1 | The Speaker (d) | 1 |
| | 625 | | 625 |

(a) Two Irish Nationalists and one Independent Liberal.

(b) Returned unopposed.

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

(d) Returned as Conservative member for Cirencester and Tewkesbury, and elected Speaker on 31st October.

The effectiveness of the party system rests to a considerable extent upon the fact that Government and Opposition are carried on alike 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 criticize 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 organizations; inside Parliament, it is exercised by the Whips, who in addition to their other functions are expected to keep their forces effective by all means in their power. For the Government, this work is done by the Parliamentary Secretary to the Treasury, the junior lords at 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.

Parliamentary Procedure

Parliamentary procedure 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 office is always held by a peer, but it carries with it only a limited authority to check or curtail debate. The Lords, unlike the Commons, claim the right to overrule their Speaker forthwith on issues of procedure.

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 infringe-

ment of minority rights, he has power to limit unreasonable obstruction and his rulings on points of order cannot be challenged at the time. The Speaker has the right to allow or disallow a closure motion (i.e. a motion to curtail or end discussion so that the matter may be put to the vote), to check irrelevance in debate, and to refuse to admit delaying tactics. 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; by regular practice he does this in such a way as to avoid change and leave the question to be debated on another occasion.

In addition to his duties in debate, the Speaker has the responsibility of deciding what is a Money Bill (a Bill dealing only with national taxation and finance, see p. 25); 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 (with the exception of secret sessions) are public, and a verbatim record is published daily in *Hansard*.

Parliamentary Functions

The main functions of Parliament today are (a) to make laws regulating the life of the community, (b) 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 (c) to criticize and control the Government (see pp. 25-26).

Although the making and ratification of international treaties and agreements is a royal prerogative (see p. 17) exercised on the advice of the Government, which strictly speaking is under no obligation to obtain Parliamentary approval, it is customary for Parliament to be consulted before ratification of those agreements requiring it. These are, in practice, of two types: treaties which could not be implemented without legislation, which Parliament must be asked to pass before ratification can take place; and treaties of such political importance that the Government feels obliged, as a political though not as a legal necessity, to consult Parliament by arranging a debate on the matter before becoming committed.

In the past, legislation was initiated from both sides of the House; but in present-day practice almost all Bills are brought forward by the Government in power as a result of policy decisions taken in the Cabinet at the instigation of those Government Departments which will be responsible for their administration when the Bills become law. The chief exceptions are Private Bills, which relate solely to some matter of individual, corporate or local interest, and Private Members' Bills, which are Public Bills introduced by members on their own initiative on certain days set aside expressly for the purpose.

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, no Bills likely to raise much political controversy are introduced in the Lords, as the House of Commons is considered a more suitable place of origin for measures of that kind.

The process of passing a Public Bill is 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 type of Bill, subject matter, etc.) it may be given a Second Reading as the result of a debate on its general merits or principles. It is then referred either to one of the Standing Committees appointed for the purpose by the Committee of Selection,¹ or, in the case of

¹A body of 11 members nominated at the beginning of every session by the House in proportion to party strength in the Commons.

more important measures, to the whole House sitting in Committee, if the House so decides on a motion. During the Committee stage, members may suggest appropriate amendments, which will be incorporated into the Bill if the majority of the Committee agree. When this stage is finished, the Bill is reported to the House, and a further debate takes place during which additional amendments and alterations 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.¹

After a Bill has passed through its various parliamentary stages, it is sent to the Sovereign for Royal Assent, which is automatically given either by the Sovereign in person or (usually) by commission. The right of veto has not been exercised since the early eighteenth century.

An exception to this procedure is made in the case of Money Bills, of which the two most important are the Finance Bill, which authorizes annual taxation and amends existing taxation, and the Appropriation Bill, which authorizes expenditure on the Supply Services from the Consolidated Fund.² As a general rule, these Bills must be introduced in the House of Commons upon Resolutions in a Committee of the whole House and, since their purpose is to raise money for the Crown as a means of providing for payment of the various services performed by the Crown, they may be initiated only by a Minister of the Crown.

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 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 amend it 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 or Bills dealing with the duration of Parliament; 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 fundamental principle that the function of the Upper House, which is a non-representative assembly, is not to thwart the will of the people, but to use the combined experience and wisdom of its members to ensure that that will is precisely and reasonably interpreted.

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

¹Private Bill procedure is somewhat different. Such Bills begin with a petition, and promoters must give notice of their intention to all persons and bodies whose interests may be affected by their proposals. Committees are small, consisting of five members in the Lords and four members in the Commons. The Committee stage is quasi-judicial, and provision is made for counsel to represent supporters and opposers of the Bill.

²See also pp. 97-8.

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 authorized by Parliament is exercised by the whole House of Commons resolving itself on a specified number of days during each session into a Committee of Supply to discuss public policy relevant to the Estimates of Government Departments, which provide the programme for the year's finance.¹ If the House approves the Estimates, the sums asked for are voted in the Appropriation Act of the current year. Some Estimates are also examined by the Select Committee on Estimates which consists of 36 members of the House in proportion to party strength.

A further measure of control is exercised by the Select Committee on Public Accounts, which considers whether full value has been obtained for the sums spent and examines cases in which the administration appears to have been faulty or negligent. Its findings are published in Reports which may be discussed in the House.

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 he is responsible and thus focus the attention of the public on the day-to-day processes of government; (2) the practice of bringing on a debate, when the reply to a question is not satisfactory, by moving the adjournment of the House;² (3) the right of members to raise any matter on the motion for adjournment of either House at the end of each day's sitting; and (4) the power to confirm or annul the Orders or Regulations made by ministers under the many Acts which delegate legislative power to them. Furthermore, 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.

THE PRIVY COUNCIL

Before the emergence of the system of Cabinet government in the eighteenth century, the King in Council or the Privy Council was the chief source of executive power in the State. As this system 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 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, and is retained for life. There are at present over 300 Privy Counsellors.

Procedure and Functions

The Privy Council is convened by the Clerk to the Council. At meetings where the Sovereign is present, three Privy Counsellors form a quorum, but in practice never less 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 the instrument for the making of Orders in Council, which remain one of the chief methods of giving the force of law to executive acts. Such Orders

¹See also p. 98.

²It is permitted to move the adjournment of the House before taking up the business of the day only if the matter is deemed by the Speaker to be definite and urgent and if 40 members rise in their places to support it, or ten members rise and the House grants leave on a division. The debate on such occasions takes place later in the evening of the same day.

may be issued only when there is statutory or other authority for them, e.g., when an Act of Parliament specifically leaves the making of rules and regulations to the Queen in Council. When these rules and regulations are issued they must be published in *The London Gazette*.¹ Orders in Council are required when treaties are made, when particular matters connected with Colonial Governments arise, and in the determination of appeals heard by the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council. Members attending a meeting at which such an Order is made do not thereby become personally responsible for the policy behind it, which rests with the minister in whose Department the draft Order was framed, whether he is present at the meeting or not. The Privy Council also advises the Crown on the issue of Royal Proclamations—documents whose lawful use is restricted to prerogative acts such as summoning, proroguing or dissolving Parliament, and which are of the same validity as Acts of Parliament.

Committees of the Privy Council

Advisory functions still belong to the committees of the Council, whose meetings differ from the meetings of the full Council in that the Sovereign cannot constitutionally be present. These committees may be prerogative, such as the committee which deals with matters relating to Jersey and Guernsey, 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.

The Privy Council Office

The administrative work of the Privy Council committees is carried out in the Privy Council Office, which is an ancient prerogative Department under the control of the Lord President of the Council. It is also carried out in the Office of the Lord President of the Council.

Judicial Committee of the Privy Council

The Judicial Committee of the Privy Council is the final court of appeal on certain legal issues arising in Australia, New Zealand, Ceylon, and in the United Kingdom dependent territories.² Its appellate jurisdiction derives from the principle of English common law which recognizes 'the right of all the King's subjects to appeal for redress to the King in Council' if they believe that the courts of law have failed to do them justice.

Appeals come to it either where a right of appeal in limited categories of cases has been specially created, e.g., by Statute, Order in Council or Letters Patent, or by special leave of the Queen 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 ex-judges of English and Scottish courts are 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.

¹An official periodical published by the authority of the Government.

²Until 1949, right of appeal to the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council also existed in Canada, India, South Africa and Pakistan, but these countries have recently abolished the right. The Republic of Ireland abolished the right by the Constitution (Amendment No. 22) Act, 1933.

HER MAJESTY'S GOVERNMENT

Her Majesty's Government is the body of ministers charged for the time being with the administration of national affairs.¹

Composition

The leading minister in the Government is the Prime Minister. The remaining ministers include:

- (1) ministers who are in charge of Departments, e.g., the Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, the Secretary of State for the Home Department and Minister for Welsh Affairs, the Minister of Health, the Minister of Labour and National Service, etc.;
- (2) ministers who hold traditional offices to which no specified departmental duties are attached and who are therefore free to assist the Prime Minister by taking responsibility for any special work that may require ministerial supervision at any time;
- (3) the Lord Chancellor, who is the principal adviser of the Government on matters relating to the law and the constitution;
- (4) the Law Officers of the Crown, i.e. the Attorney-General, the Solicitor-General, the Lord Advocate for Scotland and the Solicitor-General for Scotland, who are also legal advisers to the Government, and are charged with conducting certain prosecutions of unusual importance, with filing criminal information and with defending the rights of the Crown;
- (5) Parliamentary Secretaries and Under-Secretaries, whose primary function is to relieve their senior ministers of part of the burden of their Parliamentary duties, e.g., by taking part in debate and by answering Parliamentary Questions. With the advice of the Departmental officials, they also assist their ministers in supervising the administration of their Departments.

All ministers are appointed by the Crown on the recommendation of the Prime Minister, who bases his choice on the fitness of the individual for the work involved.

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 a few ministers in the House of Lords, in the first place 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 secondly because every Government must be assured of spokesmen of standing to expound and justify its intentions and its actions to the Lords.

The Prime Minister

The office of Prime Minister as head of the Government has been in existence since the middle of the eighteenth century. The office is a conventional one in that it is not defined by statute or rule of common law, though in 1905 the Prime Minister was given precedence as the fourth person in the realm after the Royal Family.² The unique position of authority enjoyed by the Prime Minister derives on the one hand from his status as leader of the majority party in the Commons and on the other from his power to nominate his own ministers and to dismiss them individually.

It is the duty of the Prime Minister to inform the Crown of the general business of the Government; to control the Cabinet over which he presides; to exercise a general

¹See pp. 22-23, *The Party System*.

²Above him in order of precedence are: the Archbishops of Canterbury and York and the Lord Chancellor.

supervision over Departments, settling Departmental differences where possible and approving important Departmental decisions where Cabinet reference is not required; to take the final decision in all matters of high policy affecting the welfare of the nation, particularly as regards foreign affairs and defence; to be prepared to speak in the House of Commons both on general subjects and on all the most important Government Bills; and to keep a careful watch on the progress of all Government measures to see that there is no deviation from policy laid down and no avoidable delay. His responsibilities include recommending the appointment of Church of England archbishops, bishops, some senior dignitaries, and incumbents of Crown livings, as well as that of the Lord Chief Justice and of the holders of other high judicial offices, Lords Lieutenant of Counties,¹ Trustees of National Museums and Regius Professors in certain universities. He also makes recommendations for the awards 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 by statute, although certain ministers are always appointed; the number of members varies nowadays between 15 and 25. In fixing the size of his Cabinet, the Prime Minister is primarily motivated by his desire to have around him a committee capable of the efficient conduct of the highest affairs of State.

The system of Cabinet government came into being as one of the results of the passing of the Bill of Rights in 1689. In origin it was an informal gathering of those Privy Counsellors who were also ministers, meeting at first with, and later without, the Sovereign. The Cabinet assumed its present shape when the accession of the Hanoverian kings with their limited knowledge of the English language, the British constitution and the British way of life had severely curtailed the personal participation of the Sovereign in executive government and made it essential that a substitute should be found.

The Cabinet is not in itself an executant, in that it has no legal authority, its decisions being valid by convention and not by law. It 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 have been defined² as:

- (1) the final determination of the policy to be submitted to Parliament,
- (2) the supreme control of the national executive in accordance with the policy agreed by Parliament,
- (3) the continuous co-ordination and delimitation of the authority of the several Departments of State.

In the performance of its functions, the Cabinet makes considerable use of the committee system, which was introduced 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 one of the standing Cabinet committees 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.

The Cabinet Office

Records of the discussions of the committees and of the full Cabinet are kept by the Secretariat of the Cabinet, or Cabinet Office, which was introduced as an emergency institution during the first world war and has grown into an organ of great importance in

¹See footnote p. 65.

²In the Report of the Machinery of Government Committee (Haldane Committee). *Cd.* 9230. 1918.

the co-ordination of policy at the highest level. The Secretariat is responsible for the keeping of 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.

In normal times, the Cabinet meets for about two 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 the important political and social questions of the hour, and the Cabinet settles any matters which cannot be disposed of at lower levels.

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.

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.

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 Cabinet 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 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 announce policies which have not been so approved. 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 criticized 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. It is also a check upon incompetence, for the knowledge that any departmental action may be reported to and examined in Parliament discourages ministers from making arbitrary and ill-considered decisions.

GOVERNMENT DEPARTMENTS

Government Departments exist to serve ministers, to provide information and advice as a basis for the formation of policy, and to put that policy into effect when the necessary legislation has been passed.

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.

Most Government Departments have a minister in control. Some minister, who may have other duties, is answerable in Parliament for the general policy and financial estimates of the few which do not have a minister of their own.

This section outlines briefly 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 Treasury which, in view of its unique central position, is placed first, and the Scottish and Northern Ireland Departments which are grouped at the end of the section.

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 his two Parliamentary Under-Secretaries, 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 (see p. 23).

The traditional functions of the Treasury are the management of the financial resources of the United Kingdom Government,¹ the control of all public expenditure, and the control, management and organization of the Civil Service (see pp. 46-50). In other words, it is the Department responsible for ensuring that no more money is asked for by the

¹The jurisdiction of the Treasury extends to Scotland. Northern Ireland has its own Ministry of Finance (see p. 45) which works closely with the Treasury.

spending Departments than is required for their annual needs, and for making sure that no more money is spent than is authorized by Parliament.

In addition, the Treasury has since 1947 been responsible for economic planning and for co-ordinating the activities of all the Departments concerned with economic matters, and has had special staffs for undertaking this work. The major group is known as the Central Economic Planning Staff. This group is charged with the task of achieving a comprehensive economic policy for the nation, and of co-ordinating departmental policies. A separate group co-ordinates the policies of Departments in matters connected with oversea trade and the balance of payments.

For further information on the Treasury see pp. 98–99.

The Admiralty

The Board of Admiralty has been in existence since 1708. It is served by the Admiralty Divisions of the Naval Staff and the Admiralty Departments. The Divisions of the Naval Staff deal with operational and technical policy. The Departments deal with the manning of the ships and establishments; the provision of warships and other vessels, aircraft, weapons and munitions, stores, fuel and other goods, equipment and reserve forces; the general organization and administration of the Fleets and establishments; and the accounting and administration of the moneys voted by Parliament for these purposes.

The Admiralty is also responsible for the Government's economic policy in the ship-building and ship repair industries and certain minor allied industries.

For further information on the Admiralty see pp. 81 and 269–70.

The Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries

The Board of Agriculture and Fisheries was established in 1899, and was converted into the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries by statute in 1919. Its main functions are to secure the best possible output of food and to improve the general efficiency of the agricultural, horticultural and fishing industries of England and Wales;¹ and it is responsible, in association with the Department of Agriculture for Scotland and the Northern Ireland Ministry of Agriculture, for the settling of general agricultural production programmes and prices of the main farm products.

The Ministry is also concerned with the encouragement, and if necessary the enforcement, of proper standards of husbandry and estate management; with the supply and in some cases the distribution of farmers' requisites such as feedingstuffs, machinery, fertilizers and seeds; with all forms of land drainage; with the improvement of rural services such as farm buildings, water supplies and electricity; with the supply of agricultural labour and the enforcement of agricultural wages awards; with the provision of technical advice on all aspects of food production; with agricultural education and agricultural and fisheries research; with marketing schemes; with the effect of international trade negotiations on the agricultural industries of the United Kingdom; and with the international aspects of sea fishing, the regulation of whaling, the regulation of freshwater fishing and inshore fisheries.

Other measures for which the Ministry is responsible are designed to improve the quality of livestock, and to control and eradicate animal and plant diseases and pests. The Ministry is also responsible for the Ordnance Survey and for Kew Gardens.

For further information on the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries see pp. 138–152.

The Air Ministry

The Air Council was established in 1918 under the presidency of the Secretary of State

¹The Ministry is responsible for agriculture and fisheries in England and Wales; but for the control and eradication of animal and plant diseases and pests it is the responsible Department in England, Wales and Scotland.

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 organization of general and technical training; the organization and control of aeronautical inspection and of the provision, maintenance and repair of equipment; the supervision of the finance and contracts of the Air Force; the acquisition of lands required for air force purposes; and the appointment, promotion, posting and payment of all members of the Royal Air Force.

The Air Ministry is also the Department responsible for the Meteorological Office.

For further information on the Air Ministry see p. 86.

The Colonial Office

The Colonial Office is the Department of the United Kingdom Government which deals with the affairs of the great majority of the non-selfgoverning 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 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; and to provide expert services and advice of many kinds, including the allocation of moneys for development purposes under the Colonial Development and Welfare Acts and the provision of administrative and professional staff for the Colonial Service.¹ Through its staff of professional advisers, and with the help of Advisory Committees composed of men and women eminent in various fields, the Colonial Office provides guidance to Colonial Governments on a wide range of matters. Particular functions of the Colonial Office also include the care of Colonial students in the United Kingdom and the provision of information services on Colonial affairs for the United Kingdom, other Commonwealth and foreign territories and the territories themselves.

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

The Crown Agents for the Colonies are appointed by the Secretary of State 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 was established in 1947, replacing the Dominions Office (set up in 1925). In the same year the conduct of relations with India and Pakistan was transferred to the Commonwealth Relations Office from the India Office, which was abolished, and in 1948 the Office assumed similar responsibility in respect of Ceylon, which in that year became an equal member of the Commonwealth. The Office is also responsible for the conduct of relations with the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland, the self-governing colony of Southern Rhodesia, and the High Commission Territories—Basutoland, the Bechuanaland Protectorate and Swaziland.

The Commonwealth Relations Office is the main channel of communication between the United Kingdom Government and the Governments of the other Members of the Commonwealth. Through it, consultation and exchange of information takes place with

¹The Colonial Service comprises all the public services of all the territories for which the Secretary of State for the Colonies is responsible. Each Colonial Government is a separate administrative entity, and members of the Colonial Service are the servants of the territory in which they serve and their salaries are paid from local revenue. Recruitment is undertaken in the United Kingdom and other Commonwealth countries only when suitably qualified local candidates are not available.

the External Affairs Departments of those Commonwealth countries, either directly or through United Kingdom High Commissioners, on all subjects of mutual interest—foreign affairs, defence co-operation, economic and other matters. Where foreign policy is concerned, the Office works in close association with the Foreign Office.

The Commonwealth Relations Office remains the Department responsible for the conduct of relations between the United Kingdom Government and the Government of the Irish Republic, which left the Commonwealth in 1949.

The Customs and Excise Department

The primary work of the Customs and Excise Department is to collect and deal with the duties of Customs and Excise imposed from time to time in the annual Finance Acts or by other specific legislation, and to advise the Chancellor of the Exchequer on any matters connected with them. The work of the Department also comprises the prevention and detection of evasions 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 oversea trade statistics from Customs import and export documents.

For further information on the work of the Customs and Excise Department see pp. 100 and 102.

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 certain inter-service organizations, such as Amphibious Warfare Headquarters, the Joint Intelligence Bureau and the Imperial Defence College.

For further information on the Ministry of Defence see pp. 78–79.

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, which is organized 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 certain museums; and for the maintenance of educa-

tional relations with the countries of the Commonwealth, with foreign countries, and with the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization.

For further information on the Ministry of Education see p. 242.

The Ministry of Food

The Ministry of Food developed out of the Food (Defence Plans) Department of the Board of Trade and was established as a separate Ministry in 1939. Its primary responsibility is to ensure the equitable distribution of supplies of essential or scarce foodstuffs at reasonable prices. For this purpose, the Ministry, where necessary, purchases supplies of food at home and overseas and exercises control over the processing, manufacture, distribution and prices of foods. It is responsible for the administration of the food subsidies and for the supply of welfare foods to children and expectant and nursing mothers. It is also concerned with the maintenance and improvement of food hygiene and food standards and carries on research work into methods of preparing, marketing and preserving food. The Ministry is responsible for the representation of the United Kingdom on various international bodies concerned with food.

For further information on food rationing see p. 126, and on welfare foods see pp. 240 and 244.

The Foreign Office

The Foreign Office, which is the headquarters of Her Majesty's Foreign Service, 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 Foreign Office is staffed by members of the Foreign Service which, as a separate and 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, provides an interchangeable staff for service both at home and at United Kingdom diplomatic missions and consular posts abroad.

The Forestry Commission

The Forestry Commission was established under the Forestry Acts, 1919-51, 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 and Fisheries and the Secretary of State for Scotland are responsible for forest policy in Great Britain.

For further information on the Forestry Commission see pp. 154, 156 and 271.

The Ministry of Fuel and Power

The Ministry of Fuel and Power was established in 1942, 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 Ministry has 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 nationalized industries, whose members are responsible to the Minister on policy issues. The distribution of coal and coke is carried out, under Ministry control, largely by private concerns. The Ministry is also responsible for Government relations with the petroleum industry.

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 General Register Office

The General Register Office, which is under the Minister of Health for purposes of parliamentary control, is responsible under the Registrar General for the administration of the system of civil registration in England and Wales, for the preparation of statistics and reports relating to population, fertility, births, marriages, diseases and deaths, and for making arrangements for the periodic census of the population.

The Ministry of Health

The Ministry of Health, 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), assumed, in 1920, the responsibilities in connection with mental illness formerly attached to the Home Office.

Twice since 1944 there has been a transfer of some of its 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).

The main function of the Ministry of Health is now the administration of the National Health Service in England and Wales under the National Health Service Acts. The Minister is also responsible in England and Wales for supervising the work of local authorities under certain sections of the Public Health Acts and in providing for the care of the aged, infirm, blind, deaf and dumb and other handicapped persons under the National Assistance Act, 1946.

On the amalgamation of the Ministry of Pensions with the Ministry of National Insurance on 31st August 1953, the medical and surgical treatment of war pensioners—including the management of hospitals and the supply of artificial limbs, surgical appliances and invalid vehicles—hitherto the responsibility of the Ministry of Pensions, was transferred in England and Wales to the Ministry of Health (and in Scotland to the Department of Health for Scotland). The responsibility of the Ministry of Pensions for the medical treatment of war pensioners in the Channel Isles and the Isle of Man and of those residing in the Irish Republic was also transferred to the Ministry of Health on that date.

For further information on the Ministry of Health see pp. 235 and 272.

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 her subjects, and between the United Kingdom Government and the Governments of Northern Ireland, the Channel Islands and the Isle of Man. In the Government formed in October 1951 the Home Secretary was appointed Minister in charge of Welsh affairs.

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 organization of magistrates' courts; legislation on criminal justice; the efficiency of the fire service; the care of children by local authorities and voluntary organizations; the regulation of the employment of children and young persons; the control and naturalization of aliens; the law relating to parliamentary and local government elections; public safety and public well-being; and preparations for civil defence.

In carrying out its functions the Home Office is responsible, *inter alia*, for receiving and submitting Addresses and Petitions to the Sovereign and for preparing Presentations to Parliament; for preparing patents of nobility for peers and formal proceedings for the bestowal of honours; for advising the Crown on the exercise of the Prerogative of Mercy; for the sanctioning of byelaws by local authorities in so far as they relate to 'law and order' and 'good governance'; for granting licences to experiment with animals; for ordering the exhumation and removal of bodies; for the control of explosives, firearms and dangerous drugs; and for the administration of the State Management Scheme for controlling the liquor trade in the Carlisle district.

The Ministry of Housing and Local Government

The Ministry of Housing and Local Government was constituted in 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 (1943-1951).

The Ministry is responsible for the administration of Government housing policy, housing standards, and the general supervision of the housing programmes carried out by local authorities.

The town and country planning work of the Ministry includes the framing of general policy concerning the use and development of land throughout England and Wales, and the guidance of local planning authorities, New Towns Development Corporations, and the National Parks Commission in the carrying out of the planning functions allotted to them. The Ministry also co-ordinates the interests of Government Departments in the development of land.

In local government, the Ministry is the main link between local authorities and the central government.

For further information on the Ministry of Housing and Local Government see p. 250.

The Central Office of Information

The Central Office of Information was established in 1946 as the successor to the wartime Ministry of Information. It is a common service agency for the production of information and publicity material and the supply of general publicity services required by Government Departments. Both for the home and oversea ministerial Departments it produces and distributes books, pamphlets, magazines, films, exhibitions, photographs and other visual material. It conducts all official press and poster advertising except that

of the National Savings Committee, carries out social surveys, and distributes Departmental news to the Press and the BBC. For the overseas Departments, it supplies British information posts with a daily service of news-background and comment and with a comprehensive reference service. 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 Inland Revenue Department

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

The Ministry of Labour and National Service

The office of the Minister of Labour was created by the New Ministries and Secretaries Act, 1916, under which certain duties of the Board of Trade were transferred to the Ministry of Labour. On the outbreak of war in 1939 the Ministry also became responsible for mobilizing and allocating manpower for the armed forces and essential industries and services, and its title was changed to the Ministry of Labour and National Service. Its main functions in relation to Employment Services and Training derive from the Employment and Training Act, 1948.

The Ministry is responsible for: (1) the provision of a free Employment Service, through Employment Exchanges, Appointments Offices, the Technical and Scientific Register, and Nursing Appointments Offices, with the object of helping people to obtain suitable employment and helping employers to obtain suitable employees; (2) the provision and development of a comprehensive Youth Employment Service; (3) general employment policy and advice in consultation with other Government Departments on employment aspects of economic policy and the distribution of industry; (4) the provision of training in appropriate cases in Government Training Centres and assistance in the training of supervisors through the system known as TWI (Training Within Industry); (5) the supply of labour to industry, including recruitment and placing of foreign workers; (6) the administration of the Disabled Persons (Employment) Act, 1944, including provision of industrial rehabilitation and vocational training for disabled persons; (7) assistance in the prevention and settlement of industrial disputes, including the encouragement of the means for voluntary negotiation and the provision of conciliation and arbitration services; (8) the registration, medical examination, call-up and reinstatement in civil employment of persons affected by the National Service Acts; (9) the collection and publication of labour statistics; (10) the administration of the Factories Acts and miscellaneous work relating to the safety, health and welfare of workers; (11) United Kingdom Government policy in connection with the International Labour Organization and on economic and social questions arising in other international organizations; (12) agency work for other Government Departments, such as payment of unemployment benefit for the Ministry of Pensions and National Insurance, and payment of grants for the National Assistance Board.

For further information on the Ministry of Labour and National Service see pp. 216-19.

The Central Land Board

The Central Land Board was set up by the Minister of Town and Country Planning (now the Minister of Housing and Local Government) and the Secretary of State for Scotland under the provisions of the Town and Country Planning Act, 1947, and the corresponding Scottish Act.

By a Government decision the members of the War Damage Commission, which was instituted in 1941 to operate the scheme of payment for damage by enemy action to land and buildings in the United Kingdom, were appointed to the Board. Thus, the same officials have two distinct and separate functions.

The financial provisions of the 1947 Acts with which the Board is concerned have recently been under review by the Government. A White Paper (*Cmd. 8699*) containing proposals¹ for amending legislation was published in November 1952, since when the main functions of the Board have been to continue to assess and collect outstanding development charges (see footnote p. 254), and to complete the determination, assessment and payment of claims for compensation in respect of depreciation of land values brought about by the provisions of the 1947 Acts.

The Law Officers' Department

The Law Officers of the Crown for England and Wales² are the Attorney-General and the Solicitor-General, who represent the Crown in courts of justice, act as legal advisers to Government Departments on important matters, and represent them in court. They are assisted by Junior Counsel to the Treasury. The appointments are political, and the Attorney-General may be in the Cabinet. The Attorney-General also has certain administrative functions, of which the most important is the supervision of the Department of the Director of Public Prosecutions.

The Lord Chancellor's Office

The Chancellorship is a legislative, judicial and executive office always carrying Cabinet rank. The office is political in that it is held by an eminent ex-member of the Bench or of the Bar adhering to the political party in power.

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 appoints and removes Justices of the Peace; 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.³ The Lord Chancellor is also a member of the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council, exercises ecclesiastical patronage and is connected with a number of administrative tribunals, including the Pensions Appeal Tribunals, and the Lands Tribunal, which determines questions relating to compensation for the compulsory acquisition of land, and hears rating appeals from local valuation courts. The Land Registry, which is responsible for maintaining a State register of title to land,⁴ and the Public 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 Ministry of Materials

The Ministry of Materials was established in 1951 to take over the responsibilities of the Ministry of Supply and the Board of Trade in connection with the supply of certain

¹These proposals have been implemented in part by the Town and Country Planning Act, 1953.

²For details of the Law Officers for Scotland see p. 45.

³The Judge Advocate of the Fleet is responsible for these matters in the Royal Navy.

⁴Title must be so registered and guaranteed by the State in certain compulsory areas, but elsewhere registration is voluntary.

raw materials, including non-ferrous and light metals in unwrought form, the basic raw materials of the chemical industry, hides, skins, leather and tanning materials, natural and synthetic rubber, raw cotton, raw wool and other animal fibres, raw jute, raw silk and timber.

The Ministry is charged with the duty of securing adequate supplies of these and any other materials for which it is responsible; where these materials are dealt with on public account the Ministry is responsible for their purchase and sale. Its functions also include negotiating on behalf of the United Kingdom in international conferences discussing material shortages; promoting increased production of scarce materials, their economical use, salvage and recovery; and developing the production and use of substitutes.

The National Assistance Board

The National Assistance Board is responsible for administering 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. It has also responsibilities for assessing the needs of applicants for free legal aid (see p. 69).

The National Assistance Board is responsible to Parliament through the Minister of Pensions and National Insurance.

For further information on the National Assistance Board see p. 234.

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 is an important feature of the work of the Department.

In the Government formed in 1951, the Paymaster-General was specially charged with the supervision of atomic energy research and production and with the direction of the Prime Minister's Statistical Branch.

The Ministry of Pensions and National Insurance

On 31st August 1953 the Ministry of Pensions (established in 1916) and the Ministry of National Insurance (established in 1944) were amalgamated.

The Ministry of Pensions and National Insurance is responsible (a) for the social security services established by the Family Allowances Act, 1945, the National Insurance Act, 1946, and the National Insurance (Industrial Injuries) Act, 1946, and for reciprocal national insurance arrangements with other countries, and (b) for the award and payment of war pensions and allowances¹ for disablement and death due to service in the armed forces of the Crown, or due to war injuries sustained by merchant seamen, civil defence personnel and civilians in the second world war, and for the welfare of pensioners and their dependants and war orphans.¹

The Ministry has two Parliamentary Secretaries, one to deal with war pensions and one with National Insurance matters.

For further information on the Ministry of Pensions and National Insurance see p. 229.

¹In addition to these responsibilities for war pensioners in the United Kingdom, the Ministry is also responsible for the administration of United Kingdom war pensions for pensioners resident in the Irish Republic, and for the administration of United Kingdom war pensions and the medical treatment for war disablement operating through the Pensions Office at Ottawa and for the various agency arrangements operating in different parts of the world. The Ministry is also financially responsible for contractual arrangements with the two Ulster Volunteer Force Hospitals for the treatment and rehabilitation of war pensioners in Northern Ireland.

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. Its work is mainly concerned with the operation of the inland postal, telegraph and telephone services and, in co-operation with other countries and interests, of the oversea postal and telecommunications services. It also undertakes certain banking functions, including the operation of the Post Office Savings Bank and the issue of money orders, and it acts as an agent for many other Government Departments in the collection of revenue and the payments of grants and allowances, such as National Insurance payments, old age and certain other pensions and family allowances.

In addition, the Engineering Department of the Post Office carries out a considerable volume of scientific research and technical development.

For further information on the Post Office see pp. 209-213 and 272.

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 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.

For further information on the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research see p. 267.

The Stationery Office

Her Majesty's Stationery Office was established in 1786. It is the Government's central organization for the supply of office equipment, office machinery, and published books and periodicals for the public service both in the United Kingdom and overseas. It also undertakes duplicating and distributing services for other Departments. In addition, the Stationery Office is the publisher for the Government and has offices for the sale of Government publications of all kinds. Any questions pertaining to the Stationery Office asked in the House of Commons are answered by the Financial Secretary to the Treasury.

The Ministry of Supply

The Ministry of Supply was formed in 1946 by the amalgamation of the wartime Ministries of Supply and Aircraft Production.

The primary function of the Ministry is to furnish supplies to the armed forces and 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 are to sponsor the production of certain goods which are of economic importance at the present time and to carry the primary Government responsibility in the field of engineering, including the associated task of administering any controls of iron and steel and of certain non-ferrous and light metals; to develop new types of civil aircraft, including those required by the national airlines, and to undertake research on and the production of atomic-energy.¹

¹In April 1953 the Prime Minister announced that a committee had been appointed to devise a plan for transferring responsibility for atomic energy projects from the Ministry of Supply to a non-departmental organization.

The Ministry also 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 organizations.

The Board of Trade

The Board of Trade, which is headed by a President, assisted by a Minister of State who is specially concerned with oversea trade, and by a Parliamentary Secretary, was formally constituted by an Order in Council of 1786. It has a general responsibility in relation to the United Kingdom's commerce, industry and oversea trade, and carries the central responsibility among Government Departments for the formulation of policy in certain economic fields.

The most important of the latter are: commercial relations and negotiations with other countries, including international commodity policy and the commercial aspect of relations with international bodies; general import and export policy; policy on the United Kingdom protective tariffs; consumer protection, including, for example, policy on price control, resale price maintenance, monopolies and restrictive practices and merchandise marks; matters affecting industrial productivity, and publicity for methods of increasing it; and distribution of industry, including implementation of the Distribution of Industry Acts (see pp. 130 and 255).

The Board is also responsible for the following matters: (1) statistics of trade and industry, including the Censuses of Production and Distribution; (2) the administration of certain regulative legislation, mainly in relation to patents, registered designs, copyright and trade marks, companies and bankruptcy, insurance, weights and measures, and enemy property; and (3) policy towards and relations with certain non-Government organizations concerned with trade and industry, such as the British Standards Institution, the British Institute of Management, the British Travel and Holidays Association, the Council of Industrial Design and the National Research Development Corporation.

In addition, the Board is the 'production department' (see p. 134) for all industries which are not the concern of other Departments, chief among which are the textile industries and a large part of the chemical industry.

For further information on the Board of Trade see pp. 120, 122-3.

The Ministry of Transport and Civil Aviation

On 1st October 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 1939, 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 organize, 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 the following branches of inland transport and merchant shipping: railways; inland waterways; roads, bridges and ferries, and the vehicles they carry; harbours, docks, piers, and river conservancy; national and international shipping policy; ships, their masters, officers and men; safety of life at sea; navigation (including some aspects of pilotage and the administration of the Lighthouse Fund); wreck and salvage; and the Coastguard Service. The Ministry is also the highway authority for trunk roads, of which there are over 8,000 miles (12,875 km.), and is responsible for providing and operating troopships.

In civil aviation matters, the Minister of Transport and Civil Aviation 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.

Additional civil aviation responsibilities include: the provision, administration and equipment of State-controlled aerodromes and other ground services in the United Kingdom; the regulation of civil flying; air safety and the investigation of accidents; the adoption in the United Kingdom of the standards and practices recommended by the International Civil Aviation Organization; the negotiation of international air transport agreements; the registration of aircraft; and the examination and licensing of aircrew.

The Ministry of Transport and Civil Aviation has two Parliamentary Secretaries, one to deal with transport matters and one with civil aviation.

For further information on the Ministry of Transport and Civil Aviation see pp. 185, 188-9, 194, 201, 207 and 271.

The War Office

The office of Secretary of State for War was established in 1854 as a preliminary to abolishing the office of Secretary of State at War, which had been in existence since the beginning of the century. In 1904 the Army Council was constituted on the model of the Board of Admiralty, with the Secretary of State as president and a mixed membership of military and civil personnel.

The War Office is responsible for the administrative control of the Army, including appointments, promotion, postings and payment, and 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.

For further information on the War Office see p. 84.

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 accommodation for Government Departments (including public buildings overseas), either by the design and erection of new buildings or the leasing, requisition and adaptation of existing buildings; the design, purchase, supply and maintenance of furniture and equipment for Government Departments and certain other bodies, and the supply of fuel, household articles and stores; the maintenance of, and advisory services in connection with, ancient monuments and historic buildings; the maintenance of certain Royal Palaces; and the management and maintenance of the Royal Parks and Pleasure Gardens. The Ministry is also responsible for the control of building licensing, certain building materials and fitments and the registration of building and civil engineering undertakings; for the oversight of the national building programme and the allocation of certain controlled materials among various users; and for the review of research and development work in connection with building requirements and the communication of the results to 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. In 1926, all the powers and duties attached to the office were transferred by the Secretaries of State Act to a principal Secretary of State.

The functions of the Secretary of State, who is assisted at ministerial level by a Minister of State, three Parliamentary Under-Secretaries and the Scottish law officers, 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 the whole system of Scottish administration.

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 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; 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; and for legislation concerning shops, theatres, cinemas and licensed premises. Licensed premises in the State Management Districts¹ are directly maintained by the Department.

Other functions of the Department are: general duties in connection with the structure and finance of local authorities, including valuation and rating and the administration of the Exchequer equalization grants; and the oversight and protection of the Scottish inshore, deep-sea and freshwater fisheries. The Department is also closely concerned, in co-operation with the Board of Trade and other United Kingdom Departments, with Scottish economic development, including the work of the North of Scotland Hydro-Electric Board 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 and for the supervision of the house-building programme and the distribution of grants to local authorities for housing purposes; and for the control, under the Town and Country Planning (Scotland) Acts, of the use of land and the establishment of new towns under the New Towns Act.

The Department is also responsible for the administration of various environmental and welfare services, e.g., water supplies, sewerage, and the care of the aged; 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 was reconstituted in 1939. Its present functions include: supervising the administration of the Education (Scotland) Acts; guiding the development of public education in Scotland in all its forms; supervising the training of teachers, issuing teachers' certificates and administering the Teachers' Superannuation Scheme; controlling the distribution of Exchequer grants-in-aid of educational expenditure; conducting the annual examination for the Scottish Leaving Certificate; exercising

¹Districts in which State management of the liquor trade is in operation.

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. The Department is responsible in Scotland for the management of agricultural property owned by the Secretary of State; for the administration and finance of various instructional, advisory and research services provided by agricultural colleges and research institutes; for the administration of subsidies and other services in connection with food production, the use of land and the economics of the agricultural industry; for the administration of agricultural improvement schemes and of labour, machinery and supply services; and for the protection of agricultural interests generally.

Minor Departments

In addition to the main Departments, there are a number of minor Scottish Departments, including the Department of the Registrar General for Scotland,¹ all of which work in varying degrees under the direction of the Secretary of State. There are also the Scottish branches of the 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 the United Kingdom Departments of the same name—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 purchases; for the reception and preservation of public records; for the work of the Registrar-General; for the control of Government publications; for the control and administration of charitable donations and bequests; and for the control of borrowings.

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

¹The General Registry Office (see footnote p. 6).

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; motor vehicles and road traffic; railways; harbours and inland waterways; fisheries; the development of the tourist traffic; the regulation and inspection of mines and quarries; mineral development; scientific development; the registration of companies and trade unions; the administration of the Assurance Companies Acts and the Industrial Assurance (Northern Ireland) Act, 1924. The Ministry also performs functions delegated by the Ministry of Fuel and Power (Whitehall) relating to the distribution of coal and other solid fuels.

The Ministry of Health and Local Government

In addition to its work in connection with the National Health Service, the Department is responsible for the central administration of local government services.

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 promotion of joint organizations for the settlement of industrial questions and of machinery of conciliation in industrial disputes; for the administration of local employment offices and the machinery for dealing with employment questions of all kinds; for the administration of the National Insurance 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 or 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 400,000 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.

Legally, therefore, the civil servant is a servant of the Crown. In practice, he serves the Minister in charge of his Department, or, in the case of a few Departments, the Board or Commission responsible to Parliament, by advising in the formulation of policy and by carrying out policy decisions once they have been taken.

Development of the Modern Civil Service

The Civil Service in its present form is a product of the past one hundred years. Before then, Departments were wholly 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 organize 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 reorganization. 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 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.

Control of the Service

The general control of the Service is in the hands of the Treasury, as the Department responsible for ensuring that the amount of money voted by Parliament for the activities of the Civil Service is not exceeded and that the money itself is spent in the best and most economical way. The Treasury therefore examines and approves (or disapproves) all new proposals for spending public money; sanctions (or vetoes) increases of staff; regulates the salaries and conditions of employment of civil servants; supervises training for the Civil Service; and continually keeps under review the machinery of government.

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

Structure of the Service

At the head of each important Government Department is the Minister (sometimes known as the Secretary of State), who is assisted by one or more junior Ministers. Directly responsible to the Minister is the permanent Head of the Department—the Permanent Secretary (sometimes known as the Permanent Under-Secretary of State)—who is supported in the higher direction of the work by a Deputy Secretary and a varying number of Under-Secretaries and Assistant Secretaries.

Departmental Organization

The internal organization of Departments varies according to the work allotted to them by the Government of the day. Most Departments are, however, divided into branches, divisions and sections, each responsible for some portion of the Department's activities in decreasing order of size and scope. Two branches are common to all Departments: a Finance Branch, which is responsible for financial matters and accounting, and an Establishments Branch, which is responsible for staff matters. In the larger Departments, the Establishments Branch usually contains what is called an 'Organization and Methods' division, the members of which act in an advisory capacity as 'efficiency experts' for improving the way in which the Department arranges its work and eliminating all that is not strictly essential to the tasks in hand. Smaller Departments are advised by the 'Organization and Methods' division of the Treasury.

Classes and Grades

The majority of civil servants working in the United Kingdom¹ are divided into four main classes, 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 at present numbers about 3,000, is recruited largely from university graduates.

¹A number of civil servants work overseas in the Foreign Service (see p. 35) and the Colonial Service (see footnote p. 33) and for other Government Departments such as the Commonwealth Relations Office (see p. 33).

2. The *Executive Class* (numbering 70,000 in April 1953), 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 must have reached a recognized educational standard; after entry they may train for specialist work such as that of an auditor, actuary or statistician.
3. The *Clerical Class* (the largest of the main classes, comprising about 200,000 officers), 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 summarizing and annotation of documents for the assistance of senior officers.
4. The *Typing Class* (about 30,000 members), which consists of shorthand typists, copy typists and learner typists.

Other classes are: the *Professional, Scientific and Technical Classes*, which consist of 74,000 civil servants with the necessary qualifications (e.g., doctors, lawyers, engineers, information officers and research workers) for carrying out the wide range of specialized duties which are now discharged by the Government; the *Departmental Classes*, which are not found throughout the Service generally but are normally confined to one or two Departments, e.g., the Tax Inspectorate of the Inland Revenue Department, the Factory Inspectorate of the Ministry of Labour and National Service, and the Waterguard of the Customs and Excise Department; and the *Manipulative Classes*, which include large numbers (over 240,000 in 1953) of postal and telegraph officers, postmen, telephonists, messengers, paper keepers, office cleaners and similar workers in Government Departments and their immediate supervisors.

In July 1953 the total number of non-industrial civil servants in all these classes at home and overseas (including the Post Office staff) was 662,975; approximately one-third of this total were women.

Organization of the Staff

The engagement and position of all civil servants is covered by regulation, agreement and traditional practice. Every civil servant thus has a definite status, depending upon the post which he fills.

Recruitment

The recruitment of all permanent civil servants¹ is in the hands of the Civil Service Commission, whose 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, consisting of written examinations or interviews, or both. The points of entry into the four main classes of the 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.

Training

Each of the larger Government Departments has a Training Officer and a number of instructors, who organize both general and technical courses where necessary. Methods

¹There are a number of 'temporary' civil servants, who are not entitled to pensions.

vary from Department to Department, but nearly all have systematic instruction of recruits in all classes. 'Refresher' courses for the established staff are often held, in which emphasis is placed on helping the civil servant to appreciate fully how his work relates to the general work of his Department, and how the work of his Department affects the community as a whole.

Methods of training include the use of films and instructional books; discussion groups; and educational visits, which enable civil servants to study the workings of outside bodies, where these touch their own duties. In addition, officers in the early years of their service are transferred from branch to branch and sometimes from Department to Department, in order that they may gain as wide an experience as possible of civil service activities.

The functions of Training Officers are co-ordinated by the Training and Education Division of the Treasury, which also undertakes the task of training the departmental instructors themselves, and provides central courses, on entry, for members of the Administrative Class.

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 the Departments; those from class to class partly through centrally conducted limited competitions¹ and partly by Departments themselves. All promotions to the Administrative Class from other classes require Treasury approval. Promotions to the highest positions in the Civil Service, e.g., Permanent Secretaries, Principal Establishments Officers and Principal Finance Officers, must be approved by the Prime Minister, who is advised in these matters by the Permanent Secretary to the Treasury.

*Conditions of Service*²

Machinery for negotiation on conditions of service affecting the Civil Service as a whole is provided by a system of Whitley Councils, comprising a National Council and about 80 departmental councils, each composed jointly of official and staff representatives. Negotiating machinery for separate sections of the Service is provided by 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.

In general, the civil servant receives a salary which, except in the highest posts, compares reasonably with that paid for similar work outside the Service, with regular annual increments up to the maximum of the scale of the grade to which he belongs. In addition, although he holds office at the pleasure of the Crown and may therefore be dismissed at any time, he enjoys, in practice, 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, at present, 45½ hours. The highest administrative officials, who work the longest hours, receive no extra remuneration for extra work performed. Annual leave varies according to the grade up to a maximum, at present, of 36 days a year. Sick leave on full pay may

¹Competitions open only to serving members of specified civil service classes.

²A review of the pay of the Civil Service, including the principles which should govern it, and of other conditions of service such as hours of work and annual leave, is being undertaken by a Royal Commission set up in July 1953.

be granted to established, i.e. permanent, civil servants for up to six months in any twelve months, and on reduced pay up to a maximum of one year's paid sick leave in any four years.

Political and Private Activities

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. Save, however, for the fact that all civil servants are debarred by statute from being Members of Parliament, restrictions on political activities are imposed only to the extent that they are necessary in order to preserve the confidence of the public in the political impartiality of the Civil Service. Civil servants in most of the minor grades are allowed complete political freedom; and those in the higher classes whose political activities are restricted are given as much freedom as possible to play their part in those spheres of public life which are not matters of party controversy. Civil servants may, of course, exercise the right of all citizens to register their private political opinions on appropriate occasions, e.g., at a General Election.

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, however, must not 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 or experience 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 characterize the Service to which he belongs.

PUBLIC CORPORATIONS AND STATE-SPONSORED BODIES

Public Corporations

Since the beginning of the present century, the public corporation has been favoured as an instrument for the regulation of industrial and semi-industrial undertakings in the public interest. As a device of administration, however, it is very much older; its history in the United Kingdom can be traced back to the corporate bodies of the Middle Ages and its influence can be discerned in nearly all institutions of public control (except Government Departments) established during the past four centuries.

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, they are free from full and continuous ministerial control.

Financially, certain of the corporations are self-supporting; that is to say, their revenue from operations over a period of years is expected to cover running costs and the interest charges on the loans they have received. Others receive Exchequer grants to help them in carrying out the duties with which they have been charged. In general the self-supporting corporations enjoy a greater measure of independence in their work.

Internal Organization

From the point of view of internal organization and scope, there are almost as many kinds of corporation as there are industries and services administered in this way. The comparatively small pre-war corporations, e.g., the London Passenger Transport Board,¹

¹Superseded in 1947 by the London Transport Executive under the provisions of the Transport Act, 1947.

the Central Electricity Board,¹ and the British Broadcasting Corporation,² had no standard pattern of any kind. They were designed as conveniently as possible to reorganize and to operate for the public benefit some service that required co-ordination, or that was developing so rapidly that, in the public interest, some form of public assistance and control was needed; and even their governing bodies varied in method of appointment and in composition. The governors of the British Broadcasting Corporation, for example, are appointed by the Crown; the London Passenger Transport Board was an expert functional board appointed by an independent body of Appointing Trustees; while of the members of the Central Electricity Board, who were appointed by the responsible minister (before the second world war the Minister of Transport), only the chairman had any executive functions.

The post-war corporations resemble the pre-war corporations in the diversity of their general structure, organization and methods, having been similarly designed to suit the particular needs of the various industries under public control. They are, however, less varied in the composition of their governing boards, all of which (except that of the Bank of England, whose court of directors is appointed by the Crown) are directly appointed by the responsible minister, who also has full powers of dismissal.

Public Control

The powers and duties of the boards of the nationalized industries are broadly defined in the Acts under which they have been set up. Their autonomy is limited by the fact that they are appointed by a minister who has reserve powers to issue directions to them on major matters of policy affecting the public interest. Other measures of control are provided: in the first place by the Parliamentary debates which take place on the activities of the corporations when their annual Reports and Accounts are presented to the House of Commons, and, at intervals, in the course of usual procedure on Estimates; and, secondly, by the existence of Consumer Councils which represent the interests of the general public. In their Report published in July 1953, the Select Committee on Nationalized Industries recommended as a further measure the appointment of a Committee of the House of Commons by Standing Order, to examine the nationalized industries with a view to obtaining further information as to their general policy and practice. It would be the duty of the Committee to inform Parliament about the aims, activities and problems of the Corporations, but not to control their work. In matters of day-to-day administration and management, however, the boards would remain perfectly free.

Operation of Major Industries and Services

Two of the post-war corporations were established merely to take over and administer an existing institution already functioning as a unit: the Bank of England (see p. 104), which under the Bank of England Act, 1946, enjoys freedom of action subject only to such instructions as the Treasury may from time to time issue in the public interest after consultation with the court of directors; and Cable and Wireless Limited (see p. 212), which under the Cable and Wireless Act, 1946, is a publicly owned company controlled by a board of directors appointed by the Postmaster-General, working in close connection with the Post Office in the operation of oversea telecommunication services. The other corporations established since 1945 to operate major industries and services are new organizations for which new administrative machinery has been set up. These include:

The National Coal Board (see pp. 158-60). The Board consists of a chairman, two deputy chairmen, four full-time and five part-time members. It is a non-functional board responsible for its own regional organization. It has split up its undertaking into nine

¹Its functions were transferred to the British Electricity Authority by the Electricity Act, 1947, and it was dissolved in 1948.

²For further information on the British Broadcasting Corporation see p. 281.

divisions (each controlled by a separate board) covering the main coalfields of the United Kingdom. Collieries in the divisions are grouped into 50 area organizations which work in conjunction with the managers of individual collieries.

The British Transport Commission (see p. 189). As established by the Transport Act, 1947, the British Transport Commission was a small controlling and policy-making body (normally composed of a chairman, a deputy chairman, three full-time and three part-time members), in which was vested the responsibility for the various nationalized undertakings of the transport industry in Great Britain.

Under the Transport Act, 1953, substantial alterations were made in the composition and duties of the Commission, which may now have up to fourteen members besides the chairman, all of whom may be part-time members.

Formerly the Commission delegated management functions to six Executives, five of which have now been abolished. The remaining Executive, the London Transport Executive, has its own independent subordinate structure, but is finally responsible to the Commission.

The British Electricity Authority and fourteen Area Electricity Boards (see p. 161). The central authority is a partly functional board consisting of a chairman, two deputy chairmen, one full-time and eight part-time members. It controls the general policy of the whole industry throughout Great Britain except for Northern Scotland (for which there is a separate authority, the North of Scotland Hydro-Electric Board), and it is responsible for the generation and bulk supply of electricity to the statutory Area Boards. It has subdivided the generating side of the industry into 14 divisions, corresponding geographically with the Area Boards.

The Area Boards are responsible for the distribution of electricity. Each consists of a full-time chairman and deputy chairman and five or six part-time members. The chairman of the Area Consultative Council¹ is an *ex-officio* member. Four of the chairmen of the Area Boards serve in rotation as members of the Authority, and the chairman of the North of Scotland Hydro-Electric Board is an *ex-officio* member.

The Area Boards are mainly autonomous, although the central authority has certain powers of supervision. Their areas are divided into between four and nine sub-areas and the sub-areas are divided into a number of districts.

The Gas Council and the Area Gas Boards (see p. 164). Each of the 12 Area Boards, which are responsible both for the manufacture of gas and for distribution to consumers, consists of a full-time chairman and deputy chairman, in some cases one full-time member, and always five or six part-time members including the chairman of the Area Consultative Council. There is no common pattern of organization; each board is fully independent and has devised its own subordinate structure.

The Gas Council is the national body and consists of a full-time chairman and deputy chairman and the 12 chairmen of the Area Boards. It is an advisory and co-ordinating council, and it has extensive powers over the Area Boards in the matter of finance.

The British Overseas Airways Corporation (see pp. 201-4). The Corporation is controlled by a board consisting of a chairman, a deputy chairman and eight members. It operates a world-wide network of long-distance air services radiating from the United Kingdom.

The British European Airways Corporation (see pp. 201-3 and 204-5). The board consists of a chairman, deputy chairman, chief executive and four members, who include representatives of regional interests in the United Kingdom. The Corporation provide scheduled air services within the United Kingdom and Europe.

¹A statutory council representing consumer interests. Councils and committees of this kind are common to most of the post-war corporations.

The Colonial Development Corporation. The board consists of a chairman, deputy chairman and seven part-time members. Its duty is to investigate, formulate and carry out commercial projects for developing Colonial resources. It may assume direct responsibility for the initiation and management of any project, or it may participate in a project with other bodies, both public and private. There is consultation with Colonial Governments before projects are launched.

State-sponsored Bodies

In addition to the public corporations there are a number of other permanent and temporary organizations which are under some degree of public control or receive some degree of public support. These range from bodies which are virtually extensions of Government Departments to those which are completely independent voluntary associations, but yet receive a special degree of official recognition. The definition and classification of State-sponsored bodies must therefore be to some extent arbitrary, while even within a narrow definition it is impossible for reasons of space to describe them all in this section. The following examples are intended to be no more than a representative sample of those permanent organizations which have been set up by Statute or are financed wholly or partly out of public funds but yet have certain powers of independent administrative or executive action. Purely advisory organizations and those with judicial or quasi-judicial functions (e.g., tribunals for arbitrating in industrial disputes), educational institutions and research associations are omitted.

Provision of Nation-wide Services

The following bodies, which are not public corporations, provide services on a nation-wide scale.

The National Dock Labour Board administers the scheme for giving permanent employment to dock workers under the Dock Workers (Regulation of Employment) Act, 1947. It consists of a chairman, vice-chairman and eight members appointed by the Minister of Labour and National Service on the nomination of the National Joint Council for the Port Transport Industry, four to represent dock employers and four to represent dock workers.

The Corporation of Trinity House is administered by a Board of ten Elder Brethren elected from the Royal Navy and the Merchant Service. The Corporation, which received its first Royal Charter in the sixteenth century, is the general lighthouse authority for England and Wales, the Channel Islands and Gibraltar. 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.

The Imperial War Graves Commission was founded in 1917 to commemorate the war dead of the Commonwealth by keeping the memorials, graves and gardens of British war cemeteries in permanent good order. The Commission consists of 19 members representing the United Kingdom and the Commonwealth Governments. The cost of its operations is borne by each member of the Commonwealth in proportion to the number of graves of its dead.

Remploy Ltd. (see p. 219) is a non-profit-making public company, with no share capital, established in accordance with the provisions of the Disabled Persons (Employment) Act, 1944. Its objects are to provide training and employment facilities to 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.

Provision of Local Services

The majority of local services are provided by local authorities. Other bodies concerned include various types of dock and harbour authorities, water boards and river conservancy boards. The following examples illustrate their general nature and functions.

The Metropolitan Water Board (see p. 167) consists of 66 voluntary part-time members, who are the elected representatives of the various local authorities within the Board's area of operations, and a salaried chairman and vice-chairman, chosen by members of the Board for their experience in water undertakings. The Metropolitan Water Board is responsible for providing an adequate supply of pure water in the London area.

The Port of London Authority consists of 28 members representing all the port interests, and a chairman and vice-chairman. The chairman and vice-chairman are elected by the members, but not necessarily from within their own ranks. The Authority controls a statutory undertaking independent of the Government and the local authorities, and is responsible for 69 miles (111 km.) of one of the busiest waterways in the world and for the maintenance and operation of a dock estate with an aggregate area of over 4,000 acres (1,620 ha.). Conservancy duties of the Authority, under the Harbour Master, 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.

The Thames Conservancy Board (see pp. 168-9) consists of 34 conservators, each appointed by an interested local authority or other interested bodies as prescribed by the Thames Conservancy Act, 1932. The conservators are the navigation authority for 136 miles (219 km.) of the river Thames; they are responsible for the prevention of pollution in a catchment area of 3,812 square miles (9,873 sq. km.) and for all land drainage work in connection with the river.

The New Towns Development Corporations (see p. 255-6) consist of some eight members including a chairman and a deputy chairman. They are responsible for the development of the New Towns in the United Kingdom.

Trading Agencies

Trading in the United Kingdom is carried on for the most part by private trading companies. In the case of certain foodstuffs and raw materials, however, the Government either itself engages in buying and distributing or promotes the setting up of various types of statutory body as purchasing and marketing agents, as in the following examples.

The Raw Cotton Commission consists of a chairman, one or two full-time members and ten part-time members appointed by the Board of Trade. Established under the Cotton (Centralized Buying) Act, 1947, it was made responsible for 'buying, importing into the United Kingdom and holding and distributing therein all raw cotton required for the purposes of the cotton industry'.

Since 1952, however, spinners and other users of raw cotton have been free to buy their cotton either on their own account or from the Commission. It is expected that about 56 per cent of the raw cotton to be imported in the year ending 31st August 1954 will be on private account.

Agricultural Marketing Boards (see p. 143) are producers' organizations established as part of the scheme brought into force under the provisions of the Agricultural Marketing Acts, 1931, 1933 and 1949, to regulate the marketing of certain agricultural produce. Under the terms of the 1949 Act, the Boards may consist of between 8 and 24 members (unless for any reason the Minister of Agriculture wishes to increase the number), of whom up to one-fifth may be persons appointed by the Minister. The Boards are partly financed from public funds.

Provision of Finance

The distinction between State-sponsored and independent bodies is particularly difficult to draw in the case of central financial institutions. In general these institutions, though subject to some guidance by the Treasury and the Bank of England, are neither statutory nor financially dependent on grants from the Exchequer. The following organizations are, however, exceptions to this rule.

The Public Works Loan Board was originally constituted under the Public Works Loans Act, 1875, to make certain local loans out of moneys provided by the Exchequer. The scope of its operations has been extended by subsequent Acts, and, from 1945 to 1952, it was the only source from which local authorities could normally borrow.¹

The 12 commissioners who constitute the Board are appointed by Royal Warrant.

The National Film Finance Corporation (see p. 276) is a statutory corporation established under the Cinematograph Films Production (Special Loan) Act, 1949. Its function is to make loans to film distributors in order to help to finance the production of films. Its members—a chairman, a managing director, and three to five others—are appointed by the Board of Trade and its funds are provided by advances from the Board of Trade.

Scottish Agricultural Securities Corporation Ltd. is a limited company whose shares are held by Scottish banks. It was set up in accordance with the provisions of the Agricultural Credits (Scotland) Act, 1929, to grant loans on favourable terms for agricultural purposes on the security of agricultural land in Scotland. It receives a grant from the Treasury to cover losses resulting from its reduction of interest rates.

Industrial Production and Development

Organizations set up by the Government with the object of assisting industry in particular ways include the following bodies.

Development Councils may be set up under the provisions of the Industrial Organization and Development Act, 1947, by Departments responsible for the industry concerned. The purpose of the Councils is to provide firms in an industry with those services (research, design, statistics, personnel training, etc.) which individual firms cannot afford out of their resources. There are at present development councils for the cotton industry (the Cotton Board), and for the furniture industry. A development council for jewellery and silverware, which had been set up, was dissolved on 18th February 1953, while a Joint Clothing Council, a voluntary body representative of both sides of the clothing industry, was incorporated on 31st January 1953 as a company limited by guarantee, to take the place of the Clothing Development Council, which had been dissolved on 1st December 1952.

Industrial Estate Companies are registered non-profit-making companies which build, manage and maintain factories and industrial estates in the Development Areas (see p. 130). Their directors are unpaid and are appointed by the Board of Trade to act as its agents, and their capital is provided from Government sources. The companies include North Western Industrial Estates Ltd., North-East Trading Estates Ltd., Scottish Industrial Estates Ltd., Wales and Monmouthshire Trading Estates Ltd., and West Cumberland Industrial Development Company Ltd. Besides estates controlled and financed in this way there are other industrial estates operated by private firms or local authorities.

The Herring Industry Board (see p. 154) is responsible for reorganizing, developing and regulating the herring industry. It consists of a chairman and two other members, all part-time and independent of the industry, who are appointed jointly by the Secretary of State for Scotland, the Minister of Agriculture and Fisheries and the Secretary of State for the Home Department. The Board is financed in part by Government grants.

¹Since January 1953, local authorities have been free to borrow on the open market if they wish.

The White Fish Authority (see p. 154) is responsible for developing and regulating the white fish industry in Great Britain. It consists of five members appointed jointly by the Minister of Agriculture and Fisheries, the Secretary of State for Scotland and the Minister of Food.

Maintenance and Improvement of Standards of Skill and Quality

Organizations set up or supported by the Government to encourage the maintenance and improvement of skill and quality in industry and of professional standards include the following bodies.

The Council of Industrial Design consists of 22 members, including a chairman appointed by the President of the Board of Trade. The purpose of the Council is to promote by all practicable means the improvement of design in the products of British industry.

The Air Registration Board, set up in February 1937 under the Air Navigation Act, 1936, consists of about 18 members, of whom some are appointed by the Minister of Transport and Civil Aviation and others represent the interests concerned with civil aviation (operators, constructors and insurers). The Board is responsible for certain functions in connection with the design, construction and maintenance of civil aircraft and for advising the Minister on these matters.

The British Standards Institution, a voluntary non-profit-making body constituted in 1901 and incorporated by Royal Charter, is the national organization for the promulgation of standard methods of testing, codes of practice, terms, definitions, symbols and specifications, mainly in the engineering field but also increasingly for consumer goods. It is governed by a General Council consisting of representatives of the main organizations of employers and workpeople, the professional institutions and the larger Government Departments, and it receives a Government grant.

Encouragement of the Arts

Government interest in the arts in the United Kingdom is expressed mainly through the provision of grants to such bodies as the Arts Council.

The Arts Council of Great Britain (see pp. 277-9) 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 of the fine arts, and to advise and co-operate with Government Departments, local authorities and other bodies on any matter connected directly or indirectly with these objects.

Oversea Cultural Relations

The British Council (see pp. 273-4, 277 and 280) exists to promote overseas a wider knowledge of the United Kingdom and the English language 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.

In about 60 oversea countries, the Council maintains centres which foster English studies and provide regular information on British life and thought. Through libraries and exhibitions of books, by means of documentary films, and by lectures given by the

local staffs or by distinguished experts sent abroad on short tours, and in a variety of other ways, it promotes knowledge of the scientific, artistic and other developments and achievements of the United Kingdom.

In the United Kingdom itself, the Council arranges study programmes for scholars and teachers from overseas, and other professional visitors. It also provides a wide range of services for students from overseas, particularly those from the Colonies, who are studying in United Kingdom universities and other educational institutions.

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 national 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.

Recent changes have not affected the structure of local government, nor its importance as part of the administrative system as a whole. In the United Kingdom, it remains as an essential link between the individual and the central Departments of State.

Relations between Central and Local Government

As the supreme authority in the United Kingdom, Parliament controls local authorities by prescribing and defining policies which elected local councils are required to implement by specific Acts. The scope of local government is limited by the same means; no council may go beyond the boundary 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, authorization of loans, the issue of advisory circulars and statutory Rules and Orders, the approval of byelaws, and the administration of Government grants.

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 subdivided into parishes (except in Northern Ireland). Each of these divisions is administered by a different kind of local council, as follows:

England and Wales

county councils (61)
 county borough councils (83)
 non-county borough councils (309)
 urban district councils (571)
 rural district councils (475)
 parish councils (about 7,300) or
 parish meetings (about 3,800)

Northern Ireland

county councils (6)
 county borough councils (2)
 non-county borough councils and
 municipal town councils (9)
 urban district councils (24)
 town commissioners (3)
 rural district councils (32)

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
 the Metropolitan Borough Councils (28)

Scotland

The local authorities in Scotland are:

county councils (33, of which two pairs are combined for certain purposes)
 town councils (197, which are the authorities for counties of cities (4), other large burghs (20), and small burghs (173))
 district councils (199, two counties are not divided into districts).

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 Private Bill legislation.

The responsibilities of local authorities depend upon the type of council. For example, county borough councils are all-purpose authorities, while the county councils and county district councils, i.e. the non-county boroughs and the urban and rural districts in England and Wales and Northern Ireland, each 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 education and planning. In Scotland, the town councils of the counties of cities are all-purpose authorities. The town councils of large burghs are responsible for all services, except education and in a few cases police, which are administered by the county council, which also provides important services in the small burghs. The town councils of small burghs are responsible for housing and certain other functions. Outside the burghs the county council exercises most of the local government functions; a few of these functions are vested in district councils.

The services provided by the councils may be considered under three heads:

1. *Environmental Services*, which are services designed to secure and improve the citizens' surroundings. The majority are public health and sanitary services administered by the county district or parish councils (in London by the metropolitan borough councils and in Scotland by the county and town councils). There are also the services for street lighting, public safety on the highways, the provision of amenities such as parks and recreation grounds, which are generally administered by the same authorities. The important work of town and country planning is done in England and Wales by the county and county borough 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, provide and administer their own environmental services.

2. *Protective Services*, which include the fire service, the police service and the civil defence service. Except in London, these services are administered by the county councils and the county borough councils in England, Wales and Northern Ireland, or by joint boards of these authorities if neighbouring councils amalgamate; and in Scotland by the county councils and the town councils of large burghs or by joint boards. In London, the City Corporation has jurisdiction over the police force within its area, while the Commissioners of Police, responsible directly to the Home Secretary and appointed by him, control the Metropolitan Police Force (see p. 70). The fire service in London is administered by the London County Council, and civil defence partly by the county council and partly by the metropolitan boroughs and by the City Corporation.

3. *Personal Services*, which are services designed to 'cultivate the best physical, mental, and moral potentialities of each individual'. The type of authority concerned depends on the nature of the services, which range from maternity and child welfare, education, care of children and housing to the provision of entertainments. Services under this heading also include certain other health services, services for the aged and infirm, and the provision and upkeep of libraries, museums and art galleries.

There are also some trading services, e.g., civic restaurants, but these are now less widespread than during the war, as some of them, e.g., electricity and gas, have been handed over to national boards (see p. 52).

Local Authority Elections

Local government elections are held at statutory intervals according to local election rules.¹

Any person is entitled to vote at a local government election, provided that he or she is a British subject of 21 years or over or a citizen of the Irish Republic, is not serving a prison sentence, is not certified insane, is resident in the area for which the election is being held or has a non-resident qualification therein.² 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 the council, and in Scotland are the local lands valuation assessors.

Voting takes place at polling stations arranged by the council concerned, under the supervision of a returning officer specially appointed for the purpose. Every elector is expected to cast his vote in person, although members of the armed forces may vote by proxy and (except in rural district or parish council elections) voting by post, or in certain cases by proxy, may be allowed if it is impossible for the voter to attend. No elector may give more than one vote for one candidate, nor may he give more votes in all than the total number of councillors to be elected.

Candidates for election stand either as Independents or as representatives of one of the national or local political parties. Each candidate must be nominated by two electors, as proposer and seconder; and in England and Wales, except in the case of an election for metropolitan boroughs, eight other electors for the area must assent to the nomination; in Scotland, county and district council candidates require no assenters, town council candidates only five. Eligibility for nomination as a candidate depends in the first place upon registration as a local government elector for the area, and thereafter upon a number of statutory qualifications and disqualifications designed to secure that the candidate is a suitable person for the office.

In parliamentary elections, the contest is between several candidates for one seat. In

¹Mainly concerned with the machinery for elections, e.g., equipment of polling booths, sealing of ballot boxes, and keeping order at voting centres.

²A person is deemed to have a non-resident qualification in an electoral area in England and Wales if he is occupying as owner or tenant (in Scotland if he owns or occupies as tenant) any rateable land or premises therein of the yearly value of not less than ten pounds.

local government elections there are usually a good many seats to be filled, and nearly all county and non-county boroughs and metropolitan boroughs in England and Wales and many burghs in Scotland are divided into wards, the number of councillors elected for each ward varying between three and nine. The areas of all the other authorities, except county councils, may be so divided or they may be left as single units depending on their size. County elections are based on single-member constituencies formed by groups of parishes or by divisions regulated by the Home Secretary and the Secretary of State for Scotland in their respective countries. The London County Council is organized in two-member constituencies, which are the same as the parliamentary constituencies in its area.

Internal Organization 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. The arrangements made by most councils are briefly as follows: questions of policy and principle are 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 more or less the same relation as do 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 between about half a dozen in the case of 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 when local authorities co-operate for services which cannot be dealt with on purely local lines, e.g., water supply, or sewerage.

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.

Every council is empowered to appoint such staff as it deems necessary to carry out its work. Certain appointments are compulsory, e.g., the Clerk, the Treasurer and the Medical Officer of Health, the Surveyor and the Sanitary Inspector. Even the smallest parish council usually employs a clerk. Choice of personnel is left to the individual council.

Officers are normally of three kinds: heads of departments, 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 the county council in England and Wales). They are based on recommendations made by the Whitley Councils (see footnote 2, p. 221), 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 Industrial Councils for Local Authority Services. In England and Wales there are also two special joint committees, which have made recommendations with regard to the salaries and conditions of service of town clerks, county district council clerks and other local authority chief officers.

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

Local authorities derive their incomes from Government grants,¹ from local rates, from loans, from trading receipts, rents, fees and other miscellaneous sources.

Government grants are of four main types: percentage grants, which are agreed proportions of local government expenditure upon certain services approved by Government Departments, e.g., education, health, fire, police and children's services; unit grants, which depend exactly on the service provided; equalization grants, which are contributions to the general revenues of the poorer local authorities; and special grants, which are grants paid from time to time for some particular purpose.

Rates are a form of local taxation paid by the occupiers (and sometimes in Scotland also by the owners) of land and buildings in a local authority area as contributions to the cost of local services. They are levied by a poundage on the rateable value of property which, in England and Wales, is equivalent (subject to certain deductions) to the yearly rent that a willing tenant would pay and a willing landlord accept if the tenant paid rates and taxes and the landlord the cost of insurance and repairs. Valuation is undertaken by the Valuation Officers of the Inland Revenue; appeals may be made to independent Valuation Panels. In Scotland the primary basis of valuation is the annual rent payable. Valuation is carried out by assessors appointed by county councils and the town councils of large burghs, and appeals lie to a county or burgh Valuation Committee and thereafter to the Lands Valuation Appeal Court of the Court of Session.

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 a special rate for the parish levied by the appropriate rural district councils. 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 administered by the county council throughout the county, including the burgh. In Northern Ireland, county councils are responsible

¹Paid in Northern Ireland by the Government of Northern Ireland.

for making, levying and collecting the rates, except in such parts of the county as fall within the jurisdiction of the county borough or urban district councils.

Loans may be raised by all types of local authority for items of capital expenditure which could not well be met out of current revenue. These loans are subject to the approval of the Government Department responsible for the service for which the capital is required.¹

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, Wales and Northern Ireland (except in the case of 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.

LAW AND ORDER

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 recognized as part of law is determined by consideration of the authorities, which may be statutes, statements made by legal writers, or reports of decided cases. If none of these exist, 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.

The sources of law in the United Kingdom are statute law, case law, and common law, which is law recognized by the courts as binding on some other grounds than express enactment. Statute law may include a Royal Proclamation, an Act of Parliament, and delegated or subordinate legislation, such as Statutory Instruments made by Ministers of the Crown and byelaws made by local authorities. The origins of common law are to be found in the customs of the realm.

The greater part of statute law applies uniformly in all four countries of the United Kingdom, although in many fields of legislation there are statutes applying to Scotland only. The Scottish common law² also is different from that prevailing in England and Wales and (as a rule) in Northern Ireland.

The two main branches of the law in the United Kingdom, as in most other countries, are civil law and criminal law. Civil law has been defined as 'relating to the maintenance of private claims and the redress of private wrongs, which may not involve moral guilt'.³ Criminal law deals with offences against the State and their punishment on behalf of the community.

¹For further information on local government loans see p. 55.

²Ancient differences were perpetuated by the Act for the Union of England and Scotland, 1707, under which Scotland retained her own system of laws.

³*Outlines of Central Government*, J. J. Clarke.

The Courts

The courts that apply the law in the United Kingdom are broadly speaking divided into civil and criminal courts, although, since the distinction is a comparatively modern one, no hard and fast line can be drawn. 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 following are among the more important of the civil courts in England and Wales:

The County Courts, which are so arranged that there is no part of the country more than a reasonable distance from one of them. This kind of court may be regarded as a 'popular tribunal'; something over a million cases are entered in it every year, although comparatively few ever reach the stage of trial. County Courts are presided over by a paid judge, sitting alone.

The general jurisdiction of the County Court covers all common law actions, except cases (such as libel) where the personal reputation of the defendant is involved, provided that the amount claimed does not exceed £200. If the claim is for more than £100, the defendant may object and apply to have the case referred to the High Court. Cases which fall under the specific jurisdiction of the County Courts, that is to say cases especially assigned to this kind of court by statute,¹ 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 many of them have little or no work to do at the present time. Two or three, such as the Liverpool Court of Passage, the Salford Hundred Court and the Bristol Tolzey Court, are still comparatively well used.

The Mayor's and City of London Court, which is the County Court for the City of London, is the amalgamation of two courts, the Mayor's Court, with a jurisdiction unlimited as to amount, and the City of London Court, a court for small cases. It is usually presided over by a judge appointed by the City of London.

The High Court of Justice, which 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 22 puisne judges, i.e. judges without special office of their own.² These judges are mainly concerned with ordinary civil actions—debt cases, actions for damages, revenue cases, insurance cases, commercial cases, etc.; but they also hear criminal cases at Assizes (see p. 65).

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 ancient 'equity' system,³ which was fused with

¹Such cases may be connected with agricultural holdings, rent restrictions, hire purchase agreements and other matters governed by statute or ministerial order.

²The Lord Chief Justice, the Lord Chancellor and other superior judges are, for example, not puisne judges.

³Equity was introduced into the English legal system to modify the older common law system during the Middle Ages. Its purpose was to temper justice with mercy, when conscience was opposed to the rigours of the law. It was used primarily to enforce cases of transactions which give a moral right, but a right then unknown to common law; and to provide more effectual remedies for existing law. It was an addendum to the common law, with which it has now been merged.

the common law in 1873. The work of the division 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 jurisdiction over wills, with Admiralty and shipping cases, and with divorce cases.¹

The Courts of Appeal. There are two Courts of Appeal in civil law actions—the Court of Appeal, which is part of the Supreme Court of Judicature (see p. 63), 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 Lord 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 three or four 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 seven 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

The Sheriff Court in its civil capacity corresponds roughly to the County Court in England and Wales, but it has a wider jurisdiction unlimited by the value of the case. It also has power to try (summarily or by indictment²) all but the most serious crimes and offences. The initial work of the court is normally done by a Sheriff-Substitute, against whose judgment an appeal may be made to the Sheriff³ 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 is the supreme civil court in Scotland. It was established in 1532 and consists at present of 14 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 lies to the House of Lords.

The Scottish Land Court 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

Criminal courts in England and Wales include:

Petty Sessional or Magistrates' Courts. Magistrates' courts are courts of summary jurisdiction, i.e. courts where accused persons may be tried without a jury. All kinds of minor offences are tried in this way, although if any offence coming into a magistrates' court is

¹At present, many divorce cases are heard before the Queen's Bench, and County Court judges, as well as before judges of the Probate, Divorce and Admiralty Division.

²An indictment is a formal written accusation. An indictable offence is an offence which requires such an accusation for its prosecution.

³Scotland is divided into 12 Sheriffdoms, each provided with a Sheriff and a varying number of Sheriffs-Substitute.

punishable by more than three months' imprisonment, the accused may elect to be tried in a higher court with a jury.

The less serious indictable offences may also be tried summarily in a magistrates' court, should the accused desire it, and in fact a large number of such cases are tried in this way. In 1952 over 99 per cent of all criminal cases in England and Wales were disposed of in magistrates' courts.

The majority of these courts are presided over by two or more 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 Crown on the recommendation of the Lord Chancellor, who is advised as to counties 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 authorized by statute to act as justices, by virtue of holding some other public office, e.g., mayors of county and non-county boroughs, chairmen of county councils, etc.

In the metropolitan police district of London, the courts are presided over by paid metropolitan magistrates, and many of the larger towns also have stipendiary magistrates.

Juvenile courts for the trial of young offenders are constituted from special panels of suitably qualified justices appointed by the justices of each county or borough out of their own number. A juvenile court consists of not more than three justices drawn from the panel, and must hold its sitting at a different time from those of the ordinary summary court or preferably in a different room.

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.

In addition to acting as judges, magistrates are required to conduct preliminary inquiries into indictable offences to determine whether or not an accused person should be committed for trial.

Courts of Quarter Session. There are two different kinds of Quarter Session—county sessions and borough sessions; both are normally held four times a year.

County Quarter Sessions consist of the magistrates of the county assembled together; generally the chairman of the sessions is a retired judge or has some other legal qualification. In the boroughs which have the right to hold separate Quarter Sessions,² the courts are presided over by a Recorder, who is a salaried barrister, as sole judge. Trial by jury applies at both borough and county sessions.

The jurisdiction of Quarter Sessions covers the less serious indictable offences; the courts are debarred from trying any crime that carries the death sentence or detention for life.

Assizes. The 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.

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.

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 are judges of the Queen's Bench Division, one of whom (in rotation)

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

²Traditionally, those boroughs which have their own commission of the peace.

attends each of the monthly sessions of the Court; the Recorder of London; the Common Serjeant; and a judge of the 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 Appeals 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 in indictable charges first heard at Quarter Sessions or at Assizes go to the Court of Criminal Appeal, which exists to ensure that no innocent person shall be convicted and to revise unsuitable sentences. Appeals may be made on any point of law, and also, by leave, on point of fact.

The Court of Criminal Appeal consists of the Lord Chief Justice and any 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 fact is only possible if such an appeal is in the public interest; an appeal on a point of law can be made if the Attorney-General grants a certificate affirming that the appeal is of 'exceptional public importance'. Appeals of this kind are very rare.

Criminal Courts in Scotland

The bulk of the criminal actions in Scotland are heard in the Sheriff Court (see p. 64). In cases of breach of the peace and other petty offences the justices in Justice of the Peace Courts in the counties and the magistrates in magistrates' courts in burghs have powers of jurisdiction. Cases involving serious crime are taken in the High Court of Justiciary, which is the supreme criminal court of first instance. It also functions as an appeal court from inferior criminal courts. It consists of the Lord Justice General (who is also the Lord President of the Court of Session), the Lord Justice Clerk and twelve Lords Commissioners 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. Appeals to the High Court 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 there is no lay magistracy in the country, all petty sessional cases being dealt with by resident magistrates who correspond to the metropolitan or 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.

The Coroner's Court

The Coroner's Court, strictly speaking, is neither a civil nor a criminal court, although it has some connection with criminal proceedings. The primary function of the coroner is to hold an inquest whenever a death occurs in his district and the doctor refuses to certify that the death was from natural causes; various Acts of Parliament lay down the cases in which a coroner must be informed and in which a jury must be summoned. If the jury at a coroner's court returns a verdict of murder or manslaughter against some particular person, then that person must be committed for trial at Assizes or the Central Criminal Court. 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 who considers, with the Crown Counsel, what proceedings, if any, are required.

Ecclesiastical Courts

The established Church of England¹ has its own ecclesiastical courts, which constitute a graduated hierarchy. They consist of 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.

Special Tribunals

A number of special tribunals exist in the United Kingdom for the exercise of what is known as administrative justice, that is to say for the settlement of disputes or the determination of rights in cases where the public interest is the central issue.

Such tribunals are too various to permit of any formal classification, but they include professional tribunals such as the General Medical Council, the General Council of the Bar, and the Disciplinary Committee of the Law Society (Solicitors)²; ministerial tribunals, such as the War Pensions Tribunals, the Lands Tribunals, the Rent Tribunals, and the Local Appeal Tribunals for Insurance Benefits; and the disciplinary committees of marketing boards.

Appeals on a point of law in most cases lie from such tribunals either to a single judge of the High Court or to permanent Commissioners appointed under an Act of Parliament or to the appropriate minister.

Military Courts

The jurisdiction of military courts or courts-martial is exclusively over persons subject to military law. The powers of the courts 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 Supreme 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';³ but since the end of the seventeenth century, it has been unlawful for the Sovereign to disturb or delay the course of common justice, to attempt to force the judges to act otherwise than impartially, or to use the prerogative powers of the Crown to create courts to administer any other system of law but common law.

The understanding of the doctrine of the separation of powers⁴ prevalent in the United

¹The established Church of Scotland is the Presbyterian Church with only a limited connection with the State. Its supreme legislative and judicial body is the General Assembly. A Lord High Commissioner appointed by the Crown is present at the meetings of the General Assembly to represent the connection between the State and the Church.

²The Law Society is a body incorporated by Royal Charter with the right to make rules to regulate the professional practice, conduct and discipline of solicitors.

³*Blackstone's Commentaries*.

⁴In the United Kingdom the doctrine of the separation of powers is understood to mean three things: (a) that the same persons should not form part of more than one of the three organs of Government; (b) that one organ of Government should not control or interfere with the exercise of its functions by another organ; and (c) that one organ of Government should not exercise the functions of another. In many continental constitutions, the adoption of this doctrine has meant an unhampered executive; in the United Kingdom it has meant little more than an independent judiciary.

Kingdom has likewise established the independence of the judiciary *vis-à-vis* the executive. Thus, although the Act of Settlement, 1701, laid down that the judges of the superior courts should be appointed by the Crown to hold office during good behaviour subject to a power of removal by the Sovereign on an address by both Houses of Parliament,¹ it may be stated with confidence that no such address would ever be moved to interfere with judicial independence. By the same token, 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 duly 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 even to pass a new Act to reverse the decision of the court. It would not be open to it to penalize 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 responsibility for the administration of the judicial system in England and Wales lies partly with the Lord Chancellor and partly with the Home Secretary.

Crown appointments to the High Court bench and County Court judgeships are made on the recommendation of the Lord Chancellor, who is also responsible for recommending to the Crown the appointment or removal of justices of the peace,² 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 Rules Committee which makes the rules of the Supreme Court³; he also appoints the County Court Rules Committee and has power to alter or to disallow the rules made by it. In addition, responsibility for initiating proposals for law reform, save in the field of criminal law, lies with the Lord Chancellor, who is advised in this matter by the Law Reform Committee established in 1952.

The Home Secretary is responsible for confirming 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. In carrying out his duties, the Home Secretary is responsible for securing as much uniformity as possible in magistrates' courts by means of advisory circulars in regard to such matters as sentences, the collection of fines, and (occasionally) in regard to the interpretation of statutes and regulations.

In Scotland, power of submission for appointment of judges lies with the Secretary of State for Scotland on the nomination of the Lord Advocate. Powers of appointment of justices of the peace rest with the Lord Chancellor. The High Court of Judiciary and the Court of Session are administered by the Clerk of the Judiciary and his staff and the Principal Clerk of Session and his staff respectively.

¹Such an address must always be started in the House of Commons. In Scotland judges of the Court of Session are appointed for life and cannot be removed except on grounds of misconduct. Sheriffs-Substitute may be removed by the Secretary of State for Scotland on order by the Lord President and the Lord Justice Clerk; an order for the removal of a Sheriff would have to lie before both Houses of Parliament for a period.

²Except in Lancashire, where they are nominated by the Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster.

³In its Second Interim Report (March 1951, *Cmd.* 8176), the Committee on Supreme Court Practice and Procedure set up in 1947 (primarily to make recommendations for the purpose of reducing the cost of litigation and securing greater efficiency and expedition in the dispatch of business) proposed the establishment of a Rules and Administration Committee, whose duty would be to keep under constant review the Rules of the Supreme Court and the working of the Law Courts in their bearing upon procedure. The final Report of the Committee on Supreme Court Practice and Procedure, *Cmd.* 8878, was published in July 1953.

The Legal Profession

The legal profession of England and Wales is strictly divided into two classes of lawyers—barristers and solicitors. The distinction is due mainly to historical causes, and is practically unknown in other countries, except in Scotland where the cleavage between advocates and solicitors is also complete.

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. After ten years as a junior counsel, a barrister 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, are usually open only to barristers who have become Queen's Counsel.

The professional conduct of a barrister throughout his career is subject to the scrutiny of the General Council of the Bar.

The prospective solicitor must be considered suitable by the appropriate Committee of the Law Society and 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 recognized law school. Once a solicitor is qualified, he becomes an officer of the Supreme Court of Judicature. 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 were introduced in some courts, and to a limited extent, during the early years of the present century. Changing conditions have brought about modifications and extensions to the original schemes; and the latest revision was made in 1949, when the Legal Aid and Advice Act and the Legal Aid and Solicitors (Scotland) Act 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 need them. The Acts also provided that solicitors and barristers acting for persons receiving legal aid should no longer be required to act gratuitously, but should be remunerated for their services from public funds.

When the system set up under the terms of the Acts comes fully into operation, aid will be available for both civil and criminal cases in all courts, to plaintiff and defendant alike.

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 exceed £500. Where an assisted person can afford to make a contribution to the costs of his case, he is liable to pay an amount which is settled with due regard to his financial resources.

In England and Wales, legal aid in civil cases is at present limited to proceedings started in the High Court or in the Court of Appeal.¹ 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 and fees 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 is divided into twelve areas. In each of these an area committee, consisting of fifteen solicitors and barristers, is responsible for the scheme's initial organization and subsequent administration. Local 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, who conducts the case in the normal way. To avoid overloading the courts, certain types of action, including breach of promise, 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 Central Supervisory 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 Criminal Appeal Act, 1907, the Poor Prisoner's Defence Act, 1930, and the Summary of Jurisdiction (Appeals) Act, 1933. The Legal Aid and Advice Act, 1949, makes certain procedural changes in the system and provides for the transfer of the financial responsibility for paying for free legal aid from local to central funds.

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 Poores Roll system, which is administered on a voluntary basis by the legal profession.

The Police Service

The police service of Great Britain is organized and controlled on a local basis under the guidance of those Ministers of the Crown who are statutorily 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 (see p. 73) is controlled by an Inspector-General who is responsible to Northern Ireland's Minister of Home Affairs.

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 the county of London, the county of Middlesex, parts of adjoining counties and three county boroughs) and the City of London force. In Scotland there are 33 forces, including county forces, burgh forces and combined forces.

¹Eventually the scheme will cover representation in courts of all types, from magistrates' courts up to the House of Lords.

In England and Wales and Scotland a police force varies in size according to the area which it serves. Thus the Metropolitan Police Force has an establishment of nearly 20,000, while the smallest county in Scotland has a police force numbering fifteen.

Police Authorities

Police authorities are appointed for each police force in England and Wales and Scotland. 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 Quarter Sessions. In the boroughs the police authority is known as the Watch Committee and is composed of a proportion of the members of the council. 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.

In the Metropolitan police district the Home Secretary acts as both police and central authority. 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 also 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.

Central Authority

Co-ordination and a certain measure of central control are exercised through detailed police regulations which are issued for their respective countries 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 the 'government, mutual aid, pay, allowances, pensions, clothing, expenses and conditions of service'¹ of the members of all police forces to which the Act applies.

The ministers are assisted in their supervisory responsibilities by Her Majesty's Inspectors of Constabulary, who inspect each force, except the Metropolitan Police Force, at least once a year. There are at present four inspectors in England and Wales and one in Scotland.

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, 1946 (as regards Scotland). These Orders empower the Home Secretary and 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.

Centrally Run Services

During recent years the Home Office has established a number of common services to supplement those provided by the police authorities for their own use. In England and Wales such services include a forensic science service which provides laboratories for the

¹The Secretaries of State are advised on questions relating to the conditions of service of the police by the Police Council of Great Britain, a negotiating body established on Whitley Council lines in September 1953.

use of regional groups of forces, the supply on a rental basis of all wireless equipment for the police, and a training service which provides a number of residential district training centres and a central police college. In Scotland there is a central police college, which provides training courses for recruits and courses of higher training; but there is no centrally run forensic science service,¹ and the provision and maintenance of wireless equipment is a direct charge upon the police authorities concerned.

In addition to the common services, a number of national services² are provided by the Metropolitan Police Force, whose functions in this respect include: (a) the maintenance of the Criminal Record Office, which is a national registry of crimes and their perpetrators containing a Central Fingerprint Bureau, available to all police forces of the United Kingdom and certain foreign forces; (b) the publication of the *Police Gazette*,³ which contains particulars of people wanted for crime, stolen property, etc., and is supplied without charge to the police forces of the United Kingdom and to certain Commonwealth and foreign forces; (c) the organization and control of the Special Branch of the Criminal Investigation Department at New Scotland Yard,⁴ whose duties include the protection of Royalty, Ministers of the Crown and distinguished foreign visitors; and (d) the carrying out of extradition orders made by the courts.

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; the police of certain public services, e.g., the railway police, the River Tyne police, the Manchester Docks police, and the police of the Ministry of Transport and Civil Aviation, who, although not subject to the supervision of the Home Secretary or the Secretary of State for Scotland, are constables with duties and powers analogous to those of ordinary constables but limited to the premises and immediate neighbourhoods of their employers; the police of the defence services, i.e. the War Department Constabulary, which guards War Office lands and military property, the Royal Marine Police, who are employed chiefly in dockyards, and the Royal Air Force Police for Royal Air Force establishments.

Entry into the regular police force in Great Britain is open to men between the ages of 19 and 30,⁵ and, in England and Wales, to women between the ages of 20 and 35, and 20 and 30 in Scotland. The standard police ranks in Great Britain, except in the Metropolitan police district, are: chief constable, superintendent, inspector, sergeant and police constable. The following intermediate ranks may also be adopted where the field of operations renders them necessary: assistant chief constable, chief superintendent, chief inspector and, in England and Wales only, subdivisional 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 the ranks are the

¹In Scotland the universities of Aberdeen, Edinburgh, Glasgow and St. Andrews render assistance when called upon. In addition, the Glasgow police force operates an extensive laboratory, the service of which is available to the whole of the Scottish police.

²For these services the Metropolitan Police Force receives an additional Exchequer grant.

³A Scottish *Police Gazette* is published by the City of Glasgow Police Force.

⁴The Metropolitan Police Force is not the only force with a Criminal Investigation Department; all provincial forces have their own Criminal Investigation Departments.

⁵Ex-regular Navy, Army and Royal Air Force men over 30 years of age are also eligible.

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.

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, even if in committing such an action he was obeying the orders of the police authority; 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 road or street patrolling and traffic control to 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, through the police authority's Prosecuting Solicitor's Department, are responsible for initiating, and in most cases conducting, prosecutions.¹

In addition to their duties as constables, police officers are sometimes appointed, usually by the local authority, to be inspectors under an Act of Parliament; as such their duties may include the inspection of weights and measures, diseases of animals, food and drugs, explosives and shops.

The Royal Ulster Constabulary

The general control of the Royal Ulster Constabulary, which is a State 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.

The present strength of the Royal Ulster Constabulary is approximately 2,900 officers and men. Conditions of service and pay follow closely on the lines of the police service in Great Britain, the general duties pertaining to the ranks 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 mobilized for full-time duty and its duties extended to cover ordinary police duties. The present strength of the Special Constabulary is approximately 10,000 officers and men.

Treatment of Offenders

It is a basic principle of the English legal system that the prosecution must prove the guilt of an accused person, no matter what the charge or where the trial, and that such a person must be presumed innocent until his guilt has been proved.

The underlying objectives of the penal system, to which a person who has been proved guilty becomes subject, are deterrence and reformation. It is held that the deterrent effect of the system lies less in the punitive treatment of the detected offender than in its total action—fear of detection, public trial and conviction and the possibility of punishment,

¹Except for prosecutions which must be dealt with by the Director of Public Prosecutions; these are: (a) if the offence is punishable by death; (b) when an offence is referred to him by a Government Department, subject to his discretion; and (c) in any case which appears to the Director 'to be of importance or difficulty or which for any reason requires his intervention'.

whether by imprisonment or otherwise, and that the aim in imprisonment as well as in other forms of treatment should be to concentrate as far as possible on the social rehabilitation of the offender rather than on merely punitive measures.

Various types of penalties, however, may be imposed according to the law and having regard to all the circumstances of the offence and the offender. The offences of murder and treason are punishable by death. It is the long established practice for the Home Secretary 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 respite is recommended, the sentence of death is commuted to one of imprisonment for life. The death sentence may not in any case be passed upon a person under the age of eighteen, upon a pregnant woman, or upon anyone who is found to be legally insane.

Administrative Authorities

In England and Wales,¹ 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 nomination of the Prison Commissioners, and the appointment of Boards of Visitors.

In the discharge of his duties relating to institutions for 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 and inspection of prisons, Borstal Institutions and detention centres in England and Wales lies with the Prison Commission and an appropriate 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 oversight of each of these 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 take 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.

Prisons

The superior staff in each institution, i.e. governors, chaplains and medical officers, are appointed by the Home Secretary; the subordinate ranks which constitute the main body of the staff are appointed by the Prison Commissioners.

Full-time prison officers of all ranks, except chaplains, are permanent civil servants. At the end of December 1952 prison staff of all grades numbered nearly 4,000. About 8 per cent of this number were women.

There are various types of prison in England and Wales, e.g., general local prisons; special local prisons which may be open prisons, prisons for selected prisoners, etc.; corrective training prisons to which offenders of 21 years of age or over may be sentenced if

¹The 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.

their criminal antecedents show that they are no longer novices in crime and are in the way of becoming professional criminals; and training prisons to which prisoners may be sent if they have sentences long enough to enable a definite course of training to be undertaken, and if they seem likely to co-operate in and profit by the training.

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.

Training

The main elements of prison 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 only be given 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 organized 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 training prisons, where the hours are longer, prisoners spend at present about 25 hours a week in the workshops or in other employment such as building, farm work, domestic work and gardening.

All prisoners are entitled to earn a limited amount from the first week of their sentence; these amounts may be increased for satisfactory output after a specified lapse of time.

Education

Educational schemes are provided in prisons by the local education authorities with the support of the Ministry of Education and under the organizational control of the Director of Education in the Prison Commission. Evening Institutes have also been established, each under its own organizer and with some 50 or more classes during the week. In addition, 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 use the prison library, which in most cases is now under the management of the county, city or borough library committee; in certain cases they may also have books sent in to them by friends.

Welfare

A chaplain of the Church of England and a Roman Catholic priest are appointed to every prison. Ministers of the Methodist Church and of other denominations are either ap-

pointed 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 also be visited by their relatives and friends at specified intervals and by recognized 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.

Remission of Sentence

On reception, all prisoners are credited with remission of one-third of their sentence, provided that this does not reduce their sentence below one month. In addition, at successive stages of a prisoner's sentence, he becomes entitled to additional privileges; for example, he is allowed to have some of his personal belongings in his cell.

The Governor or the Visiting Committee or the Board of Visitors have power to order forfeiture of privileges for breaches of discipline.

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, which depends on a grant from public funds for its administrative expenses. For persons discharged from other prisons and from Borstal Institutions, after-care is in the hands of the Central After-Care Association, which is under the management of a voluntary council appointed by the Home Secretary.

The Association works through local associates, usually Probation Officers, who, since the passing of the Criminal Justice Act, have added after-care to their other duties. These officers 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.

Institutions for Young Offenders

The Criminal Justice Act of 1948 provided that no court can impose imprisonment on a person under twenty-one years of age unless it is of opinion that no other method of dealing with him is appropriate. The following different types of institutions are available where institutional treatment is considered necessary:

Remand Homes, which are provided by local authorities for the safe custody of boys and girls before or during their appearance at court, for short periods of punitive detention or while the court makes inquiries about the best method of treating a young offender. There are facilities for observation, and valuable reports can be provided as a result of the short stay in a remand home.

Borstal Institutions, which have been established to provide suitable training for adolescents in conditions other than those of a prison. There are 17 institutions for boys and 3 for girls. The period of the sentence is in effect four years, the first part being nine months' to three years' training in a Borstal Institution, and the second a period of controlled freedom under supervision. 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 most 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 character and requirements.

Approved Schools, of which there are 130 in England and Wales, classified according to age and sex, provide residential education and training for young offenders and children in need of care or protection which cannot be given in their home surroundings. In general, the education follows the lines of that given in ordinary schools, with vocational training

for older boys and girls. The emphasis is on character training and on the provision of after-care.

Two new forms of treatment have been introduced on an experimental basis:

Attendance Centres, which young offenders must attend during their spare time to be provided with suitable occupation, the prime object being education in the proper use of leisure. The scheme is so far in operation only in a few towns and for boys between 13 and 16 years of age.

Detention Centres, where offenders over 14 and under 21 years of age may be detained for short periods, usually of three months, under discipline suitable to their age and character. The regime is designed as a 'short sharp shock' for those who need to be taught that the law cannot be defied with impunity. The first centre, for boys of 14 to 17 years of age, is now in operation.

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 offender and inform him that if he fails to comply with its requirements he will be liable to be dealt with for the original offence. Unless an offender is under 14 years of age, his consent to the making of a probation order must be given. The order usually requires the probationer (who must keep in regular touch with the probation officer) to be of good conduct. It may also give instructions as to where an offender must live (for a period not exceeding twelve months) if his normal surroundings are unsatisfactory, and, if desirable, it may prescribe mental treatment. The duration of a probation order must be for not less than one year and not more than three years.

There are approximately 1,100 probation officers in England and Wales. Training facilities are provided by the Probation Advisory and Training Board appointed by the Home Secretary.

III. DEFENCE

THE DEFENCE SYSTEM

Organization

Britain's defence policy is the responsibility of the Minister of Defence, who, under the general direction of the Cabinet, of which he is a member, is answerable for the 'formulation and general application of a unified policy relating to the armed forces of the Crown as a whole and their requirements'.

The higher direction of each of the three fighting Services is on similar lines. Supreme control is in the hands of Parliament, which makes annual financial provision for defence needs. By limiting provision to the current year, Parliament ensures an annual review of the state of each Service. It is then that the Minister must present his Estimates, expound his plans and defend his actions.

The Minister of Defence answers for all matters common to the three Services and their supply, and for general policy. 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; each is assisted by a junior minister or ministers and by the permanent civil servant at the head of his Department. The Chiefs of Staff Committee, which comprises the professional heads of the three Services, is responsible for preparing and advising upon strategic plans and policy and for submitting them direct to the Cabinet.

In addition to his co-ordinating functions as outlined above, the Minister of Defence also has ministerial responsibility for certain inter-Service organizations such as Amphibious Warfare Headquarters, the Joint Intelligence Bureau and the Imperial Defence College.

Co-operation between the fighting Services is illustrated in the system of staff training for officers of the Navy, Army and Air Force. After about 10 years' service, they are sent to separate staff colleges at Greenwich, Camberley and Andover respectively, where they learn the elements of staff work. At a later stage in their careers some of them go to the Joint Services Staff College at Chesham, where they live and work together and where particular attention is paid to the specialist inter-Service aspects of staff work. This College caters for about a hundred students a year from the Navy, Army and Air Force, the Civil Service and the Commonwealth. Finally, there is the Imperial Defence College, which caters for a few specially selected senior officers from the Services, the Civil Service and the Commonwealth.

Policy and Finance

For the purpose of deterring aggression, Britain, acting in consultation with other members of the Commonwealth and with her allies in the North Atlantic Treaty Organization, has embarked on a programme for building up her armed forces, which aims at increasing both manpower and supplies of armaments and equipment. To achieve these objects, the period of full-time National Service¹ has been increased from 18 months to two years, and defence production has been greatly expanded.

When this programme was announced by the then Prime Minister, Mr. Attlee, in January 1951, it was estimated that its cost would be £4,700 million over the next three

¹The National Service Act, 1948, which became operative on 1st January 1949, imposes a liability on every male British subject ordinarily resident in Great Britain (subject to specified exceptions) who has attained the age of 18 but has not attained the age of 26 years for a period of whole-time service in the regular forces and a term of part-time service in an auxiliary force (see p. 79).

years. The programme has been subject to periodical reviews in the light of changing conditions, and in 1952 it was announced by Mr. (now Sir Winston) Churchill that, in order to keep it within the limits of national economic strength, some modifications had been made and rearmament would be spread over a longer period. Because of the rise in prices, the total cost was likely to be substantially higher than at first estimated. Technical progress in some forms of production, especially aircraft, would make it possible for the Government to curtail to some extent earlier plans while pressing forward with newer and more advanced types. These modifications will enable Britain to increase the export of war materials to the Commonwealth, to members of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization and to other friendly countries.

Notwithstanding these adjustments to the programme, a further very substantial contribution is being made in 1953-54 towards the modernization, re-equipment and expansion of the Services; defence expenditure is at a level unknown before in peace time and has approximately doubled since 1950-51.

The estimated expenditure for 1953-54 (excluding certain expenditure on defence preparations under Civil Votes) is £1,636.76 million, becoming £1,496.76 million after allowing for 'sterling counterpart' of defence aid provided in dollars by the United States under the Mutual Security Programme. This compares with a total estimated expenditure in 1952-53 of £1,513.5 million (including supplementary estimates), or £1,428.5 million after allowing for United States aid. The allocation between the various Services for the two years is shown in Table 3.

TABLE 3
NET ESTIMATES

£ million

| | 1952-53 including supple- mentary estimate | 1952-53 after allowing for counterpart | 1953-54 | 1953-54 after allowing for counterpart |
|-----------------------------|--|---|----------|---|
| Admiralty | 360.3 | 335.3 | 364.50 | 329.50 |
| War Office | 556.5 | 526.5 | 581.00 | 526.00 |
| Air Ministry | 467.6 | 437.6 | 548.00 | 498.00 |
| Ministry of Supply | 111.8 | 111.8 | 123.75 | 123.75 |
| Ministry of Defence | 17.3 | 17.3 | 19.51 | 19.51 |
| <i>Total</i> | 1,513.5 | 1,428.5 | 1,636.76 | 1,496.76 |

The Ministry of Defence estimate includes a contribution of £13.5 million to be made by the United Kingdom during 1953-54 to the NATO infrastructure programmes.

Strength

Each of the three Services—Royal Navy, Army and Royal Air Force—is made up of a substantial nucleus of regulars in addition to men called up under the National Service Acts. Each has a supporting force of reserve and auxiliary forces. Fit male British subjects between the ages of 18 and 26 must (with certain limited exceptions) serve for two years in one of the armed forces. After this period of full-time service they must serve for a period of three and a half years with the Territorial Army or other appropriate reserve, giving in all five and a half years of whole-time and part-time service. During the latter period National Service men may be called upon to undergo 60 days' training.

Table 4 shows the strength of the various Services on 30th June 1953:

TABLE 4

| United Kingdom | Royal Navy* | Army | RAF | Total |
|--|-------------|---------|---------|-----------|
| Regular strength (male) .. | 131,200 | 207,500 | 191,200 | 529,900 |
| National Service | 6,800 | 227,600 | 77,000 | 311,400 |
| Women (including nurses) .. | 5,100 | 9,200 | 10,000 | 24,300 |
| <i>Total</i> | 143,100 | 444,200 | 278,200 | 865,600 |
| Volunteer Reserve and Auxiliary Forces and National Service Reserves | 24,800 | 345,100 | 121,400 | 491,300 |
| <i>Combined total</i> .. | 167,900 | 789,300 | 399,600 | 1,356,900 |

*Including Royal Marines.

NOTE: Figures are rounded to the nearest hundred and so do not necessarily add up exactly.

Besides these trained reserves there are large numbers of men with war-time experience who would be liable, if fit, to recall in case of emergency.

Supply

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, which are operated by the Ministry of Supply. At the beginning of the second world war three of these factories were in operation; at its peak there were 44. The Ministry of Supply's research establishments carry out research on behalf of all three Services and naval research is also conducted by the Admiralty. The practice, introduced in 1952, of according 'super-priority' to certain essential types of new equipment, especially aircraft, has done much to ensure that production is not held up for lack of raw materials or components.

Guided Missiles

Britain has developed guided rockets which can travel at well over 2,000 miles an hour, can rise to heights far greater than can be reached by bombers, and can out-manoeuvre any piloted aircraft.

In addition to missiles fired from the ground or from ships, an advanced stage has been reached in the development of guided missiles to be launched from fighter aircraft. The initial development of these rocket weapons takes place in Britain; full-scale trials are carried out, in collaboration with the Australian Government, on the Woomera testing range in the South Australian desert.

Atomic Weapon Tests

The first test of a British atomic bomb took place successfully on the Monte Bello Islands on 3rd October 1952 under the scientific direction of Dr. W. G. (now Sir William) Penney of the Ministry of Supply and with the collaboration of the Australian Government. A further series of atomic weapon trials took place in October 1953 at the Woomera range.

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 ten members of the Board are the Parliamentary and Financial Secretary; the Civil Lord; the Permanent Secretary, who is a civil servant and responsible for the general conduct of Admiralty business; the First Sea Lord and Chief of Naval Staff; the Second Sea Lord and Chief of Personnel; the Third Sea Lord and Controller of the Navy, responsible for engineering, equipment, ordnance, and research; the Fourth Sea Lord and Chief of Supplies and Transport; the Fifth Sea Lord and Deputy Chief of Naval Staff (Air), responsible for air matters; the Vice-Chief of Naval Staff, responsible for operations, intelligence and plans; and the Deputy Chief of Naval Staff, responsible for special subjects.

Strength

The strength of the Fleet, excluding attendant ships and numerous small craft, consisted in 1953 of some 550 vessels, falling into the various categories of battleships, fleet and light fleet carriers, cruisers, destroyers, frigates, monitors, submarines, minesweepers and fast minelayers. These are divided between the active fleets, those employed on training and experimental purposes, and those in varying categories of reserve. The emphasis of the naval production programme continues to be placed on the building up of the mine-sweeping and anti-submarine force and the completion of aircraft carriers.

Construction and Conversion

Work is continuing in 1953-54 on one fleet carrier and on six light fleet carriers, including one each for Canada and Australia. Three light carriers should be completed in 1954.

Of the *Daring* class destroyers, now known as Darings, four in the spring of 1953 had joined the Fleet, one was about to do so and the remaining three were nearing completion.

Thirteen frigates are in course of construction. These are of four different types: two for anti-submarine work, a third for anti-aircraft and a fourth for aircraft direction. The first of this fourth type, *HMS Salisbury*, was launched in June 1953. The first anti-submarine frigate, *HMS Dundas*, was launched in September 1953.

By April 1953 as many as 47 of the new coastal minesweepers had been laid down and 17 of them launched; 48 of the smaller inshore minesweepers had been laid down and 20 launched. Further vessels of both types are expected to be laid down in 1953-54.

Two experimental fast patrol boats are now in service and most of the seaward defence boats and fast patrol boats on order should be completed in 1953-54.

Modernization is being carried out on one fleet carrier, one light fleet carrier and one cruiser. Seven destroyers have been converted to anti-submarine frigates and a number of others are nearing completion.

A number of submarines have been modernized and this process continues.

Research and Development

There has been steady progress in investigations designed to provide adequate defence against various types of mines, against modern submarines of high underwater speed and endurance, and against aircraft. Anti-submarine weapons, both shipborne and airborne, far more effective than anything known during the 1939-45 war, are becoming available, and arrangements have been made (e.g., by the introduction of the new steam catapult and the 'angled' flight deck) to enable heavier and faster types of naval aircraft to be handled in, and operated from, carriers.

The efficiency of the propulsive machinery of ships and submarines has been greatly improved from the point of view of generating more power for a given weight both of plant and of fuel. The Admiralty is confident that the work now in hand on propulsion

machinery will lead to marked advances and that improved machinery of steam, internal combustion and gas turbine types will be available during the next few years.

Satisfactory progress is being maintained in naval contributions to the development of guided missiles and in electronic valve research.

The Fleet Air Arm

The Navy's first jet fighter, the *Attacker*, has been in squadron service in the fleet carrier *Eagle* since 1952. One squadron of *Sea Hawk* interceptor fighters was formed in March 1953 and further *Sea Hawk* squadrons will follow during 1953-54. The first squadron of the turbo-prop *Wyvern*, the Navy's new 'strike' aircraft, was formed in April 1953, and first deliveries of the *Sea Venom* all-weather jet fighter are expected at the end of the year.

Considerable progress has been made in the modernization of naval air stations and in the improvement of radio aids to provide for the operation of new types of aircraft.

Production of the anti-submarine aircraft, the *Gannet*, has been given super-priority. A new type of anti-submarine aircraft, the *Sea Mew*, has been developed for operation from light escort carriers.

All the aircraft carriers in the active Fleet have now been equipped with helicopters for search and rescue duties.

Stations

The Navy's commands in home waters are Portsmouth, Devonport, Chatham, Rosyth in Scotland, and the Commander-in-Chief Home Fleet. Abroad there is the Mediterranean Station with headquarters in Malta and with Gibraltar as a secondary base. This station covers the Red Sea (but not Aden) as well as the Mediterranean. The East Indies Station is practically co-extensive with the Indian Ocean. By agreement with Ceylon, the Navy has a base and dockyard facilities at Trincomalee which are maintained by the United Kingdom. The Far East Station, formerly known as the China Station, extends to the east of Singapore. Hong Kong remains the operational base but the headquarters have now been moved to Singapore. British naval aid to United Nations action in Korea was based on this station. Largest in area of the stations is the America and West Indies Station, with headquarters at Bermuda. From this station ships operate in both the North and South Atlantic and in the Eastern Pacific, except where the Royal Canadian Navy operates from Halifax and Esquimalt (Vancouver Island). By agreement with the Union of South Africa the headquarters of the South Atlantic Station are at Simonstown, near Cape Town. The navies of other Commonwealth nations operate in their respective areas from their home bases, the use of which may be made available to the Royal Navy at the discretion of their Governments.

The main Fleet bases at Portsmouth, Devonport, Chatham, Malta, Trincomalee, Simonstown and Singapore are also dockyards for the Navy. Rosyth, Gibraltar and Hong Kong are dockyards with major repair facilities. There are also a number of naval air stations at home and abroad.

Royal Marines

The Corps of Royal Marines is a body of trained men for service on sea or land. Its official existence dates from 1664. The present-day functions of the Corps are:

1. To supply detachments for HM ships, which (a) man a proportion of the ships' armament, (b) provide emergency landing parties, (c) carry out guard duties and the like.
2. To act as Commando units.
3. To provide crews for minor landing craft and certain other parties required for amphibious assault.

Women's Royal Naval Service

The WRNS is now a permanent and integral part of the Naval Service. It has its own disciplinary code. The estimated average strength in 1953-54 is 4,600.

Auxiliary Forces

Royal Fleet Reserve

The RFR consists of men who have taken their discharge from the regular service and who, either voluntarily or as part of their contract, join this reserve for a minimum period of five years. During 1953-54 maximum strength is estimated at 20,000.

Royal Naval Reserve

The RNR (officers and men of the Merchant Navy) reopened its ranks again in February 1950 for volunteers to serve in the Royal Navy in war. The qualification for service in the RNR is that the candidate should be following the sea as a profession. The estimated active strength in 1953-54 is about 4,000, with a reserve of men who served in the last war.

Royal Naval Volunteer Reserve

The RNVR (officers and men who voluntarily train in peace time) is organized in 12 divisions which provide training for general naval service. There are also ten RNVR Air Squadrons. The Royal Naval Volunteer (Wireless) Reserve consists of specialist officers, wireless operators and radio electricians. During 1953-54 provision is made for a maximum RNVR strength of 12,250.

Royal Marines Forces Volunteer Reserve and Women's Royal Naval Volunteer Reserve

The RMFVR and WRNVR are the Royal Marines' and WRNS's counterparts to the RNVR.

General Reserves

Behind these fully trained reserves, available to meet immediate needs on mobilization, is the vast background of officers and men with past war-time and peace-time service in the Royal Navy now either in retirement or in civil occupations.

All those still fit for service are liable to recall on the outbreak of war and, after refresher training where necessary, would help to provide the additional trained manpower required to meet the war-time expansion of the Navy as a whole.

Royal Naval Minewatching Service

The RNMWS, a voluntary civilian organization formed in January 1952, is responsible in time of war for manning posts around the coast and overlooking the main navigable waterways. Its object will be to spot mines dropped from aircraft, and to plot and report their positions. In March 1953 some 4,000 applications to join had been received.

Sea Cadet Corps

The Sea Cadet Corps is the oldest pre-Service movement for boys in the country, its origin dating from the time of the Crimean War in the mid-nineteenth century. As an organization it was sponsored in 1899 by the Navy League (the objects of which are the promotion of a strong Navy and instruction in the history and traditions of the sea). The aim of the Sea Cadet Corps is to give technical training to, and instil naval tradition in, boys 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 estimated strength in 1953-54 is about 1,800 cadet officers and 22,000 cadets.

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: (1) the Parliamentary Under-Secretary of State of War and Financial Secretary of the War Office, who performs parliamentary duties, and (2) 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, who is responsible for strategic policy and plans, operation, intelligence and training, and is also a member of the Chiefs of Staff Committee (see p. 78); the Vice-Chief of the Imperial General Staff; the Deputy Chief of the General Staff, responsible for war organization, equipment and weapons; 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 works services.

Strength

The effective strength of the active Army in the spring of 1953 was the equivalent of 11½ divisions. Of these, some 80 per cent were serving overseas.

Equipment

Adequate supplies of *Centurion* tanks for the active Army are available and issues are now being made to the Territorial Army for their training. A new experimental tank, the *Caernarvon*, has been developed, with heavier armour and more powerful drive than the *Centurion*, to which it will be complementary. A new scout car and a new armoured wheel personnel carrier came into full production during 1953 and issues to the forces have begun.

Much progress has been made on the rearmament of the infantry, especially in the production of anti-tank weapons. A complete 'family' of new weapons is being manufactured and issued to infantry units. It includes: an anti-tank grenade of great destructive capacity projected from the standard service rifle; a light, short-ranged rocket-launcher; and a new recoil-less anti-tank gun. Considerable progress has been made in the design and production of new guided weapons, bridging, body armour and radiac instruments.

Organization of the Regular Army

The Army is organized in twenty-five corps or arms, which include the Royal Armoured Corps (the historic Cavalry Regiments—Dragoons, Hussars, Lancers—and the Royal Tank Regiment), Artillery, Engineers, Signals, Infantry, and various other corps such as the Royal Army Service Corps, the Royal Army Ordnance Corps, the Royal Army Medical Corps, etc. The Infantry has been reorganized since 1946 in the following groups:

1. The Grenadier Guards, The Coldstream Guards, The Scots Guards, The Irish Guards, The Welsh Guards.
2. The Royal Scots, The Royal Scots Fusiliers, The King's Own Scottish Borderers, The Cameronians.
3. The Queen's Royal Regiment, The Buffs, The Royal Fusiliers, The East Surrey Regiment, The Royal Sussex Regiment, The Queen's Own Royal West Kent Regiment, The Middlesex Regiment.
4. The King's Own Royal Regiment, The King's Regiment, The Lancashire Fusiliers, The East Lancashire Regiment, The Border Regiment, The South Lancashire Regiment, The Loyal Regiment, The Manchester Regiment.

5. The Royal Northumberland Fusiliers, The West Yorkshire Regiment, The East Yorkshire Regiment, The Green Howards, The Duke of Wellington's Regiment, The York and Lancaster Regiment.
6. The Royal Warwickshire Regiment, The Royal Lincolnshire Regiment, The Royal Leicestershire Regiment, The Sherwood Foresters.
7. The Royal Norfolk Regiment, The Suffolk Regiment, The Bedfordshire and Hertfordshire Regiment, The Essex Regiment, The Northamptonshire Regiment.
8. The Devonshire Regiment, The Gloucestershire Regiment, The Royal Hampshire Regiment, The Dorset Regiment, The Royal Berkshire Regiment, The Wiltshire Regiment.
9. The Somerset Light Infantry, The Duke of Cornwall's Light Infantry, The Oxfordshire and Buckinghamshire Light Infantry, The King's Own Yorkshire Light Infantry, The King's Shropshire Light Infantry, The Durham Light Infantry.
10. The Cheshire Regiment, The Worcestershire Regiment, The South Staffordshire Regiment, The North Staffordshire Regiment.
11. The Royal Welch Fusiliers, The South Wales Borderers, The Welch Regiment.
12. The Royal Inniskilling Fusiliers, The Royal Ulster Rifles, The Royal Irish Fusiliers.
13. The Black Watch, The Highland Light Infantry, The Seaforth Highlanders, The Gordon Highlanders, The Cameron Highlanders, The Argyll and Sutherland Highlanders.
14. The King's Royal Rifle Corps, The Rifle Brigade.

Women's Royal Army Corps

The WRAC, which has replaced the ATS, is a corps in the Regular Army, the officers and other ranks of which are, with minor exceptions and modifications, subject to the Army Act and Queen's Regulations to the same extent as members of any other corps.

Queen Alexandra's Royal Army Nursing Corps

The QARANC, which has replaced the QAIMNS, is a corps of the Regular Army and provides the nursing services within the Army. It numbers about 2,000.

Territorial Army

The Territorial Army was reconstituted in 1947 and now forms part of the national Army. Its role on the outbreak of war would be:

- (1) to provide the great bulk of the anti-aircraft and coast defences of the country and the reinforcements in those arms required at ports and airfields overseas;
- (2) to provide, with the active army, a field force wherever required;
- (3) to support the civil defence organization in its task of minimizing the effects of enemy air attack.

From the outbreak of war the Regular and Territorial Armies would be integrated. In the United Kingdom the combined resources of Regular and Territorial units would be used together to meet initial operational requirements and to provide the framework of subsequent expansion.

The Territorial Army is to be brought up to the equivalent of 12 TA divisions, which should be able to take the field after a short period of formation training, following mobilization. The TA consists of armoured, infantry and airborne divisions, certain independent brigades, a large proportion of anti-aircraft and coastal artillery units, together

with Corps and Army troops and administrative units. Its backbone is the volunteer, but from October 1950 an increasing proportion of its strength has been National Service men doing their compulsory term of three and a half years' part-time service in its ranks. The strength of the Territorial Army in March 1953 was 209,000 men.

Army Emergency Reserve

The object of the Army Emergency Reserve is, broadly, to provide the technical and administrative units needed to form the essential backing to the fighting formations of the Regular Army and of the Territorial Army immediately on mobilization. The Army Emergency Reserve is not part of the Territorial Army but an essential complement to it. In structure its units are similar to those of the Territorial Army in that they consist of basic elements of volunteers to provide the senior officers and NCOs, completed ultimately with National Service men during their part-time service; but the units are raised on a trade or 'skill' basis and not territorially.

Army Cadet Force

The ACF was founded 90 years ago. Its objects are pre-Service training and the encouragement of club life, games, etc. In the 1953-54 Estimates provision is made for about 6,230 officers and 123,800 cadets (of whom about half are in the Combined Cadet Force).

The Home Guard

The Home Guard, instituted during the second world war, was re-established on a voluntary and limited basis by the Home Guard Act, 1951.

The tasks of the Home Guard in war time would be to guard vulnerable points, particularly key factories and airfields, and to assist the civil defence organization in the event of heavy air attack.

The force is open to men between 18 and 65, unless they are members of the Regular forces, or of certain reserves, or of the Territorial Army. Women are eligible for service as clerks and telephonists. Service is for two years and may be extended for one year at a time. Service is part-time in times of peace, but members of the Home Guard are required to give whole-time service in the United Kingdom if the unit to which they belong is mustered to repel an invasion. There is no pay, but allowances are made to cover subsistence, disablement, travelling, etc., at a flat rate irrespective of rank. When on duty and mustered, members of the Home Guard will be subject to military law, but no member would be tried under military law for an offence which could come within the civil code.

The Home Guard was started as the Local Defence Volunteers in 1940 and was afterwards named the Home Guard on the suggestion of the then Prime Minister, Mr. Churchill. In the course of the war the organization reached a strength of over 1½ million. It held its 'stand-down' parade in December 1944.

THE ROYAL AIR FORCE

The Royal Air Force is administered by the Air Council (a body similar in organization to the Army Council), of which the Secretary of State for Air is president. The Council also has five permanent and three additional members. Of these, the Parliamentary Under-Secretary of State for Air acts as vice-president of the Air Council and performs parliamentary duties; and the Permanent Under-Secretary of State for Air, who is a civil servant, acts as secretary of the Air Council. The military members of the Council include the Chief of the Air Staff, who is responsible for strategic policy and the fighting efficiency of the RAF and is also a member of the Chiefs of Staff Committee; the Vice-Chief of the Air Staff, responsible for inter-Service policy, operations, intelligence, liaison with other air forces, standardization 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; the Air Member for Supply and Organization; and the Controller of Supplies (Air) of the Ministry of Supply.

Equipment

In 1952 the Government decided to concentrate on the production of the most advanced types of aircraft and equipment for the RAF and to reduce purchases of those less advanced. The seven aircraft types to which super-priority has been accorded are: the *Hunter*, *Swift* and *Javelin* (jet fighters), and the *Canberra*, *Valiant*, *Vulcan* and *Victor* (jet bombers).

During 1952 additional operational aircraft were brought into service in Commands at home and overseas, and the number of flying hours was one-third greater than during the previous year.

Both day and night fighter forces in Fighter Command will continue to expand throughout 1953-54. During the year the first British-built swept-wing day fighters will be introduced. The first type in operational service will be the *Swift*, and all preparations have now been completed to bring it into squadrons as aircraft become available. *Hunter* squadrons will follow. Fighter Command is being further re-equipped with *F86 Sabres* with airframes provided by Canada and engines and equipment supplied by the United States under the Mutual Security programme.

In Bomber Command more squadrons of *Canberra* twin-jet tactical bombers have been formed and the expansion of the *Canberra* bomber force will be greatly accelerated during 1953-54. Photographic reconnaissance squadrons are being re-equipped with *Canberra* aircraft.

For longer-range strategic bombing three large four-jet types are being developed. The *Valiant*, it is hoped, will come into service in 1954. Two new prototypes of exceptionally advanced design, the delta-wing *Vulcan* and the crescent-wing *Victor*, have shown outstanding performance during trials, and orders have been placed for both.

A powerful new jet engine, the de Havilland *Gyron*, is being developed, primarily for supersonic fighter aircraft.

Commands

The Royal Air Force is organized into Commands administered by the Air Council:

At Home. Bomber, Fighter, Coastal, Transport, Flying Training, Technical Training, Maintenance and Home (formerly known as Reserve) Commands.

Overseas. Second Tactical Air Force (Germany), the Middle East Air Force (headquarters at Ismailia, Canal Zone of Egypt) and the Far East Air Force (headquarters at Changi, Singapore).

Commands are subdivided into groups and wings, a certain number of squadrons being allotted to each group or wing. Squadrons are subdivided into flights.

Women's Royal Air Force

Women play an important part in the work not only of the Royal Air Force but of its reserve and auxiliary formations. The WRAF is a permanent and integral part of the Royal Air Force and its members train with and work alongside airmen in the same trades, serving not only in the United Kingdom but in Germany, the Middle East and the Far East. The estimated strength in 1953-54 is 10,150.

Auxiliary and Reserve Forces

The Royal Air Force auxiliary and reserve formations, administered by Home Command, are:

1. The Royal Auxiliary Air Force, which consists of units raised and maintained by Territorial and Auxiliary Forces Associations. It includes flying squadrons (fighter, transport, and air observation post), regiment squadrons and fighter control and radar reporting units. Each trains and operates as a self-contained unit. The estimated strength in 1953-54 is 9,380.
2. The Royal Air Force Volunteer Reserve, which provides a pool of officers, airmen and airwomen, who, like the personnel of the Auxiliary Air Force, train on a part-time basis, both as individuals and units.
3. The Air Training Corps, open to boys between the ages of 14 and 18, which has a strength of over 700 squadrons and some 41,000 cadets, and, like the other pre-Service formations, seeks to inculcate citizenship as well as training for the RAF.

Royal Observer Corps

Nearly 20,000 men and women from all walks of life form the Royal Observer Corps, a voluntary civilian organization, which is part of Fighter Command, devoted to the specialized task of identifying and plotting the movements of aircraft. The corps originated in the first world war to report the movements of German aircraft and zeppelins over Great Britain and was officially established in 1925.

CIVIL DEFENCE

Civil defence is a vital and integral part of Britain's defence plans. Under the Civil Defence Act, 1948, the Secretary of State for the Home Department (in Scotland the Secretary of State for Scotland) is given wide powers in relation to civil defence which are applied by Regulations requiring the approval of Parliament. Other ministers may be designated under the Act to exercise powers with regard to particular subjects, and the Ministers of Health, Food, Housing and Local Government, and Transport and Civil Aviation have in this way been designated to deal respectively with such matters as the casualty services,¹ emergency feeding, evacuation,¹ and the maintenance of transport services in war time.

Thus civil defence in the United Kingdom is the responsibility of a number of ministers each of whom undertakes the duties which, in war time, will represent a natural extension of his peace-time functions. The Home Secretary is responsible for the civil defence activities of the police and fire services,¹ and he administers the Civil Defence Corps as well as such matters as war-time lighting restrictions, air-raid shelter policy and the civil air-raid warning system. He has, in addition, the function of co-ordinating the civil defence work of all Departments. This necessarily involves much interdepartmental work, and the necessary committee organization for this purpose has been established at both the ministerial and the official levels. In addition there is a Civil Defence Joint Planning Staff, under Home Office chairmanship, on which all Departments with civil defence responsibilities are represented.

As the development of effective civil defence services involves much detailed planning and organization at local level, the central Government has enlisted the assistance of local government authorities throughout the country, of industry and of public bodies of many kinds, including voluntary organizations.

To provide the personnel required in war for civil defence tasks the following formations, in which in peace time only part-time service is required, are raised by voluntary recruitment:

1. The Special Constabulary, to reinforce the police forces in all police functions.
2. The Auxiliary Fire Service, to reinforce the fire services maintained by local authorities under the Fire Services Act, 1947.

¹In Scotland these matters are the responsibility of the Secretary of State for Scotland.

3. The Civil Defence Corps, which was created by Royal Warrant in May 1949.
4. The National Hospital Service Reserve, limited at present to trained nurses and persons willing to be trained as nursing auxiliaries.

The Civil Defence Corps is the only one of these formations called upon to undertake tasks which have no peace-time equivalent. It is recruited and organized by certain local authorities (mainly the councils of counties and county boroughs, or large burghs in Scotland) in local divisions each subdivided into five sections¹ as follows:

| | |
|----------------------|--|
| HEADQUARTERS: | communications, special reconnaissance, information and administration, and identification of toxic agents. |
| WARDENS: | supplementary air-raid warnings, damage control, movement of refugees, reconnaissance and reporting, organization of domestic self-help parties. |
| RESCUE: ² | rescue work, stretcher-bearing, first aid, and operational debris clearance. |
| AMBULANCE: | ambulance driving and first aid. |
| WELFARE: | escort and welfare of homeless and evacuees, billeting, rest centres, supervision and welfare of public in shelters, emergency cooking and feeding, mobile kitchens and canteens, replacement of clothing, veterinary service, public information centres. |

With certain restrictions regarding age and service obligations to the armed forces, recruits for all four formations are drawn from men and women who are willing to serve as long as they are able and who will undertake to train approximately five hours each month. They are not paid, but reasonable out-of-pocket expenses are reimbursed.

Strengths in Great Britain at 30th June 1953 were:

| | | |
|--|---------|---------|
| Special Constabulary (recruited since November 1949) | .. | 39,188 |
| Auxiliary Fire Service | | 18,814 |
| Civil Defence Corps | | 298,294 |
| National Hospital Service Reserve | | 38,974 |

To provide central training in civil defence three residential technical training schools are maintained by the Home Office, and persons nominated by local authorities attend to enable them to qualify as civil defence instructors. First-aid instructors, however, are provided in the main by the St. John Ambulance Brigade (in Scotland, St. Andrew's Ambulance Association) and the British Red Cross Society.

There is also a Civil Defence Staff College, providing courses for senior officials in all aspects of civil defence, and, in its grounds, a Tactical School to provide training for officers who will be in control of operations at or near damaged areas.

In order to find a basis on which central reserves to help local authorities should be provided, an experimental mobile column, manned by 150 officers and men of the Army and RAF, was formed in January 1953, and after four months' training it made a tour of Britain for exercises with local authorities. The role foreseen for a mobile column is as a tactical force of some 600 men and 250 women.

The Civil Estimates for the year 1953-54 provided £42.3 million to be spent on civil defence.

¹Four sections in Scotland, which has no ambulance section.

²The former Pioneer Section was amalgamated with the Rescue Section in July 1952.

IV. THE NATIONAL ECONOMY

BACKGROUND

The national economy of the United Kingdom offers to the rest of the world one of its most concentrated markets, particularly for food and the raw materials for industry. There are some 540 people to every square mile—eleven times as many as in the United States—and their standard of living is among the world's highest. But about half of their food is imported. They grow no cotton, rubber or jute, possess little or no easily mined deposits of aluminium, lead, copper, tin or zinc, and import four-fifths of their wood and their wool. The nation that invented steel can now supply only half its needs of iron ore, and the pioneer of the jet engine buys virtually all its crude oil from abroad.

Yet the national economy of Britain, dependent on the one hand on imported supplies, is itself the second largest supplier of the world's needs: of machinery, electrical apparatus and vehicles; of fine quality textiles and pottery; of coal, chemicals and cutlery; of whisky, jet aircraft and fertilizers. About half the world's trade is conducted in its currency; and in London, the commercial centre of the world, are held the gold and dollar reserves of the sterling Commonwealth and other sterling countries.

This economy is a part also of Western Europe: of the association of countries in the Organization for European Economic Co-operation. As such it is a member of the European Payments Union through which trade is facilitated, not only between Western European countries but also between Western Europe and the whole of the sterling area. It is also the second largest economy to belong to the North Atlantic Treaty Organization, and is currently producing about a half of all the defence goods made by the alliance on the eastern side of the Atlantic.

The general description of the economy which follows gives first an account of its development up to the second world war and the effect of the war upon it; then an analysis of the composition and distribution of the national income in recent years; and finally a summary of the main economic tasks confronting the economy today.

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. The increase of population and wealth continued, though more slowly, in the twentieth century, in spite of increasing trade competition from other industrialized countries and the shocks and financial losses occasioned by two world wars.

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 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 for British textiles from India and other eastern countries, and by the continued high level of oversea 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 and afterwards continued to oust the British product. The extension of the world demand for coal was slowed

down by the increasing use of new fuels from oil, while coal from the new European mines competed severely with British coal.

In the old-established branches of the engineering and vehicles 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 oversea 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 failure to sell abroad 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 summarized thus:

1. *Loss of oversea assets.* Over £1,000 million worth of oversea investments—including £428 million in North America—were sold to pay for war supplies. The income from these had paid for a substantial part of pre-war imports into the United Kingdom.
2. *New oversea 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 fell 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.

In the years after the war the United Kingdom made rapid progress in switching its economy from a war-time to a peace-time footing. Industrial production climbed rapidly: from 1946 (when it was at about the pre-war level) it rose at some 8 per cent a year and by 1950 was nearly a third higher than in 1946. Bigger than average gains were shown by the engineering, shipbuilding, electrical goods and vehicles industries. Supported by rising production, exports made swift progress: from an end-war volume of about half pre-war, they had overtaken pre-war volume by 1947. The swift rise continued until 1950 when the volume was nearly two-thirds greater than in 1947. Imports had to be restricted, and averaged a little below the pre-war level.

Such an increase in exports would not have been possible had it not been for the restric-

There has been a significant change in the distribution of personal incomes:

DISTRIBUTION OF PERSONAL INCOMES

| | 1948 | 1952 |
|---|------|------|
| | % | % |
| <i>Employees</i> (wages and salaries, pay and allowances of Armed Forces, employees' insurance contributions) | 67 | 71 |
| <i>Self-employed persons</i> (professional persons, farmers, other sole traders and partnerships) | 13 | 12 |
| <i>Rent, dividends and interest</i> (received by persons) .. | 13 | 10 |
| <i>Grants from public authorities</i> (National Insurance benefits, etc.) | 7 | 7 |
| | 100 | 100 |

The income from employment has increased more than the income from any other source. Because of this and of the redistributive effects of taxation, the bulk of personal income after tax is concentrated in the middle ranges of income and, compared with 1938, the share taken by the highest incomes is reduced (see Table 5).

TABLE 5

DISTRIBUTION OF PERSONAL INCOMES AFTER INCOME TAX AND SURTAX

| <i>Calendar Year 1938</i> | | | |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------------|----------------------------|--|
| Ranges of income before tax | Number of incomes (a) (thousands) | Percentage of total number | Percentage of aggregate income after tax |
| Under £125 | 16,700 (b) | 63 | 35 |
| £125-£249 | 7,083 | 27 | 29 |
| £250-£499 | 1,890 | 7 | 15 |
| £500-£999 | 539 | 2 | 8 |
| £1,000-£1,999 | 183 | 1 | 5 |
| Over £2,000 | 106 | — | 8 |
| <i>Calendar Year 1952</i> | | | |
| Under £250 | 10,600 (b) | 39 | 15 |
| £250-£499 | 9,600 | 36 | 36 |
| £500-£999 | 5,805 | 21 | 36 |
| £1,000-£1,999 | 740 | 3 | 8 |
| £2,000-£9,999 | 254 | 1 | 5 |
| Over £10,000 | 11 | — | — |

(a) Income of a married couple is counted as one income.

(b) Approximate figure, comprising all married couples and single persons over 14 years of age not included in the higher ranges. It includes those without income but not seeking remunerative work (chiefly single women and students), amounting to about 1½ million persons in 1952.

Personal incomes (the figures are averages for 1948-52) were spent as follows:

| PERSONAL OUTLAY (1948-52 averages) | | % |
|--|---------|-----|
| Taxes on income (including National Insurance contributions) | | 14 |
| Savings | | 1 |
| Personal consumption | | 85* |

*Of this about 15 per cent went in indirect taxes, less subsidies.

Personal consumption was divided between different kinds of commodities as follows:

| DIVISIONS OF PERSONAL CONSUMPTION (1948-52 averages) | | % |
|---|---------|-----|
| Food | | 29 |
| Drink and tobacco | | 17 |
| Rent, rates, fuel and light | | 11 |
| Household goods | | 7 |
| Clothing | | 10 |
| Other goods and services | | 26 |
| | | — |
| | | 100 |
| | | — |

This division is influenced by the incidence of indirect taxes. Food is subsidized, and drink and tobacco are very heavily taxed; expenditure on food is thus a lower percentage of personal consumption, and expenditure on drink and tobacco a higher percentage, than might otherwise be the case.

Government Income and Expenditure

The Government's share in the total supplies available has been given above as 15 per cent. But the percentage of total incomes which the Government takes is higher, since public authorities raise a considerable part of their income, not to spend it on goods and services, but to redistribute as pensions or subsidies. If the total income of the central Government, local authorities, and the National Insurance Fund, is compared with the total income received by everyone (including companies) for work done, the percentage is about 40.

The following table gives a summary of the way in which public authorities—the central Government, local authorities, and the National Insurance Fund—collected and spent their income in 1952.

ACCOUNTS OF PUBLIC AUTHORITIES IN 1952

| <i>Revenue</i> | % | <i>Expenditure</i> | % |
|--|-----|---|-----|
| Taxes on outlay—alcohol, petrol, purchase tax, entertainments, betting, etc. | 34 | Defence | 25 |
| Taxes on companies, profits, rent, dividends and interest | 27 | Grants to persons—pensions, subsidies, national insurance, etc. . . | 24 |
| Taxes on income from employment | 12 | Local authorities' spending (apart from grants to persons) | 13 |
| National Insurance contributions | 9 | Interest on national and local debt | 12 |
| Rates | 7 | National Health Service | 8 |
| Other taxes | 11 | Other expenditure | 10 |
| | — | Surplus | 8 |
| | 100 | | — |
| | — | | 100 |
| | | | — |

THE ECONOMY TODAY

An Oversea Surplus

The root problem for the United Kingdom economy in the fifties is the maintenance of a surplus of current overseas earnings in relation to current overseas spending. This is because the country has to meet four types of overseas financial commitments, as well as rebuilding the gold and dollar reserves. These commitments are:

- (1) repayment of the United States and Canadian loans;
- (2) repayment of remaining debt to the European Payments Union;
- (3) reduction of sterling indebtedness (from mid-1951 to mid-1953 reduced by £600 million); and
- (4) the financing of commercial and other investment in the Commonwealth and elsewhere.

Looking further ahead, defence aid must be expected to fall, an expanding economy at home will require larger imports, and allowance must be made for further reductions in quantitative restrictions on imports. For all these reasons, the most important task facing British industry is the further expansion of exports.

In 1952, leaving aside defence aid, the United Kingdom succeeded in converting the serious 1951 deficit of £414 million into a £148 million surplus. The main factors in this improvement, however, were a reduction in the volume of imports and a big favourable swing in the terms on which the country traded with the rest of the world. The value of exports increased a little, but this was a result of higher prices; the volume of exports actually declined. Freeing world trade from restrictions and, when circumstances are right, attaining the convertibility of sterling, are foremost among the overseas objectives of the United Kingdom economy; but a sustained international effort will be needed.

In the meantime the United Kingdom is seeking to bring about a further improvement in its own foreign trade, and to assist in the further expansion of the resources of the sterling Commonwealth. In the sterling area as a whole particular attention is being given to the need for stimulating economic development, for expanding exports and, consistently with the maintenance of adequate reserves, for removing progressively restrictions on trade over as wide an area as possible and especially within the Commonwealth and the sterling area.

Raising Industrial Production

Industrial production in 1952 was a little lower than in 1951, mainly as a result of a fall of 5 or 6 per cent in the middle six months of the year. There was a gradual recovery during the last quarter and by April 1953 recovery was complete. The main reason for the fall was to be found in changes in demand. Defence requirements rose, but were more than offset by falls in exports, personal consumption, fixed investment and investment in stocks of finished and semi-finished goods and work in progress.

But although demand fell in 1952, productive capacity was increased. Before the 1953 Budget some rise in total home demand seemed likely; defence expenditure was rising, and small increases in fixed investment and personal consumption were probable. But these claims, together with those of the balance of payments, would have been met if production had merely returned to the 1951 level. There were, however, sufficient resources of manpower, of most raw materials and of capacity for a much larger expansion of output. In these circumstances the main objectives of the 1953 Budget were to give incentives for greater production and to assist the improvement in Britain's competitive position. The Budget therefore proposed tax reductions designed to raise demand, particularly for investment goods.

The reliefs were:

- (1) a reduction of income tax—both on industry and individuals;
- (2) the removal of the excess profits levy with effect from 1st January 1954;
- (3) the restoration of initial allowances on capital equipment, industrial buildings and new mining work;
- (4) reductions in purchase tax.

The first three of these changes would leave companies with substantially greater revenue to finance new capital expenditure—for re-equipment and modernization, for the expansion of new lines with a ready market abroad, for the development of new lines and techniques. Such steps would strengthen Britain's position in the increasingly competitive markets overseas.

The reduction of tax on personal income would provide incentives to higher productivity, while leading to some increase in home demand. This, combined with the lower retail prices resulting from the cuts in purchase tax, would help to increase production of consumer goods (where output in some lines had fallen well below capacity) and thus enable manufacturers to spread their overheads over greater output. This would facilitate the quotation of more competitive prices in home and export markets.

Agriculture

Farming is the United Kingdom's major import-saving industry and in 1952 provided about half of the country's food supplies. Since the late 1930s agricultural output has risen year by year and by 1950-51 had reached 43 per cent above pre-war. There has been a steady technical improvement since 1939, in management of stock and crops, in improvements in seed varieties and in the breeding and health of livestock, and there is good reason to think that these will continue.

By 1950-51 the rise in output had started to slow and in the spring of 1952 the Government called on the industry for a renewed effort, and set a production objective of at least 60 per cent above pre-war by 1956. The industry was asked for an all-round increase in productivity with particular emphasis on meat (especially beef, veal, mutton and lamb) and on feedingstuffs, including grass. Output in 1952-53 is provisionally put at half as much again as pre-war.

At the end of March 1953 Government controls on price and distribution of eggs were removed, and in August 1953 controls on prices and supplies of cereals were abolished. These steps are designed to encourage economy and increase efficiency and make easier the achievement of the production objectives. They also mean that new methods must be found for providing for the guaranteed prices and assured markets required by the Agriculture Act of 1947. It is considered that the principles of the Act can be maintained under conditions of less rigid control than hitherto. Appropriate arrangements are to be made for each commodity after discussion between the Government and other interests concerned.

V. FINANCE

PUBLIC FINANCE

Public finance is concerned with the way public authorities finance their activities—how their expenditure is decided upon and how their revenue is obtained.

Moneys administered by public authorities can be roughly divided into two categories:

1. **Exchequer:** the moneys of the central Government, raised and disbursed in accordance with the proposals of the Government, as approved by Parliament (principally the House of Commons), in the form of permanent or annual legislation. There are also funds administered for special purposes by Government Departments and wholly or partially maintained by receipts which do not come from the Exchequer. The only important one at present 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 and for a small part of the cost of the National Health Service (see pp. 230 and 236).
2. **Local Government:** the moneys of local authorities, obtained partly from rates (local taxes on dwelling houses and other real estate) and income from property, and partly from grants and loans from the Exchequer. Local authorities may also raise loans in the open market.¹

The following broad account of Government finance will be concerned mainly with the Exchequer and only incidentally with local government 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.

Since the very early days of Parliament it has been established that such financial control as Parliament possessed was exercised by the House of Commons. This control became effective, as regards taxation, in the seventeenth century, but 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. It was indeed to minimize the chance of rejection that 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 necessary for a Bill certified by the Speaker to be a Money Bill (see pp. 24 and 25).

¹For an account of local government finance see p. 61.

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 central 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 being National Insurance benefits), all payments by the central Government come out of this account.

The following section outlines the machinery by which expenditure and revenue are authorized 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: first, expenditure which is specifically authorized 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 income of members of the Royal Family, 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 services are called Consolidated Fund Services because they represent a permanent charge on the Consolidated Fund.

All other Government expenditure is authorized from year to year, though it may also depend on legislation, such as the National Health Service Acts. This includes all expenditure on defence, education, the health service, housing and food subsidies and the general administration of the country. These are called Supply Services because Parliament, when voting money, is said to grant 'supplies' to the Government.

Authorizing Expenditure

The Estimates for these 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 discusses public policy relevant to the Estimates; any Estimate could be examined in detail if members wished and if time allowed, but this is not the usual practice.

The Vote System. 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 Appropriation Act; this Act appropriates the moneys to specific Votes. Inside each Vote, the spending of money on one subhead instead of on another, or 'virement', is permissible so far as Parliament is concerned, but only with Treasury consent. The way in which subheads and detail are shown in the Estimates is therefore important for Treasury control. Departments are free to distribute expenditure within subheads as they please subject to Treasury approval of the type of expenditure involved; the greater the number and the smaller the size of the subheads, therefore, the smaller the scope for variation without Treasury consent.

An excess of expenditure, or new services not covered by the Vote, or virement of a magnitude or character which the Treasury considers should be brought to the attention of Parliament, all require a Supplementary Estimate. The Treasury exercises the same power of scrutiny over these as over the ordinary Estimates.

Scrutiny of Expenditure

Control of expenditure is maintained by the Treasury, by the Comptroller and Auditor-

General, by the Public Accounts Committee of the House of Commons (see below) and by the Select Committee on Estimates.

The Treasury. The power of the Treasury to control finance arises out of the responsibility of the Chancellor of the Exchequer to the Cabinet for the financial policy of the Government.

With regard to expenditure the Treasury's function centres on its responsibility for presenting 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 (where necessary) the relative merits of expenditure proposed by different Departments and to eliminate 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 to govern 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 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 next paragraph) to examine departmental expenditure with a view to drawing the attention of that Committee to any cases of apparent waste and 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—the '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 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 Committee¹ 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. In practice the Estimates for the current year are not affected,

¹See also p. 26.

but the Committee's recommendations may reinforce Treasury control and influence the nature of expenditure in succeeding years.

Revenue and the Budget

Sources of Revenue

Money to meet the needs of the central Government is in normal years derived mainly from taxation. The revenue from loans and investments is small, and other sources of revenue, e.g., trading surpluses of Government Departments and sale of war stores, are not important.

Taxes can be divided into two groups, direct and indirect, which correspond roughly to the duties collected respectively by the Departments of Inland Revenue and of Customs and Excise. The most important Inland Revenue duties—income tax (including surtax), profits tax and estate duties (death duties)—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 death duties 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 Inland Revenue.

Most indirect or outlay taxes are, however, Customs and Excise duties and are levied on commodities or services. They are called indirect because the importer, manufacturer or wholesaler 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 is, for all practical purposes, an Excise duty, although it is also levied on the appropriate imported goods.

Budget Procedure

Budget is an old name for a bag containing papers or accounts. The origin of the term lies in the phrase "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 making revenue and expenditure balance. By the time the Budget is introduced, the Estimates will have been presented to Parliament and published, and the expected total of Government expenditure for the year will be known.

The Budget speech is the main occasion of the year for reviewing the financial state of the nation. But its formal basis is the Chancellor of the Exchequer's proposals for raising money by taxation; he estimates the yield of the revenue on the basis of existing taxation and proposes such changes as will provide whatever surplus or deficit he considers desirable on general economic grounds. These proposals are embodied in Budget resolutions which are subsequently examined by the House of Commons' Committee of Ways and Means, and later embodied in detail in a Finance Bill.

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 the expenditure on particular goods and services. Later on it was gradually realized that taxation also affected the nation's total expenditure and therefore the general level of economic activity. This idea was crystallized in the late 1930s. Since the war, Budgets have been consciously designed in greater or lesser degree to bring the total of personal and governmental 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

going 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 taxes 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 (personal and governmental), 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 of exports and defence. By 1953, however, 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.

The Exchequer Accounts

Current Expenditure

Expenditure budgeted for the financial year ending 31st March 1954 may be classified under three main headings: first, defence preparations and National Debt charges, which together comprise about 53 per cent of the total expenditure of £4,259 million; secondly, social services and subsidies, which form about 36 per cent of total expenditure; and thirdly, general services, which make up the remaining 11 per cent.

Defence preparations alone absorb £1,637 million¹ or 38½ per cent of the total. National Debt charges—the interest on War Loans, Savings Certificates, etc., and the cost of managing the Debt—account for £615 million or 14½ per cent of total expenditure.

Under the second heading, social services and subsidies, which amount to £1,552 million, the subheads are: education (£286 million); health services (£411 million); war pensions, national assistance, family allowances, Government contribution to the National Insurance Fund, etc. (£394 million); food subsidies (£221 million); assistance to local authorities for housing, police, roads, etc. (£240 million).

The main items under the third heading, general services, which come to £457 million, are: Commonwealth and foreign services (£71 million); Irish services² (£56 million); works and buildings (£62 million); tax collection (£43 million); agriculture and fisheries (£39 million); supply and trading services (£37 million); employment services (£19 million); broadcasting (£17 million); research and development (£17 million); Colonial development and welfare (£16 million).

¹This figure excludes certain expenditure on defence preparations under Civil Votes; it includes £140 million in sterling counterpart of defence aid allotted to the United Kingdom by the United States.

²Mainly the payment made to Northern Ireland from the United Kingdom Exchequer under the Government of Ireland Act, 1920, (see footnote 3, p. 19), in compensation for the tax revenue which is remitted to the Exchequer by Northern Ireland; together with certain services administered in Northern Ireland by United Kingdom Government Departments.



Current Revenue

The estimated Inland Revenue for 1953-54 is £2,436 million, more than half the total revenue of £4,368 million. Yields from all main sources are expected to be as follows: income tax £1,782 million, surtax £127 million, death duties £160 million, profits tax and excess profits levy £314 million, stamp duties £52 million. (The excess profits levy is, however, being ended from the 1st January 1954.)

The amount of tax paid yearly by people with different incomes is shown in Table 6. Since 1943 most wage and salary earners have paid their income tax under a PAYE ('Pay-as-you-earn') Scheme which enables them to keep up to date in their tax payments week by week (or month by month if they are paid monthly).

The scale of death duties is illustrated in Table 7. In 1946 estates of a net capital value of less than £2,000 were exempted from payment of death duty and a new scale for values over £2,000 was introduced. The scale was altered again in 1949, when legacy and succession duties were consolidated with death duties, and it has since remained unchanged.

Estimated Customs receipts for 1953-54 are £1,044 million and Excise receipts £680 million. The most important items are as follows:

| <i>Customs</i> | | <i>£ million</i> | <i>Excise</i> | | <i>£ million</i> |
|--------------------------------|---------|------------------|----------------------|---------|------------------|
| Spirits | | 28 | Spirits | | 75 |
| Tobacco | | 615 | Beer | | 238 |
| Oil | | 277 | Entertainments | | 44 |
| Duties under Import Duties Act | | 70 | Purchase Tax | | 260 |

The total receipts from taxation, including motor vehicle duties (£69 million) are expected to yield £4,230 million in 1953-54. Revenue from other sources, including broadcast receiving licences (£16 million) is expected to be £138 million.

TABLE 6
INCOME TAX AND SURTAX PAID BY PERSONS WITH DIFFERING
INCOMES AND FAMILY RESPONSIBILITIES
1953-54

| Income before tax £ | Single persons | | Married couples without children | | Married couples with two children | |
|------------------------|----------------------------------|---------------------------------------|----------------------------------|---------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| | Income all earned income £ s. | Income all investment income* £ s. | Income all earned income £ s. | Income all investment income* £ s. | Income all earned income £ s. | Income all investment income* £ s. |
| 200 | 4 9 | 4 9 | — | — | — | — |
| 300 | 15 17 | 29 6 | 2 18 | 11 5 | — | — |
| 400 | 35 6 | 60 10 | 12 16 | 35 0 | — | 2 10 |
| 500 | 56 12 | 95 10 | 32 4 | 64 0 | 1 2 | 17 10 |
| 1,000 | 218 10 | 318 10 | 178 0 | 278 0 | 101 14 | 201 10 |
| 2,000 | 568 10 | 768 10 | 528 0 | 728 0 | 451 10 | 651 10 |
| 5,000 | 2,428 10 | 2,631 0 | 2,388 0 | 2,590 10 | 2,311 10 | 2,514 0 |
| 10,000 | 6,353 10 | 6,556 0 | 6,313 0 | 6,515 10 | 6,236 10 | 6,439 0 |

Source: *Financial Statement 1953-54*

* Some relief is given when the taxpayer (or his wife) is over 65.

TABLE 7

DEATH DUTIES PAID ON ESTATES OF DIFFERENT VALUES

| Net capital value of total estate £ | Duty £ | Net capital value of total estate £ | Duty £ |
|---|-----------|---|-----------|
| 2,000 | Nil | 30,000 | 5,400 |
| 3,000 | 30 | 40,000 | 9,600 |
| 5,000 | 100 | 50,000 | 15,500 |
| 10,000 | 400 | 100,000 | 45,000 |
| 15,000 | 1,200 | 500,000 | 325,000 |
| 20,000 | 2,400 | 1,000,000 | 750,000 |

Source: *Ninety-fifth Report of the Commissioners of Inland Revenue*

Capital Payments and Receipts

The Government also receives funds and makes payments of a capital nature. In the last few years the main items of capital expenditure have been loans to local authorities for housing and other investment (for which about £400 million is budgeted in 1953-54); loans for the development of new towns; and advances to public corporations. 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, while, if there is a surplus, it goes to reduce the National Debt.

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 £650 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 1953 the total National Debt was £26,050 million, of which about £2,160 million was held externally, mainly by the United States and Canadian Governments. Of the £23,900 million of internal debt, about £5,700 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 (varying from $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 4 per cent) and with fixed or indeterminate dates of repayment.

In November 1951, £1,000 million of Treasury Bills were converted into $1\frac{3}{4}$ per cent serial funding stocks maturing in 1952, 1953 and 1954; a second funding operation was carried out in October 1952, and a third in October 1953. On the 31st March 1953 the 'floating debt' (i.e. temporary Government borrowing) was about £4,700 million.

Since the war new lending by the Government has exceeded loan repayment, as the main borrowers, the local authorities, repay over a long term, and the procedure whereby they rely on the Exchequer for most of their loans became fully operative only in 1945.

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 specialized 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 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 Rate—the rate at which the Bank of England will discount first-class bills of exchange. The Bank Rate was raised from 2 to 2½ per cent in November 1951 and to 4 per cent in March 1952; it was reduced to 3½ per cent in September 1953.

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 (see pp. 117-19).

The other banks maintain large balances with the Bank of England and these balances form part of the bankers' 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 Equalization Account because it was 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.

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. Domestic banking members of the British Bankers' Association number 27, including seven in Scotland and three in Northern Ireland; these banks control nearly 12,500 branches and have assets of over £8,000 million.
2. The volume of cheques handled is very large and, in spite of a tax of 2d. on each cheque, many payments—and even relatively small payments—are made by cheque. The value of cheques cleared daily in 1952 through the London and Provincial Clearing Houses reached £365 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).

In April 1953 about 33 per cent of the banks' deposits were covered by cash and short-term securities while longer-term securities amounted to about 35 per cent,

and advances to customers to about 30 per cent of total deposits. It is not the practice of British banks to participate directly in industry, the financing of which is, as far as they are concerned, normally limited to short-term advances.

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 the Commonwealth and other countries to have London offices; 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 in goods which are shipped direct between other countries.

Other Banks

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 small incomes. Both types of savings 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 the encouragement of the widespread investment of savings in Trustee and Post Office Savings Banks 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. The committees are bodies of independent persons representing regional savings organizations and various national institutions connected with such things 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.

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. Trustee Savings Banks also accept, in certain circumstances, deposits 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. Trustee Savings Banks are particularly flourishing in small towns. At the end of 1952 there were about 1,250 Trustee Offices controlled by 85 independent banks.

The Post Office Savings Bank is the largest organization of its kind in the world. It has over 22 million active accounts; in March 1953 total balances, which carry a Government guarantee, amounted to £1,803 million, over £80 per depositor. Through a centralized system of accounting, a depositor can pay in money or make a withdrawal at any one of some 19,000 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.

Co-operative Banks

The Co-operative Wholesale Society (see p. 124) 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 in 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.

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 and the Insurance Market. New issues of capital above £50,000 are controlled by the Treasury with the advice of the Capital Issues Committee (see p. 108).

The firms engaged in this business are in the main highly specialized, e.g., discount houses, accepting houses, stockbrokers, insurers, insurance underwriters and brokers. In addition to these specialist firms, however, there is a class of bank, the merchant bank, which has been of great importance in the finance of trade and commodity dealings and in the flotation of major issues of bonds, particularly for oversea 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 created a continuing claim for interest and attracted to Britain a steady flow of orders for machinery, textiles and coal. This increasing trade was usually financed by bills of exchange, which were traded on the discount market and provided 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.

To the extent to which 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 in order 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 incorporated in 1953 for the purpose of assisting development projects within the Commonwealth.

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 industry with a view to promoting efficiency and thereby assisting in the maintenance and increase of employment.

The Corporation has an authorized 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 1952 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 representing security to the banks who provide the loan capital out of which the Corporation makes its advances.

The enterprises assisted by the FCI are concerned with a variety of products, e.g., diesel engines, permanent prefabricated houses, shipping, electrical components, steel, oil, chemicals, etc.

Industrial and Commercial Finance Corporation Limited. The ICFC is smaller than 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 authorized and issued share capital of the Corporation is £15 million which is paid up as required; the Corporation can borrow up to a further £30 million 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 nature of the Corporation's business is to provide finance in sums ranging between £5,000 and £200,000 for small and medium-sized concerns. It has a large number of customers and has established branches in Birmingham, 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 development schemes in the British Commonwealth. The authorized capital of this company is £15 million but to begin with only 10 per cent of it is being called up; the Company is empowered to borrow up to twice its issued capital.

The Stock Exchange

The main Stock Exchange in the United Kingdom is in London but there are other Stock Exchanges in various provincial centres, though London, on account of its size, provides the main market.

The Stock Exchanges provide a means by which a holder of quoted stock or shares (all important securities are quoted) can, if he wishes, find a buyer for his securities; the Stock Exchanges 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 make 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 being made the following year with the passing of the Borrowing (Control and Guarantees) Act, 1946.

The Committee is entirely independent of Government Departments and consists of seven men of experience in commerce, industry or finance, who consider applications to raise loans or issue capital above £50,000 and tender their advice to the Treasury upon them.

Investment Trusts

Investment trusts cater for the investor who does not wish or has insufficient 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 of 1929, 1947 or 1948; investment trusts in this form have been established in the United Kingdom for about a century. They invest their share and 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 British insurance market is in the main divided into two parts, the insurance companies and Lloyd's. The company market is the larger, but Lloyd's is older and has a greater claim on the popular imagination. The company market consists of about 300 British insurance offices, chiefly incorporated under the Companies Acts, of which some two-thirds are small or of local or specialized significance, whereas the remainder transact a general business. Most of the latter are controlled by about 30 very large companies of international repute. In addition, some 200 oversea companies are represented, emphasizing the international nature of the insurance market. The natural focus of the market is in London, although some of the largest offices have their administrative centres elsewhere. In addition, there are some 150 Friendly and Collecting Societies devoted solely to industrial life assurance¹ throughout the country, but these are not part of the insurance market proper.

¹Life insurance for which the contributions are collected weekly (a system convenient to weekly wage earners).

Lloyd's is an association of individual underwriters who group themselves into what are known as syndicates. The conduct of insurance business at Lloyd's is regulated by the Committee of Lloyd's, and the affairs of the Society of Lloyd's in its corporate capacity are administered by the Committee under an Act of Parliament. In addition to its insurance activities Lloyd's maintains a world-wide organization for the collection and diffusion of shipping intelligence (see p. 183). Although in its earlier history the activities of Lloyd's were confined to the conduct of marine insurance business, during the last fifty years there has been built up at Lloyd's a very considerable world-wide market in connection with the transaction of other classes of insurance business.

The 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 specialize in reinsurance business, acting as intermediaries in the exchange of contracts between companies, both British and oversea companies, and often acting as London representatives of the latter.

The volume of premium income business transacted by the insurance market during the year 1952 was about £1,000 million.

Over two-thirds of the fire, accident and marine business comes from abroad, partly by direct placing in London and partly from branch and agency offices established in over 100 countries. The profits on this business, together with interest earned on funds maintained locally, have produced in recent years a substantial sum in foreign exchange, of which a large part was represented by dollars. The basic principle of international business is that resources capable of meeting any potential loss are instantly available for application wherever necessary.

Behind this large and international volume of business stand the assets of the companies, aggregating over £3,000 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. British insurers hold over £1,200 million in British Government and other public stocks, while about £900 million is invested in ordinary shares, preference shares and debentures in industry, mostly in the United Kingdom.

VI. TRADE

EXTERNAL TRADE

British overseas markets and sources of supply are world-wide. The wealth and very existence of the British people has, for over a century, depended on overseas trade. British imports consist mainly of food and of the various materials, raw and processed, required by British industries, though finished capital and consumer goods are also imported. British exports are preponderantly of manufactured goods, but coal and raw wool are also important exports.

For over one hundred years the value of goods imported into Britain has exceeded that of goods exported, the balance of imports being paid for in normal years by net invisible exports, i.e. the net receipts of interest, dividends and profits on previous investment abroad and income from shipping, insurance and a variety of financial services.

Pattern of External Trade in 1952

In 1952 total imports were valued at £3,481 million c.i.f.¹ and exports of United Kingdom produce and manufactures at £2,550 million f.o.b.²; re-exports of imported merchandise totalled £144 million f.o.b.³ About 40 per cent of total imports (see Table 8)

TABLE 8
COMMODITY DISTRIBUTION OF IMPORTS AND EXPORTS IN 1952

£ million

| | Food and Drink | Tobacco | Raw Materials | Metals and Engineering Products | Textiles and Clothing | Other Manufactures | Total* |
|----------------------------|----------------|---------|---------------|---------------------------------|-----------------------|--------------------|--------|
| Total imports c.i.f. | 1,163 | 52 | 1,400 | 851 | | | 3,481 |
| % | 33 | 1 | 40 | 24 | | | 100 |
| Exports of UK goods f.o.b. | 133 | 25 | 111 | 1,320 | 381 | 531 | 2,550 |
| % | 5 | 1 | 4 | 52 | 15 | 21 | 100 |

*Including small amounts for animals (not for food) and parcel post transactions.

Source: Statistics Division, Board of Trade.

¹'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.

²'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.

³Expenditure on imports in 1952, though considerably greater than in 1950, was appreciably less than in 1951 (see Table 9). This reflected the combined effect of import restrictions, lower prices and lower demand in the United Kingdom.

consisted of raw materials (chiefly petroleum, raw wool, raw cotton, wood and timber, paper-making materials, rubber, and non-metalliferous ores and scrap), while food and drink items (chiefly grain, meat, beverages and cocoa preparations, and dairy produce) accounted for 33 per cent and manufactured goods for 24 per cent. In export trade, on the other hand, manufactured goods accounted for as much as 88 per cent of the total. The principal groups of exports in 1952 were: vehicles (including locomotives, ships and aircraft), £479 million; machinery, £422 million; iron and steel and manufactures thereof, £192 million; cotton yarns and manufactures, £148 million; chemicals, drugs, dyes and colours, £138 million; and woollen and worsted yarns and manufactures, £124 million.

In 1952 the sterling area provided 41 per cent of total imports into the United Kingdom and took 49 per cent of the total of United Kingdom exports. Trade with member countries of the Organization for European Economic Co-operation (OEEC) and their possessions represented about a quarter of total exports and imports. North America provided 18 per cent of total imports and took 11 per cent of total United Kingdom exports.

Of the total imports from North America (£635 million), imports from the United States amounted to £316 million and imports from Canada to £319 million. Exports of United Kingdom produce to those countries amounted to £144 million and £127 million respectively.

The principal suppliers in the sterling area were: Australia, £225 million; New Zealand, £166 million; Kuwait (petroleum), £137 million; and India, £115 million. The United Kingdom's principal markets in the sterling area were: Australia, £220 million; the Union of South Africa, £142 million; and New Zealand, £114 million.

Trends in External Trade Since 1938

Changes in the value and volume of external trade as a whole are shown in Table 9. Imports rose in value from £919 million in 1938 to £1,792 million in 1947 and £3,481 million in 1952. The rise in value of exports was from £471 million in 1938 to £1,139 million in 1947 and £2,550 million in 1952.

TABLE 9
IMPORTS AND EXPORTS: ANNUAL FIGURES

| | 1938 | 1946 | 1947 | 1948 | 1949 | 1950 | 1951 | 1952 |
|--------------------------|------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Value (£ million) | | | | | | | | |
| Total imports c.i.f. | 919 | 1,292 | 1,792 | 2,074 | 2,275 | 2,608 | 3,904 | 3,481 |
| Exports of } f.o.b. | 471 | 915 | 1,139 | 1,583 | 1,786 | 2,171 | 2,580 | 2,550 |
| UK goods } f.o.b. | 61 | 50 | 59 | 60 | 58 | 85 | 127 | 144 |
| Re-exports | | | | | | | | |
| Volume Index Nos. | | | | | | | | |
| Total imports { 1938=100 | 100 | 67 | 76 | | | | | |
| { 1950=100 | | | 89 | 92* | 100* | 100 | 113 | 103 |
| Exports of { 1938=100 | 100 | 99 | 109 | | | | | |
| UK goods { 1950=100 | | | 62 | 79 | 87 | 100 | 101 | 95 |

*Approximate.

Source: Statistics Division, Board of Trade.

Calculations of changes in the quantity of external trade compared with pre-war tend to be unrealistic, as the relative values of different classes of goods on which the volume figures are based have changed considerably since 1938. Broadly speaking, however, the volume of imports in 1947 was about a quarter less than in 1938; between 1947 and 1952 the volume increased by about 15 per cent. The volume of exports in 1952 was about two-thirds greater than in 1938.

As compared with pre-war, exports of motor vehicles, aircraft, machinery, chemicals and electrical goods have greatly increased in importance, while the older staples, such as cotton and wool textiles, though still considerable, have taken a declining share in the export total. Before the war Britain's coal exports averaged about 30-40 million tons a year; between 1950 and 1952 the average was about 11 million tons.

As a result of the substantial rise in industrial production since 1947, imports of raw materials have increased much more rapidly than have imports of food, drink and tobacco.

The area distribution of external trade in 1938 and 1947 in comparison with that of 1952 is shown in Table 10. Imports from North America, which were 22 per cent of the

TABLE 10
AREA DISTRIBUTION OF EXTERNAL TRADE
Value of Total Imports: Analysis by Source

| | 1938 | | 1947 | | 1952 | |
|--|--------------------|-----|--------------------|-----|--------------------|-----|
| | Value £ million | % | Value £ million | % | Value £ million | % |
| North America | 199.3 | 22 | 536.2 | 30 | 635.2 | 18 |
| <i>of which:</i> USA | 118.0 | 13 | 297.1 | 17 | 315.7 | 9 |
| Canada | 81.3 | 9 | 239.1 | 13 | 319.5 | 9 |
| Other American Account Countries | 15.7 | 2 | 67.6 | 4 | 86.3 | 2 |
| Other Western Hemisphere Countries | 61.6 | 7 | 175.7 | 10 | 99.1 | 3 |
| Sterling Area | 286.9 | 31 | 558.3 | 31 | 1,437.3 | 41 |
| Non-Sterling OEEC Countries and Possessions | 220.3 | 23 | 307.8 | 17 | 856.8 | 25 |
| Eastern Europe | 74.3 | 8 | 49.1 | 3 | 165.8 | 5 |
| Rest of the World | 61.4 | 7 | 99.8 | 5 | 201.0 | 6 |
| TOTAL | 919.5 | 100 | 1,794.5 | 100 | 3,481.5 | 100 |

TABLE 10 (contd.)
Value of Exports of UK Goods: Analysis by Destination

| | 1938 | | 1947 | | 1952 | |
|--|--------------------|-----|--------------------|-----|--------------------|-----|
| | Value £ million | % | Value £ million | % | Value £ million | % |
| North America | 44.0 | 9 | 92.9 | 8 | 270.9 | 11 |
| <i>of which:</i> USA | 20.5 | 4 | 48.0 | 4 | 143.5 | 6 |
| Canada | 23.5 | 5 | 44.9 | 4 | 127.4 | 5 |
| Other American Account Countries | 7.5 | 2 | 20.7 | 2 | 62.9 | 2 |
| Other Western Hemisphere Countries | 29.5 | 6 | 62.4 | 5 | 97.8 | 4 |
| Sterling Area | 211.8 | 44 | 555.1 | 49 | 1,252.5 | 49 |
| Non-Sterling OEEC Countries and Possessions | 118.3 | 26 | 265.7 | 23 | 644.6 | 25 |
| Eastern Europe | 27.9 | 6 | 44.5 | 4 | 61.4 | 2 |
| Rest of the World | 32.4 | 7 | 97.6 | 9 | 159.5 | 7 |
| TOTAL | 471.4 | 100 | 1,138.9 | 100 | 2,549.6 | 100 |

Source: Statistics Division, Board of Trade.

total value of imports in 1938, rose to 30 per cent in 1947 but declined to 18 per cent in 1952. Imports from the sterling area, on the other hand, rose from 31 per cent in 1947 to 41 per cent in 1952. Exports to North America showed a slight percentage increase in 1952 as compared with 1947 and 1938. Exports to the sterling area rose from 44 per cent in 1938 to 49 per cent in 1947 but showed no important percentage change between 1947 and 1952. Imports from non-sterling OEEC countries and their possessions showed an appreciable rise between 1947 and 1952—from 17 per cent to 25 per cent of the total.

The Balance of Payments

The main items in the United Kingdom's balance of payments with the rest of the world are set out in Table 11. Part A shows how the surplus or deficit on current account was arrived at, and Part B how it was offset. In 1952 there was an unfavourable balance in visible trade (imports less exports and re-exports) of £102 million (Table 11, Part A), but this was more than offset by the favourable balance in invisible items of £250 million. Including receipts of United States defence aid, the credit balance on current account amounted to £269 million. During the year as a whole the gold and dollar reserves were reduced by £175 million, there was a net investment overseas of £95 million and sterling liabilities were reduced by £349 million (Table 11, Part B).

Since the second world war the United Kingdom has been confronted with difficult balance of payments problems due to heavy war losses of oversea investments and other assets, new oversea indebtedness, a strongly adverse movement in the terms of trade and other factors. At the heart of these problems is that of the dollar balance, of securing dollars by exports of goods and services to pay for basic imports from North America,

TABLE 11

UNITED KINGDOM GENERAL BALANCE OF PAYMENTS, 1949-52

£ million

| | 1949 | 1950 | 1951 | 1952 |
|--|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| A. CURRENT ACCOUNT | | | | |
| <i>Debits</i> | | | | |
| Imports (f.o.b.)* | 1,978 | 2,378 | 3,496 | 2,927 |
| Shipping | 191 | 196 | 308 | 327 |
| Interest, profits and dividends | 106 | 121 | 183 | 216 |
| Travel | 75 | 85 | 104 | 82 |
| Migrants' funds, legacies, private gifts (net) | 21 | -4 | 5 | 7 |
| Government transactions | 174 | 163 | 187 | 212 |
| Total debits | 2,545 | 2,939 | 4,283 | 3,771 |
| <i>Credits</i> | | | | |
| Exports and re-exports (f.o.b.)* | 1,841 | 2,252 | 2,749 | 2,825 |
| Shipping | 282 | 333 | 443 | 436 |
| Interest, profits and dividends | 200 | 265 | 300 | 284 |
| Travel | 42 | 61 | 75 | 80 |
| Government settlements, war disposals, etc. (net) | 35 | 27 | 36 | 43 |
| Other (net) | 176 | 299 | 266 | 251 |
| Total credits | 2,576 | 3,237 | 3,869 | 3,919 |
| Balance of current transactions excluding defence aid net (credit, +; debit, -) | + 31 | +298 | -414 | +148 |
| of which (a) visible trade | -137 | -126 | -747 | -102 |
| (b) invisible: Government | -139 | -136 | -151 | -169 |
| other | +307 | +560 | +484 | +419 |
| total | +168 | +424 | +333 | +250 |
| Defence aid (grant less US share of counterpart) | — | — | + 4 | +121 |
| Balance of current transactions including defence aid net (credit, +; debit, -) | + 31 | +298 | -410 | +269 |

*Owing to differences in timing and coverage and other factors, the figures for imports and exports used in the balance of payments calculations are not comparable with those used in the Accounts of Trade and Navigation.

TABLE 11 (contd.)

£ million

| | 1949 | 1950 | 1951 | 1952 |
|--|------|------|------|------|
| B. INVESTMENT AND FINANCING ACCOUNT | | | | |
| Grants, etc. (to UK, +) | +154 | +140 | + 43 | — |
| Overseas investment (—), borrowing (+), etc. .. | —378 | — 84 | —315 | — 95 |
| Sterling liabilities, etc. (increase, +) | +190 | +221 | +338 | —349 |
| Drawings on (+) or additions to (—) gold and dollar reserves | + 3 | —575 | +344 | +175 |
| Total of investment and financing | — 31 | —298 | +410 | —269 |
| of which, net change in capital account | —185 | —438 | +367 | —269 |

Source: UK Balance of Payments 1946-1953, Cmd. 8976.

and it is linked with that of the balance of the sterling area¹ as a whole, for the gold and dollar reserves of Britain serve also the needs of other sterling area countries. Before the war Britain's adverse balance with North America was roughly offset by its favourable balance with the rest of the sterling area, which in turn had a favourable balance with North America. In the years immediately after the war this triangular balance of payments was not possible, as the war-time disruption of the economies of south-east Asia and Europe left Britain, the sterling area and other countries much more dependent on North America for basic raw materials and foodstuffs, and much less able to pay for them. Between 1945 and 1947 Britain was able to maintain an adequate level of imports only by drawing heavily on reserves and by the receipt of external loans, including a line of credit of \$3,750 million from the United States, granted in December 1945, and of \$1,250 million from Canada, granted in March 1946.

From 1948 onwards, United States dollars, made available under the European Recovery Programme (ERP), and subsequently under the United States Mutual Defence Assistance and Mutual Aid Programmes, gave economic support directly to Britain and Europe and indirectly to the sterling area and the rest of the world. At the same time the Organization for European Economic Co-operation (OEEC), set up in April 1948, undertook the administration of dollar aid on the European side and helped to stimulate recovery by encouraging self-help and co-operative action amongst the European member countries.² In 1949 a temporary recession in United States business activity, in conjunction with other factors, led to a serious drain on the sterling area's gold and dollar reserves. To protect these reserves the United Kingdom Government devalued the exchange value of sterling, on 18th September 1949, from \$4.03 to \$2.80.

The devaluation, in conjunction with other factors such as the industrial recovery in

¹The essence of the sterling area is the readiness of its members generally to keep most of their monetary reserves in the form of sterling in London and to use London as their banker. They satisfy their needs for other currencies by drawing on the sterling area pool, paying for them out of their sterling holdings. The sterling area now consists of the British Commonwealth (except Canada) British Trust Territories, British Protectorates and Protected States, together with the Irish Republic, Burma, Iceland, Iraq, Jordan and Libya. South Africa and Iceland do not draw on the sterling area pool but meet their dollar needs independently. The sterling area as a whole accounts for about a third of world trade.

²Two of the major achievements of OEEC have been the formation of the European Payments Union (EPU) in July 1950, and the various measures taken to liberalize trade, i.e. relax quantitative restrictions on imports.

America and the outbreak of the Korean war, helped to bring about a marked improvement in Britain's dollar position in 1950. By December of that year the improvement in the sterling area's gold and dollar reserves was such that dollar aid to Britain under the European Recovery Programme was suspended.¹

The improvement of 1950 was, however, followed in 1951 by a serious balance of payments crisis which affected both the United Kingdom itself and the sterling area as a whole. This setback was due in part to the steep falls in the prices of sterling area raw materials from the peak levels of early 1951, and in part to substantial increases in imports by the sterling area from the non-sterling world. It resulted in a loss of gold and dollar reserves of £550 million in the second half of 1951.

TABLE 12
BALANCE OF PAYMENTS OF THE STERLING AREA

£ million

| | 1951 | 1952 | | |
|---|------|----------|----------|------|
| | | 1st Half | 2nd Half | Year |
| United Kingdom current balance with: | | | | |
| Non-sterling countries (a) | -695 | -165 | +107 | - 58 |
| Rest of sterling area | +297 | +284 | + 65 | +349 |
| | -398 | +119 | +172 | +291 |
| Rest of sterling area balance (b) with: | | | | |
| Non-sterling countries | +164 | — | +135 | +135 |
| United Kingdom | -297 | -284 | - 65 | -349 |
| | -133 | -284 | + 70 | -214 |
| Total sterling area balance with non-sterling countries | -531 | -165 | +242 | + 77 |

(a) Includes defence aid (see Table 11).

(b) The RSA balance, as shown here, includes capital transactions with the non-sterling world. It is an estimate made in the United Kingdom to fit in with the United Kingdom's balance of payments; it does not therefore necessarily correspond precisely to the sum of the individual balances shown by other sterling area countries, owing to differences in timing, geographical treatment, coverage and sources of information.

Source: *Economic Survey for 1953*.

¹The total amount of dollar aid allotted to the United Kingdom up to this date was \$2,694 million in grants and loans.

As against the aid received from external sources after the war, the United Kingdom made available considerable sums to other countries. Between 1st January 1946 and 31st December 1952 the amounts spent by the United Kingdom on defence purposes overseas, loans and grants to other countries and the redemption of sterling balances was as follows:

i. Direct United Kingdom military expenditure overseas—£1,158 million.

ii. Reduction of sterling liabilities to oversea countries—£266 million.

iii. Loans and grants to oversea countries, including United Kingdom dependencies, and to international organizations—£1,504 million.

Loans and grants received by the United Kingdom in the same period amounted to £2,556 million.

For the United Kingdom, and for the whole sterling area, the year 1952 was dominated by the need to check this crisis. Immediate stop-gap measures, including an increase in the Bank Rate and other steps to curtail internal demand, and measures to limit imports, were taken by the United Kingdom in November 1951. In January 1952, at a meeting of Commonwealth Finance Ministers, action was agreed upon to bring the sterling area into balance with the rest of the world in the second half of 1952, to stop the drain on the gold and dollar reserves and to eliminate inflation. The United Kingdom's part in this was to achieve a balance on current account with the non-sterling world in the second half of 1952 (including defence aid) and to be at least in current balance with the whole world (excluding United States defence aid).

These immediate aims were accomplished. Even without taking United States defence aid into account the sterling area had a substantial surplus with the non-sterling world in the second half of 1952, and the United Kingdom was also in current surplus with the non-sterling world during the same period. The drain of gold and dollars was stopped and the reserves rose a little during the second half of the year. An important factor in the strengthening of the reserves was United States defence aid, receipts of which totalled about £120 million in 1952. On the other hand, the United Kingdom paid out nearly £75 million during the year in interest and amortization on the United States and Canadian loans.

At the end of April 1953 the reserves had risen to £813 (\$2,273) million compared with £594 million a year earlier.

Table 12 analyses the improvement which took place in the sterling area's balance of payments between 1951 and 1952.

Tourist Trade

An important invisible item in the balance of payments is the net expenditure on tourist trade. Although Britain's tourist earnings are normally exceeded by its tourist expenditure overseas,¹ catering for tourist visitors to the United Kingdom is an important and growing industry. In 1952, 733,000 visitors came to the United Kingdom; they spent about £80 million, of which £29 million (\$82 million) was in dollar currency. The general task of fostering and developing the tourist, catering and holiday services is undertaken by the British Travel and Holidays Association, which was established in 1950.² Control over the Association's affairs is vested in a Board of which the Chairman and eight members are appointed by the Board of Trade, while other members represent various tourist interests.

The Finance and Regulation of Trade

Certain essential foods and raw materials are still imported by Government purchase, although such control now covers a very much more limited field than in earlier post-war years. British private trade and payments are broadly governed by the system of exchange control and of import and export control operated during and since the war. Different considerations apply of course to trade within the sterling area and to trade with countries outside it.

Exchange Control

Exchange control began in the United Kingdom on the outbreak of war in September 1939; the legal basis of the purely financial control was provided by the Defence (Finance) Regulations issued under the Emergency Powers (Defence) Acts. In October 1947 these temporary war-time powers were, in the main, superseded by permanent legislation—the Exchange Control Act, 1947, which, except for the control of securities, carried on with only minor changes the form of control that had been built up during the war. The

¹For particulars of the basic currency allowance for United Kingdom tourists visiting certain overseas countries see p. 118.

²The BTHA was formed by merging two organizations—the British Tourist and Holidays Board and the Travel Association.

wide powers contained in the Act are vested in the Treasury, which is responsible for exchange control policy. 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.

Exchange control is primarily a financial control to conserve and allocate foreign exchange resources, control capital movements, and ensure that investment abroad flows into desirable channels. This implies the gathering in of all the foreign exchange earnings and the control over the use of foreign currency, whether for import payments, for commercial payments, or for foreign investment. Exchange control inevitably implies an element of discrimination since it sets out to restrict certain payments while conserving foreign exchange for expenditure regarded as essential. In recent years many exchange restrictions have been relaxed. The relaxations have been made possible by improvements in the balance of payments.

For the purpose of operating exchange control, non-sterling area countries are arranged in groups, between and within which sterling payments are controlled in varying degrees. Residents of other parts of the sterling area are not of course subject to the United Kingdom Exchange Control Act, but each country in the rest of the sterling area has its own exchange control system on broadly similar lines. This assists the United Kingdom to continue to fulfil its traditional role as banker to the sterling area and to allow sterling both for current and for capital transactions (except so far as they are restricted under the Control of Borrowing Order) to flow freely to all parts of it.

United Kingdom Residents. All residents within the United Kingdom must surrender to an authorized dealer (i.e. a bank), against payment in sterling, all receipts of any foreign currency specified in orders issued by the Treasury, but in practice some exemption is given to foreign nationals; the reinvestment of any receipts of specified foreign currency of a capital nature is normally allowed. Permission must be obtained for all payments, either in foreign currency or in sterling, to persons outside the sterling area.

The chief payments abroad are for imports. Exchange is granted for goods imported under the authority of either general or specific licences granted by the Board of Trade. Foreign exchange is also granted for expenses incidental to trade transactions and may be authorized in moderate amounts for various personal reasons. A basic travel allowance of £50 a year in foreign exchange can be drawn by United Kingdom residents wishing to travel to any of 47 listed countries, including all European countries¹ and their monetary areas overseas, and many other countries outside the dollar area. Emigrants to the member countries of the Organization for European Economic Co-operation are allowed to transfer £5,000 per family unit in equal annual instalments over four years, and emigrants to other countries can transfer from £1,000 to £2,000 (dependent on the number in the family).

Residents Outside the Sterling Area. The transfer abroad from the United Kingdom of dividends, profits and other current earnings of persons resident in countries outside the sterling area is freely authorized. But capital assets in the United Kingdom belonging to non-residents are normally blocked, and, if sold, the proceeds have to be credited to a blocked account where they are available for investment in any sterling securities maturing in not less than ten years and quoted on any stock exchange in the sterling area. However, as a special concession, capital directly invested after 1st January 1950 in projects approved by Exchange Control may be repatriated at any time to the extent of the sterling value of the original investment plus capital profits accrued. Since March 1953 there have been considerable relaxations in restrictions on the use of blocked sterling accounts.

In general, a non-resident may transfer the sterling he holds (other than blocked

¹The limit of £50 can be exceeded for Scandinavian countries.

sterling) freely for any purpose to anyone in his own country or in the sterling area. He may also transfer it to residents of various other countries¹; the extent to which he may be permitted to do so depends upon the country (or group of countries) in which he lives.

Non-sterling area countries are arranged in the following main groups:

AMERICAN ACCOUNT COUNTRIES. (United States and dependencies, Bolivia, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Liberia, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, the Philippine Republic, Salvador, Venezuela, and the Pacific Islands formerly under Japanese administration but now under United States administration.)

CANADA.

TRANSFERABLE ACCOUNT COUNTRIES. (Austria, Chile, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Egypt, Ethiopia, Finland, German Federal Republic, Greece, Italian Monetary Area, Netherlands Monetary Area, Norway, Poland, Spanish Monetary Area, Anglo-Egyptian Sudan, Sweden, Thailand, and the USSR.)

BILATERAL ACCOUNT COUNTRIES. (Argentina, Belgian Monetary Area, Brazil, Bulgaria, China, Formosa, French Franc Area, French Somali Coast, Germany (Eastern), Hungary, Israel, Japan, the Lebanon, Paraguay, Persia, Peru, Portuguese Monetary Area, Roumania, Switzerland and Liechtenstein, Syria, Tangier, Turkey, Uruguay, Vatican City, and Yugoslavia.)

UNCLASSIFIED COUNTRIES. (All countries not in the groups above, including Afghanistan, Albania, Andorra, Nepal, Saudi Arabia, and Yemen.)

Automatic Transfer Facilities. In addition to transferring sterling within the same country (or to the sterling area) non-residents may also transfer it to other countries without individual permission of the United Kingdom Exchange Control in the following circumstances:

AMERICAN ACCOUNT COUNTRIES. Sterling held by residents of these countries may be converted into United States or Canadian dollars or expended for any purpose in American account countries or Canada or in transferable account countries or unclassified countries.

CANADA. Sterling held by residents in Canada may be converted into United States or Canadian dollars or expended outside Canada in the same way as sterling held by residents of the American account area.

TRANSFERABLE ACCOUNT COUNTRIES. So far as United Kingdom legislation is concerned sterling on transferable accounts may be transferred freely to any transferable account country or unclassified country. However, by arrangement with the monetary authorities in transferable account countries payments from transferable accounts without the express permission of the United Kingdom Control may be allowed only for direct current transactions and certain merchanting transactions involving only the sterling area and transferable account countries.

UNCLASSIFIED COUNTRIES. Sterling held by residents of these countries may be expended for any purpose anywhere within the group.

Administrative Transfer Facilities. Transfers otherwise than under the rules described above are allowed under specific authorization, which is usually given if the transaction concerned is not likely to harm the United Kingdom or the sterling area. Such transfers are very widely allowed.

As a result of these arrangements the use of sterling to finance trade outside the sterling area is considerable and is an important factor in facilitating multilateral world trade.

¹This does not apply to China, Formosa and Persia, which are subject to special restrictions

USE OF STERLING TRANSFER FACILITIES
(Excluding transfers to and from American Account Countries)

| | Calendar Year ending 31st December | | | | |
|-----------------------------------|------------------------------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|
| | 1948 | 1949 | 1950 | 1951 | 1952 |
| Automatic facilities | £m. 88 | £m. 144 | £m. 143 | £m. 241 | £m. 209 |
| Administrative facilities | 152 | 125 | 155 | 222 | 170 |
| | 240 | 269 | 298 | 463 | 379 |

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 most important of the current Orders made by virtue of this Act are the Import of Goods (Control) Order, 1940, and the Export of Goods (Control) Order, 1953 (as amended). Although the powers of both import and export control derive from the same legislation, the purpose and mechanism are quite distinct.

The control on imports applies to all goods imported into the United Kingdom from non-sterling areas. The main purpose of the control is to safeguard the country's balance of payments. Licences are issued by the Board of Trade authorizing private imports of particular commodities from one or more stated sources. Import control is closely linked with exchange control; a currency allocation is granted in respect of all imports for which licences are granted.

A number of different methods of licensing imports on private account are used in United Kingdom import licensing practice. The main ones are as follows:

Open General Licences (OGLs). These authorize any person in the United Kingdom to import a specified commodity without any limits of quantity or other condition, either from any country in the world, or from specified countries or groups of countries. 'World OGLs' are issued in respect of a limited number of commodities. OGLs permitting imports from specified countries only have been more extensively used.

Open Individual Licences (OILs). These are licences issued to individual traders permitting them to import specified classes of goods, without limit of quantity, either (in a few instances) from any country, or more usually from certain specified countries or groups of countries.

Individual Import Licences. These licences permit the import of particular classes of goods in limited quantities. There are three basic methods of determining which persons are to be allowed to import the goods and in what quantities:

1. *Ad hoc* consideration of applications for licences.
2. Apportionment of quotas among importers.
3. Apportionment of quotas among exporters to Britain by arrangement with the governments of the countries concerned.

The choice between these methods of apportionment is, of course, dependent on the circumstances of the trade concerned.

Export controls, which have latterly been very much reduced, are now imposed for four main reasons. The first arises from strategic considerations. The second aims through Exchange Control to prevent, for example, the export of capital in the form of diamonds or the use of cheap sterling in certain commodities, such as wool. The third aims at the conservation of scarce materials, such as steel plate for ships, or foodstuffs which are

rationed or subsidized. Finally, there are balance of payments considerations, e.g., controlling the amount of dollar materials bought for sterling.

The procedure is to make all the goods and materials in question subject to export licence and to decide each case on its merits, after taking the advice of other interested Departments. The mechanism of export licensing control differs from that of import control in that all goods are held to be freely exportable to all destinations unless there is a specific ban on their export without licence. Goods subject to export licence are usually on individual licence (equivalent to the specific import licence), but in a few cases Open General Licences are issued. In a number of other cases bulk licences are issued for varying periods. Certain strategic materials may be exported without licence to the Commonwealth, the Irish Republic and the United States, but exports to other destinations are subject to export licensing control.

Importation by State Trading

Foodstuffs

Since the war a number of important foodstuffs, especially those which have been rationed, have continued to be imported by the Ministry of Food and its agents. During the last few years many foods and feedingstuffs have, however, been returned to private trading, and the process is continuing, e.g., private imports of cereals and feedingstuffs have been allowed since 1st May 1953.

A wide range of goods purchased by the Government is acquired under short-term contracts of up to twelve months' duration or by spot purchases. There are also a number of long-term contracts, for two years or more, in a variety of forms. Quantities may cover the total exportable surplus, an agreed percentage of the exportable surplus, or a fixed amount. Many contracts provide for a periodic price review, usually annual, within a maximum swing up or down. In 1952 there were 45 long-term contracts covering two years or more, of which 37 were with Commonwealth countries.

Raw Materials

During the second world war essential raw materials for military and civil industrial requirements were bought from abroad by the Government. Since the end of the war many commodities including wool, rubber, all kinds of timber, hides and skins, true hemp, tin, aluminium, copper, lead, ferro-alloys, zinc, and magnesium have been returned to private purchase. Raw materials for which the Government remains the sole importer are: jute and jute goods, flax, sulphur and pyrites, while since July 1951 the Government has again become the sole importer of tungsten.

Total purchases on Government account of metals and metal ores amounted during 1952 to a value of £170.7 million f.o.b., while imports on Government account of other raw materials amounted to £72.7 million f.o.b.

Private Trade

The export trade and most of the import trade of the United Kingdom is 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 organization or subsidiary sales company established in oversea markets.

Similarly, in import trade, many large firms engaged in manufacture or domestic trade buy directly from oversea suppliers, while smaller firms may find it more convenient to buy through intermediaries such as import/export houses, commission agents, and the representatives of oversea firms.

Britain is the home of many important international commodity exchanges. These were largely closed during the war but have since been reopened as circumstances have permitted. Those now in operation include the London Rubber Market, the London Wool Exchange, and the London Metal Exchange. Apart from their use for direct imports into the United Kingdom, they also transact much business between buyers and sellers from other countries. The London commodity markets are, in fact, of world-wide importance.

Government Assistance to Oversea Trade

The United Kingdom Government provides a service of information and advice to merchants and manufacturers in the export trade. 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 specializes in commercial matters. These officers direct the commercial activities of Consular officers in their respective territories.

In the Commonwealth there is at every important centre an officer of the Trade Commissioner Service, who is directly responsible to the Board of Trade.

Overseas officers regularly report on local economic and commercial conditions and pay special attention to local demand for particular commodities. They indicate potential demand for individual products and seek out and pass on 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 for any country on:

- (1) prospects for United Kingdom exports and requirements of particular markets;
- (2) 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;
- (6) probity and influence of firms with which an exporter contemplates entering into business relations.

British Industries Fair

One of the functions of the Commercial Relations and Exports Department of the Board of Trade is to sponsor the British Industries Fair, the largest national trade fair held regularly in any country. The first BIF was held in 1915, and brought together 591 exhibitors who occupied 88,000 square feet (8,175 square metres). The Fair has since been an annual event except for a break in 1925 and again from 1940 to 1947. Since 1947 it has consisted of exhibits by manufacturers within the United Kingdom and representative displays by the Governments of Commonwealth countries.

Part of the BIF is held at Olympia and Earls Court, London; part is held simultaneously at Castle Bromwich, Birmingham. The Birmingham section of the Fair is managed by the Birmingham Chamber of Commerce in close co-operation with the Board of Trade sponsoring department.

About 113,500 buyers from countries overseas have attended the BIF in the seven years since its revival in 1947, apart from United Kingdom buyers. The 1953 Fair attracted nearly 2,300 manufacturers, who exhibited the products of 90 industries. The exhibits were grouped in sections of closely allied trades, and occupied nearly 900,000 square feet (about 84,000 square metres).

The Export Credits Guarantee Department

The Export Credits Guarantee Department of the Board of Trade is run on commercial lines and offers facilities to United Kingdom exporters and merchants which enable them to

insure against the main risks of financial loss incurred in oversea trading. These facilities have been developed over a period of more than twenty years, and there are now about 4,000 policy holders on the Department's books.

The risks covered range over a wide field, and include events such as insolvency or prolonged default on the part of the buyer; exchange restrictions preventing the transfer of sterling to the United Kingdom; war, civil war in the buyer's country, etc.; and any other cause of loss occurring outside the United Kingdom which is beyond the control of the exporter and the buyer. The risk of cancellation or non-renewal of an export licence in the United Kingdom, or the imposition of restrictions on the export of goods not previously subject to licence, is also covered.

Broadly speaking, the types of guarantee issued are divided into three main categories:

- (1) *Short-term Policies*, which cover mainly consumer goods sold on credit terms of up to six months; these are normally given on a whole turnover basis. In addition to direct United Kingdom exports, cover may be given 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. Cover may commence either from the date of the contract or from the date of shipment.
- (2) *Medium-term Policies*, which cover capital and other goods sold on credit terms of over six months. These are specific guarantees covering individual contracts.
- (3) *Dollar-Drive Policies*, which have been specially devised to assist exports to Canada, the United States and the Latin American dollar account countries. In addition to the standard types of policies included under (1) and (2), special policies have been written to assist exporters to enter or increase their business in these markets by means of market surveys, advertising and other forms of sales promotion, and stockholding. This special cover can be offered from the time of purchase of raw materials to the point of sale, and if desired on a 'joint venture' basis. The Department is ready to consider any reasonable and soundly based proposition which may be put forward by any exporter with a view to increasing United Kingdom sales to these markets.

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 90 per cent. Premium rates are assessed separately for each country, and vary according to the risks and terms of payment. They are very moderate in relation to the magnitude of the risks which the Department is now covering, and to the payments already made for claims caused, for example, by events in Australia, Brazil and Persia.

DOMESTIC TRADE

The internal trade of the United Kingdom can be divided into two broad categories: trade in raw materials and intermediate products which do not reach the hands of the public; and trade in consumer goods. An account of the supply and distribution of consumer goods is given below.

Wholesale Trade

An indication of the general pattern of wholesale trade before the war is given in some pioneer unofficial studies, including *The Distribution of Consumer Goods*, by James B. Jefferys, published in 1950.

Jefferys estimated that the number of wholesalers handling the home wholesale trade of the United Kingdom in consumer goods in 1938 was between 25,000 and 30,000. With the addition of wholesaler-retailers, the greatest numbers of which were found in the tobacco, confectionery and grocery trade, it was estimated that the total would be over

50,000. Methods of distribution were varied and complex, and their classification difficult. On the basis of Jefferys' researches, however, it would appear that 10 to 15 per cent of sales (by value) are made to consumers through producers' own selling organizations, including their own retail shops, and in about half the rest the producers sell direct to retailers. Where wholesale channels exist, they take a number of forms. Fish, for example, is auctioned at ports mainly to port wholesalers to sell to inland wholesalers at certain main distributive centres, who in turn sell to retailers, although a significant number of retailers buy direct from port wholesalers. Most producers of fresh fruit and vegetables (many of whom are small growers) market their products through a wholesale market where most of it is handled by selling agents on a commission basis. Wholesale distribution of consumer goods is not, however, generally centralized.

Retail Trade

Retail outlets of the United Kingdom can conveniently be classified into four types: (a) the independent shop, (b) the departmental store, (c) the multiple shop and the variety chain store, and (d) the co-operative society. There are as yet few self-service shops in the United Kingdom.

The Independent Shop. This is the ordinary retail business with a single shop or a few shops. Such shopkeepers handle more than one-half of the retail trade of the United Kingdom. Most of them serve customers in the immediate neighbourhood, often supplying a great variety of commodities. Some specialist shops, however, have a widespread and even an international clientèle.

Departmental Stores, Multiple Shops and Variety Chain Stores. A departmental store is a shop having a number of departments for different types of goods, while a multiple shop is a branch of a firm which owns or controls a number of similar retail outlets. Some shops are multiple departmental stores, i.e. they belong to a firm running several departmental stores. Similar to these in their wide range of goods are the variety chain stores, which are multiple shops of a special kind. Their main features are the sale of a wide variety of goods under one roof, usually with low price limits, and the standardization of layout and general appearance.

The Co-operative Society. Retail co-operative societies are voluntary, non-profit-making associations engaged in retail trade and controlled by their members, who are also their customers. Any operating surplus is returned annually to members as a dividend. Dividends are proportionate to the value of purchases made in the year and not to investment in the society.

Retail co-operative societies sell to the general public as well as to their own members, but membership is open to anyone willing to pay a small deposit on a minimum share and entitles the member not only to a dividend but to an equal voice with other members in deciding the Society's policy. Investment of individual members is limited to £500 and the rules of some societies may fix lower limits. Only a low fixed interest is paid.

Retail co-operative societies are free to buy where they will or to produce their own goods, but, in order to secure the advantages of large-scale production and trade, they have collectively established wholesale and production societies.¹

At the end of 1951 there were 1,109 retail co-operative societies registered under the Industrial and Provident Societies Acts, but nearly a quarter of the entire co-operative membership was provided by the eight largest societies, each of which had a membership of over 100,000. The total trade of the retail societies in 1951 was £650 million, about 7 per cent of the total national expenditure on consumer goods and services. Analysis of the 1950 sales shows that in particular categories of goods the proportion of co-operative

¹The two major wholesale societies are the Co-operative Wholesale Society Limited and the Scottish Co-operative Wholesale Society Limited.

to total national sales is very much higher, e.g., about 17 per cent for food and over 8 per cent for clothing.

The 1950 Census of Distribution

The first report of the Board of Trade's 1950 Census of Distribution, published in January 1953, gives details of retail trade in Great Britain in 1950. The report covers establishments and organizations (an organization is an undertaking operating one or more establishments) whose chief activity is selling goods to the general public, but not the catering, motor car and repair and service trades. Included in the report are 531,143 establishments employing 2,265,000 persons (including working proprietors and unpaid family workers) with a turnover of £4,923 million and a wages bill of £392 million. Owing to some non-response in the census these figures are not complete but are estimated to represent about 91 per cent of the total number of retail establishments and about 95 per cent of the total retail turnover of the trades examined. Table 13 classifies retail establishments by kind of business. In addition there were nearly 4,000 central offices and warehouses belonging to the larger organizations, employing 117,000 persons with a wages bill of £42 million.

TABLE 13
RETAIL ESTABLISHMENTS BY KIND OF BUSINESS

| Kind of business | Number | Sales | Persons engaged | Wages and salaries |
|---|---------|-----------|-----------------|--------------------|
| | | £'000 | | £'000 |
| Total | 531,143 | 4,922,931 | 2,265,291 | 392,070 |
| Grocery group | 129,345 | 1,170,723 | 478,398 | 68,102 |
| Other food retailers | 126,701 | 917,016 | 480,473 | 82,877 |
| 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>Department 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 |

Rationing

There are still certain controls in Britain over the production and distribution of consumer goods for the home market. In the case of the former these are effected by such means as quotas, licences, and a general supervision of the volume of raw materials available; in the case of the latter, occasionally by specific rationing to the individual or the wholesaler, and in some cases by indirect taxation. Schemes of rationing or specific restriction of the supply of goods to the individual consumer still in force are summarized below.

Food

Ordinary Rationing. Under the ordinary rationing scheme, the consumer is restricted to a fixed quantity of each rationed food for a fixed period. The goods still rationed in this way in October 1953 were carcass meat, fats (butter, margarine and cooking fats), bacon and certain kinds of cheese. Consumers must register with a retailer for each of these foods. The amounts of the rations vary with changes in total supplies.¹

In addition to the ordinary rations, certain invalids receive special allowances of food which are based on the recommendations of the Food Rationing (Special Diets) Advisory Committee of the Medical Research Council. Seamen receive allowances of food in accordance with the scale laid down in the Merchant Shipping Acts, and the marine workers share in these arrangements on a modified scale. An extra half-ration of meat is allowed for expectant mothers. Underground coal miners are also entitled to an extra allowance of meat, and certain categories of workers who are without catering facilities receive a special allowance of cheese. Vegetarians also receive a special allowance of cheese and extra vegetable margarine in place of their meat and bacon rations.

Catering Establishments. Ration coupons need not be surrendered for meals taken in catering establishments, but people staying in a catering establishment for five nights or more must produce their ration books to the management in order that the appropriate coupons may be cancelled. This does not apply to visitors from overseas on a short visit to Britain (see below).

Supplies of rationed or controlled foods to catering establishments are restricted to amounts roughly equivalent to those obtained by the domestic consumer. The allowance is, in general, related to the number of meals served. Special higher scales of allowances apply to industrial works canteens, commercial catering establishments serving mainly industrial workers, schools, nurseries, youth centres, etc. Industrial canteens are divided into two classes; those catering for workers in specified heavy industries receive larger allowances than others.

A pie scheme, for the distribution of meat pies and packed meals, operates in rural areas for the benefit of agricultural workers without canteen facilities.

Visitors from Overseas. Visitors from overseas do not require ration documents during the first 13 weeks of a visit if they stay in catering establishments. If they stay in private houses they can obtain the necessary ration documents on application (either personally or by proxy) to any Food Office.

Domestic Fuel

The supply of solid fuel for domestic use is restricted under the Coal Distribution Order, 1943, by the imposition of 'maximum permitted quantities'. These are not rations and provide no assurance that supplies will be sufficient for everyone to purchase the maximum amount allowed. For the purposes of control, solid fuel is usually divided into two groups: house coal and boiler fuel (the latter consisting for the most part of anthracite and coke). It is usual, in defining the maximum permitted quantities under each of these two headings, to give a total figure for the year from May to April inclusive, and separate figures for the summer months, May to October, and the winter months, November to April. The northern regions of Great Britain, north of a line from Bristol to the Wash, have commonly been allowed rather more house coal than the southern regions.

Households which use solid fuel for cooking or have other special needs can obtain fuel additional to the maximum permitted quantity on grant of a licence from the local fuel office of the Ministry of Fuel and Power.

¹The Government subsequently announced that all food rationing would end during 1954.

VII. INDUSTRY

ORGANIZATION AND PRODUCTION

The United Kingdom is one of the most highly industrialized countries in the world. Nine people work in mining, manufacturing and building for every one in agriculture.

Location

In the early part of the nineteenth century the principal factor in the location of British manufacturing industry was coal, which was then the main source of industrial heat and power. It was, however, by no means the only factor; raw materials, such as iron ore in the West Midlands, West Cumberland, the Cleveland Hills in Yorkshire, and elsewhere, and salt in Cheshire, had an important influence.

The rapid construction of the railway system between 1840 and 1880 greatly facilitated the establishment and expansion of manufacture in many parts of the country. During the present century the development of electric power and of motor transport has further assisted the dispersal of industry. The dispersal has come about both through outward growth of the older industrial areas and through the establishment of factories in other towns, especially towns in the Midlands and South of England; and during the 1920s and 1930s the 'drift to the south' became very marked. At the same time there was serious depression in many of the older industrial areas which depended on the traditional heavy industries. The Government of the day therefore started to encourage new industries to set up in these older areas and since 1945 the policy has been pursued vigorously.

Industry is concentrated chiefly in eight areas:

London. In the nineteenth century London was not a major industrial centre, though there was shipbuilding on Thames-side and the variety of consumer-goods industries natural to a vast city. During the twentieth century, however, a growth of industry, particularly in the western suburbs, has both accompanied and contributed to the phenomenal growth of Greater London. In addition to having building, food and drink industries, London is the main centre in Britain of the clothing industry, of printing, of the manufacture of furniture, of materials for the arts, of precision instruments and jewellery, and of many other specialized goods. Small firms predominate in all these industries, so that the average size of manufacturing firms in London is well below the national average. London is also an important centre for light engineering and has some heavy engineering. Indeed, London is so large and its industries so diverse that it is a substantial, if not the principal, centre for many of the broad groups of manufacturing industries, with the notable exception of textiles.

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 electrical and engineering goods and vehicles but also jewellery and precision instruments, chemicals, 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. Derby, Nottingham, Leicester and Coventry are the principal industrial towns in the rest of the Midland area. There are several small coal deposits scattered throughout the area, while a large coalfield runs north and east of Derby and Nottingham.

Yorkshire. The West Riding of Yorkshire still contains much the biggest section of the British woollen and worsted industry, though Leeds is now more concerned with clothing and a variety of steel and engineering products. The modern woollen and worsted industry lies farther west, at Bradford, Halifax and Huddersfield. The city of Sheffield, in the extreme south of Yorkshire, is famous for its high-quality steel manufacture, its cutlery, plate and tool industry and its heavy engineering. There are extensive coalfields in the West Riding of Yorkshire.

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 mostly 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, while to the west of the city expanding chemical industries have been developed. There are also coalfields in the Manchester area. The whole region flanking the River Mersey is industrial as well as commercial; it is a Development Area (see p. 130). Liverpool, besides being a port and produce market, is, after London, the greatest centre of food preparation, while shipbuilding and repairing are carried on there and on the other side of the river at Birkenhead.

South Wales. The industrial area in South Wales and Monmouthshire has long been dominated by coal, notably anthracite, though there are also steel and tinplate mills. The steel and tinplate industries are being greatly modernized and expanded, and new light industries of many kinds have been introduced into the area. Thus, the largest steel plant in Europe was opened at Margam in July 1951, with a capacity output of 1 million tons a year, most of which will become sheet and tinplate. Factories making consumer goods and light engineering products have been opened on the trading estates (see p. 55) established by the Government with the object of increasing employment and also of diversifying the industrial structure.

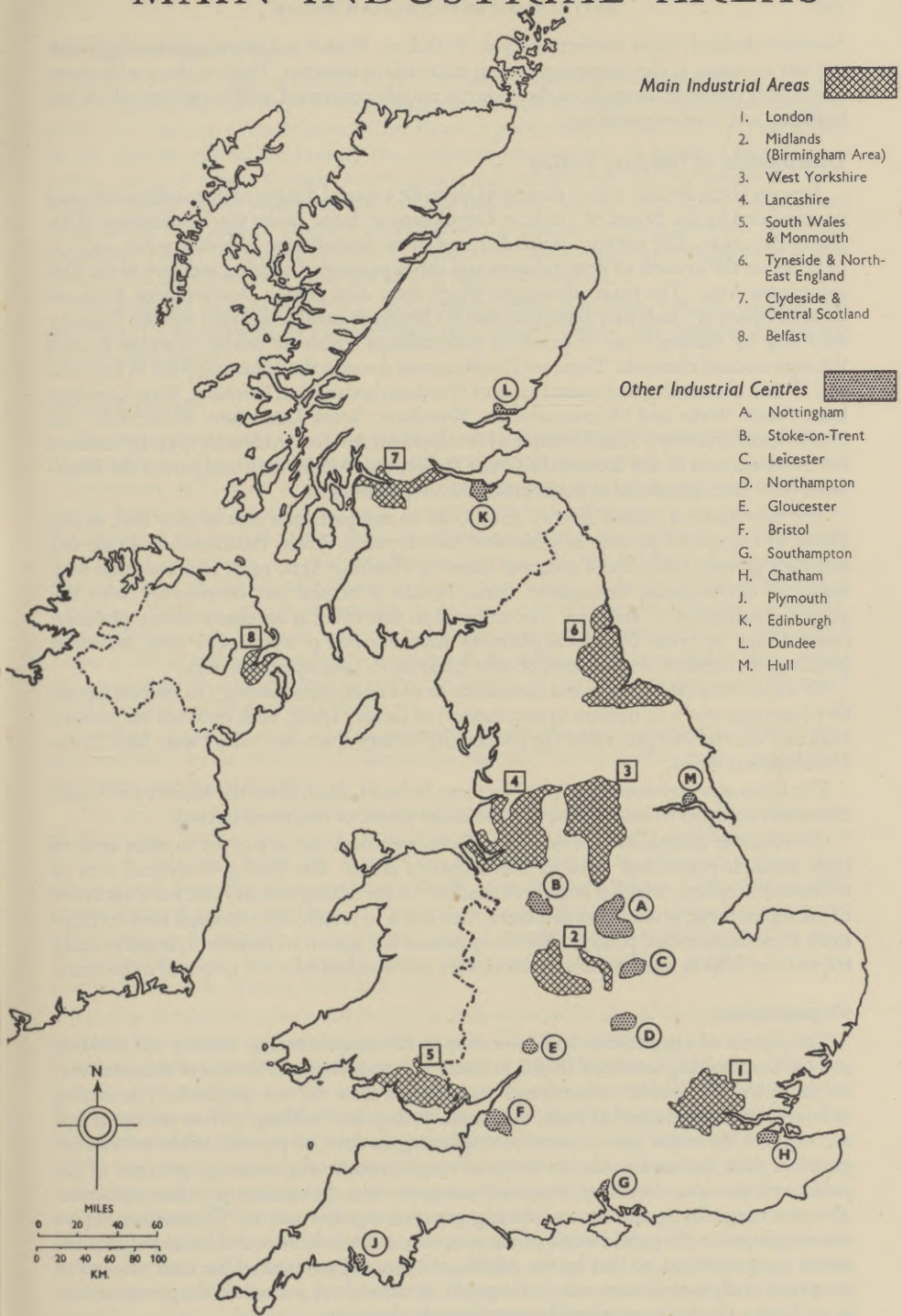
Tyneside. In Northumberland and Durham, near the River Tyne, coal is the principal industry. This region also has steel and engineering industries: it is one of Britain's two greatest shipbuilding areas, the other being in Scotland. Most of the shipyards are on the lower reaches of the rivers Tyne, Tees and Wear. Additional employment and some degree of diversification have been introduced during the post-war period by the establishment of new light industries in the Development Area.

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 field is now declining as the seams are worked out. It also contains a flourishing steel industry. The commercial importance of Glasgow and the size and varied appointments of the great ships produced 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 industrialized and further industrial development has taken place since the war, particularly in the Development Area, which includes Glasgow and the Lanarkshire coalfield.

Northern Ireland. Another important shipbuilding area is Belfast, in Northern Ireland, even though it has no local supplies of coal and iron. It has, however, an engineering industry, primarily marine engineering, and there is a growing aircraft assembly industry. The traditional industries of Belfast are linen, rope and tobacco, but many new industries have been introduced, particularly since the end of the second world war.

There are a number of other localized industries both within and outside the main industrial areas, e.g., boots and shoes at Northampton and Leicester; jute at Dundee; hosiery at Leicester and Nottingham; chemicals on Tees-side; cement on the Thames, Medway and Humber; glass at St. Helens, Lancashire, and at Smethwick and Stourbridge, near Birmingham; carpets at Kidderminster, Halifax and Glasgow; tobacco in Bristol and Nottingham; woollens in many of the Border towns of south Scotland; linen in the towns of

MAIN INDUSTRIAL AREAS



Northern Ireland; sugar confectionery in Yorkshire, Bristol and Birmingham; shipbuilding and repairing at the main ports and up many of the estuaries. There is also a wide range of industry scattered throughout the country, mainly concerned with consumer goods and building and civil engineering.

Distribution of Industry Policy

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 industry and the Treasury may help by making loans or grants to undertakings which are unable to secure finance through normal channels. 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, which became a Development Area on 3rd March 1953. 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.

The Government cannot direct a firm to go to any particular area or site. But, in addition to the special powers in scheduled Development Areas, 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 is necessary before planning consent may be given by a local planning authority (see p. 255) for a new industrial building or extension with an area of over 5,000 sq. ft. (464 square metres).

Of the 6,100 new factories and extensions to old ones, representing 130 million square feet (approximately 12 million square metres) of factory space, built between 1st January 1945 and the end of 1952, 1,660 (40 per cent by factory space and value) were built in the Development Areas.

The Industries Development Act (Northern Ireland), 1945, gives the Ministry of Commerce of Northern Ireland similar powers in the whole of Northern Ireland.

Government assistance is not limited to Development Areas: it is given to other areas of high unemployment not listed as Development Areas. The Buckie-Peterhead area in north-east Scotland, which is heavily dependent on the fishing industry and has a hard core of unemployment, is not a Development Area but is to receive help through the Development Commission (see p. 265). The Commission has agreed to consider sympathetically requests for help in building small factories for industrialists who are prepared to go there.

Organization

The pattern of organization and ownership in the manufacturing, mining and building and civil engineering sectors of British industry is varied; but, as in the rest of the economy, the part played by public undertakings has increased since the war, particularly in mining since coal was nationalized in 1946. In manufacturing and building, private enterprise still accounts for the major part of activity, employing, in 1950, 96 per cent of the persons engaged in these industries. Also in terms of employment, only about 30 per cent of the public utilities—gas, electricity, water and transport—was the concern of private enterprise. The percentage for agriculture and mining grouped together was 62. The number of persons employed in the public sector of the economy as a whole increased by 50 per cent between 1945 and 1950, so that by the middle of 1950, 22½ per cent of the total number of persons in civil employment were in the public sector and 77½ per cent in the private sector. In mid-1953 the position was still approximately the same.

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, a public corporation (see p. 51) appointed by the Minister of Fuel and Power. The mining of iron ore is in the hands of private companies, many of which, though retaining their individual names and managements, were brought under public ownership by the Iron and Steel Act of 1949. Under the Iron and Steel Act of 1953 (see p. 170) the companies are in process of being returned to private ownership. Many of these companies, in addition to extracting ore, are engaged in at least some of the manufacturing processes of iron and steel production.

Other mining and quarrying (e.g., sand, gravel, chalk, limestone, salt, tin, oil shale and china clay) is undertaken by private enterprises, usually owned and operated by limited liability companies.

Manufacturing

Most manufacturing is still in the hands of private enterprises. The companies primarily concerned with the manufacture of iron and steel which were owned by the Iron and Steel Corporation, and subject to its policy direction, are being returned to private ownership under the Iron and Steel Act of 1953. Locomotives and rolling-stock for use on British Railways are, to a great extent, built in workshops owned and operated by the British Transport Commission, a public corporation appointed by the Minister of Transport and Civil Aviation. A considerable quantity of arms and military equipment is made in Royal Ordnance factories and other factories owned and operated by the Ministry of Supply, while fighting ships are built in naval dockyards owned and operated by the Admiralty. Some 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.

A survey of the size of all manufacturing establishments employing more than 10 persons was made by the Ministry of Labour and National Service in May 1952; the results of the survey are shown in Table 14.

Over a quarter 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 May 1952 establishments with 1,000 or more employees were found to employ 2,224,000 persons, 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 number of firms own several establishments. There are no general surveys of the size of manufacturing firms comparable to 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.

TABLE 14
 SIZE OF MANUFACTURING ESTABLISHMENTS BY INDUSTRIES (MAY 1952)

| Industry Group | 11-24 Employees | | 25-99 Employees | | 100-499 Employees | | 500-999 Employees | | 1,000-1,999 Employees | | 2,000 or more Employees | | Total | |
|---|-----------------|-----|-----------------|-------|-------------------|-------|-------------------|-------|-----------------------|-----|-------------------------|-------|--------|-------|
| | (a) | (b) | (a) | (b) | (a) | (b) | (a) | (b) | (a) | (b) | (a) | (b) | (a) | (b) |
| Treatment of non-metalliferous mining products other than coal | 596 | 11 | 1,306 | 64 | 610 | 128 | 57 | 38 | 21 | 31 | 9 | 24 | 2,599 | 296 |
| Chemicals and allied trades .. | 593 | 10 | 957 | 49 | 579 | 123 | 100 | 69 | 33 | 44 | 25 | 94 | 2,287 | 389 |
| Metal manufacture .. | 349 | 6 | 750 | 39 | 581 | 133 | 144 | 100 | 66 | 91 | 49 | 159 | 1,939 | 528 |
| Engineering, shipbuilding and electrical goods .. | 2,303 | 40 | 3,579 | 179 | 1,942 | 421 | 391 | 271 | 228 | 318 | 120 | 463 | 8,563 | 1,692 |
| Vehicles .. | 2,330 | 39 | 2,271 | 104 | 672 | 140 | 118 | 83 | 81 | 117 | 87 | 387 | 5,559 | 870 |
| Precision instruments and other metal goods .. | 1,917 | 34 | 2,732 | 133 | 1,065 | 217 | 135 | 92 | 37 | 51 | 7 | 19 | 5,893 | 546 |
| Textiles .. | 1,167 | 20 | 2,780 | 151 | 2,136 | 450 | 156 | 102 | 38 | 52 | 13 | 43 | 6,290 | 818 |
| Leather, leather goods and fur .. | 363 | 6 | 475 | 24 | 135 | 22 | 4 | 2 | — | — | — | — | 977 | 54 |
| Clothing .. | 1,947 | 33 | 3,034 | 149 | 1,074 | 211 | 86 | 60 | 16 | 22 | 3 | 10 | 6,160 | 485 |
| Food, drink and tobacco .. | 2,444 | 41 | 2,747 | 133 | 1,128 | 230 | 115 | 80 | 51 | 67 | 19 | 72 | 6,504 | 623 |
| Paper and printing .. | 1,458 | 25 | 1,887 | 92 | 818 | 168 | 99 | 69 | 32 | 43 | 13 | 38 | 4,307 | 435 |
| Manufactures of wood and cork and miscellaneous manufacturing industries .. | 1,974 | 34 | 2,685 | 131 | 803 | 155 | 66 | 45 | 16 | 21 | 16 | 58 | 5,560 | 444 |
| <i>Grand Total</i> .. | 17,441 | 299 | 25,203 | 1,248 | 11,543 | 2,398 | 1,471 | 1,011 | 619 | 857 | 361 | 1,367 | 56,638 | 7,180 |

(a) Number of establishments. (b) Number of employees (in thousands).

Source: Ministry of Labour and National Service.

Building and Civil Engineering

In building and civil engineering most of the work is undertaken by private firms. Since the end of the second world war, most new houses have been built by firms under contract to local authorities, but some have been built by building firms for private sale, and some by local authorities employing building labour direct. In November 1951 measures were taken to permit an increase in the proportion of private building of new houses. A great deal of repair and maintenance work on houses let by local authorities has been done by directly employed labour, while much repair and maintenance work on public and industrial building has been done by the maintenance staff of the Ministry of Works or other Government Departments, of the nationalized industries, of public authority undertakings, and of industrial and commercial firms.

Building firms may be divided into those undertaking general building and civil engineering work and those undertaking highly specialized work, many of whom operate outside as well as inside the building industry. Building is an industry of small firms; nearly a third of building operatives work in firms employing from 20 to 99 persons, while about 30 per cent work in firms employing less than six persons.

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. Where this involves restrictions on competition, the Monopolies Commission (see p. 135) can be asked by the Board of Trade to investigate the effect of such restrictions on the public interest.
3. Negotiation with trade unions about wages and conditions of work.

Associations for the first and third of these purposes cover with varying completeness almost the whole of British industry but there are wide sectors of industry where there is no collective agreement to regulate trading practice. Associations which deal with labour matters generally consist of firms engaged in the same type of manufacturing process. Organizations mainly concerned with representations to 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 required functions.

There are about 270 national federations and probably about 1,600 other employers' organizations (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 p. 220).

No comparable statistics exist for associations concerned with the provision of common services, etc., or the regulation of trade and prices. There are, however, about 300 national organizations which are affiliated to the *Federation of British Industries*, the national body recognized as the spokesman for British industry on economic, commercial and production (as opposed to labour) questions. The FBI has offices in the main industrial centres in the United Kingdom and is very widely represented abroad.

A number of the organizations affiliated to the FBI also deal with labour matters and are affiliated to the *British Employers' Confederation*. The two organizations work closely together on matters of common interest.

Other important national associations of employers are the *National Union of Manufacturers* 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 associa-

tions are affiliated to it. Like the FBI it has regional branches. The Association of British Chambers of Commerce is the central organization to which local Chambers of Commerce are affiliated. There are about 100 of these local Chambers. They are open to all kinds of producers and traders and exist for promoting the interests of local industry and commerce. These last three national organizations, all being concerned with industrial and trading matters, often collaborate in the consideration of particular questions.

Relations with Government

The system has grown up whereby as a general rule each industry has a particular Government Department as its 'Production Department', which is its point of contact with the Government. The following are some of the responsibilities of a Production Department:

- (1) to consider the place of the industry in the economy as a whole;
- (2) to apply to the industry whatever parts of the general economic policy are appropriate to it, and to sponsor its needs, for example for a building licence.

The main Production Departments and the industries and services in which they are interested are:

| | | |
|--|-------|---|
| Board of Trade | | All industries not the responsibility of another Department, among the most important being textiles (including clothing), a large part of the chemical industry and films. |
| Ministry of Supply | .. | Iron and steel and non-ferrous metals, vehicles, engineering (including aeronautical, electrical and radio) and explosives. |
| Admiralty | | Shipbuilding and ship repairing. |
| Ministry of Food | | Procurement, processing and distribution of foods. |
| Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries | | Farming, horticulture, agricultural machinery and fisheries. |
| Ministry of Fuel and Power | | Coal, gas, electricity and oil. |
| Ministry of Transport and Civil Aviation | | Transport services (including civil aviation), road-making, and certain sections of the quarrying industry. |
| Ministry of Works | .. | Building, civil engineering and building materials. |
| Ministry of Housing and Local Government | .. | House building. |
| Ministry of Health | .. | Medical and surgical goods. |
| Ministry of Materials | .. | Procuring of certain raw materials. Manufactures made from jute, and the paper industry. |

The Treasury and the Ministry of Labour and National Service, though prominent in economic matters, have no production authority duties.

Some operations of industry and commerce are subject to Government control. Thus the consent of the Treasury is required for the issue of large amounts of fresh capital or for the purchase of foreign currency; that of the Board of Trade for the import or export of certain goods; and that of the Ministry of Works for the construction of new buildings. The Board of Trade has power to influence the siting of industry (see p. 130), and the Ministry of Housing and Local Government, acting through local planning authorities, has general control over the use of land (see p. 255).

In the post-war period an effective control has been that over the allocation, distribution and use of raw materials. The degree of control has been governed to a large extent by the supply situation—an important factor in which is the availability of foreign exchange—and has varied from time to time. Thus, controls removed in the immediate

post-war years had to be reimposed in 1951 when the rearmament programmes of the free world, superimposed on rising civilian demands, caused shortages of many key raw materials, including zinc, lead, copper, nickel and steel. Since then, an improving supply position has made it possible to relax most of the controls imposed, and to allow a number of materials to revert to private trading.

All Departments which are production authorities, and some others, have a responsibility for promoting increased productivity and efficiency in 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 of workers discuss together improvements in methods and technique. The Department of Scientific and Industrial Research (see p. 267) encourages and sometimes finances research on industrial subjects in the universities and in the research associations which many of the major industries have established among themselves: it also conducts research useful to industry in 14 organizations under its own control (see footnote ² p. 267).

Technical advice is available for those firms which ask for it through such services as the Fuel Efficiency Advisory Service of the Ministry of Fuel and Power, the National Agricultural Advisory Service of the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries, and the Personnel Management Advisory Service of the Ministry of Labour and National Service.

To ensure that industry is fully aware of Government policy and 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* and the *National Joint Advisory Council*. The NJAC consists of representatives of private employers, the boards of nationalized 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 certain Government Departments as well as of employers and workers.

These consultative bodies represent United Kingdom interests and 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 Northern Ireland and of the main regions of England and Wales. The most important of those in England and Wales are the *Regional Boards for Industry* whose main functions are to keep the Government informed on industrial conditions in the regions and to provide a link between the central Government and local industry. There is also a *Scottish Board for Industry*, with broadly similar functions.

Monopolies and Restrictive Practices

Under the Monopolies and Restrictive Practices (Inquiry and Control) Act, 1948, the Board of Trade has power to refer certain matters to the Monopolies and Restrictive Practices Commission for investigation and report. Broadly speaking, a reference may be made where it appears that at least one-third of the supply, processing or exports of any commodity is in the hands of a single firm or is subject to arrangements which in any way restrict competition. Where the Commission finds that these conditions do prevail and are contrary to the public interest, Production Departments are empowered by the Act to take suitable remedial action. The Board of Trade is required to publish an annual report on the working of the Act, which includes a list of the suggestions and requests made for reference of matters to the Commission.

Up to September 1953 the Commission had been given references relating to the following matters: dental goods, cast iron rainwater goods, electric lamps, insulated electric wires and cables, matches and match-making machinery, insulin, semi-manu-

factures of copper and copper-based alloys, printing of woven fabrics, imported hardwood and softwood timber and plywood, certain electrical and allied machinery and plant, pneumatic tyres, hard fibre cordage, linoleum, and the supply in the Greater London area of new buildings costing more than £1,000. Reports had been published on the first six of these industries.

In December 1952 the Commission began an investigation into the general effect on the public interest of certain widely prevalent practices, including, for example, arrangements between a number of traders to discriminate in favour of, or against, a defined class of customer.

In October 1953 a Monopolies and Restrictive Practices Commission Act was passed, the purpose of which was to strengthen the Monopolies Commission and enable it to deal at any one time with a greater number of references.

Production

Industrial production (mining and quarrying, manufacture, and building and civil engineering) in 1950 averaged nearly a third above 1946, when it was at about the pre-war level. The rate of increase slackened off in 1951, when it was about 3 per cent compared with annual increases of about 7 per cent in the three previous years. This slackening was due in part to the effect of steel shortage on metal goods production and in part to a fall in demand for textiles and clothing. In 1952 production was 3 per cent less than in 1951. The effects of steel shortage were still being felt, particularly in the first half of the year, but more important was the fall in demand which took place at home and overseas. Production and employment fell sharply after the first quarter of 1952 but began to recover in the last quarter and was higher in the second quarter of 1953 than in the corresponding quarters of either 1952 or 1951.

Over the post-war period as a whole the greatest increases in production have been in the engineering, shipbuilding and electrical goods, vehicles and chemicals groups with increases since 1946 of approximately 60 per cent, 42 per cent and 50 per cent.

In 1946 and 1947 production increased at about the same rate as the civilian labour force, which grew rapidly as men returned from the armed forces. From 1947 the increase in the numbers employed slowed, while production continued rapidly to expand: this rise in productivity was about 3 per cent a year up to 1951. Since 1951 demand has increasingly become the main determinant of the level of output; in other words, the world sellers' market has given way to a buyers' market. The fall of the level of production during the second and third quarters of 1952 brought an increase in short-time working as well as in unemployment. Output per person employed, therefore, also decreased markedly. The subsequent recovery of production levels was accompanied by an increase in output per man as employees returned to full-time work.

The need to increase productivity has been a constant concern of Government and industry. One important step was the formation in 1948 of the Anglo-American Productivity Council, whose main purpose was to promote productivity in Britain through the exchange of ideas between various British industries and the corresponding industries in the United States. 'Productivity teams' made up of representatives of management, technical and workshop levels from British industries were sent to the United States for study and, on their return, their findings were made public.

When this Council was wound up after four years' work, its task of helping to promote higher productivity in Britain was continued by the British Productivity Council, formally established in London in November 1952. This is an independent body drawing its funds mainly from the organizations represented on it: 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 nationalized industries. Its programme of action includes the formation of local productivity

committees and the exchange of visits between teams from different industrial firms for the purpose of studying common problems.

Capital Development

In recent years gross fixed capital formation has accounted for about one-seventh of gross national expenditure. Table 15 shows the breakdown by industries since 1948. In 1952 industrial investment (excluding fuel and power) was lower than in 1951. It was affected by the steel shortage, by physical restrictions imposed on investment in order to free resources for export and defence, and, recently, by a reduction in demand for investment which no doubt to some extent reflected the effects of the new monetary and fiscal restraints. An important aim of the 1953 Budget proposals was to encourage the re-equipment and modernization of productive industry, the expansion of capacity in lines commanding a ready overseas sale, and the development of new lines and techniques. Easier licensing procedure was also announced for new factories and extensions.

TABLE 15
GROSS FIXED INVESTMENT BY INDUSTRIES, 1948-52

£ million at current market prices

| | 1948 | 1949 | 1950 | 1951 | 1952 |
|--|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Expenditure on equipment and buildings: | | | | | |
| Agriculture, forestry and fishing .. | 90 | 88 | 89 | 92 | 85 |
| Mining | 31 | 38 | 34 | 37 | 48 |
| Manufacturing industry | 373 | 420 | 492 | 585 | 625 |
| Electricity, gas and water | 136 | 167 | 196 | 221 | 245 |
| Transport and communications* .. | 237 | 260 | 245 | 235 | 245 |
| New housing | 340 | 315 | 315 | 335 | 430 |
| Social services and administration .. | 70 | 92 | 111 | 125 | 135 |
| Other | 143 | 170 | 164 | 179 | 140 |
| <i>Total</i> | 1,420 | 1,550 | 1,646 | 1,809 | 1,953 |
| Legal fees, stamp duties, etc. | 46 | 49 | 51 | 53 | 47 |
| <i>Total gross fixed investment</i> | 1,466 | 1,599 | 1,697 | 1,862 | 2,000 |
| <i>of which:</i> | | | | | |
| Vehicles, ships and aircraft | 272 | 300 | 283 | 283 | 275 |
| Plant and machinery | 518 | 586 | 675 | 794 | 870 |
| New buildings and works and improvements to existing buildings | 676 | 713 | 739 | 785 | 855 |

*Excluding the road goods transport industry which is included in 'other'.

Source: *Cmd. 8800, Economic Survey 1953.*

For manufacturing industry, excluding establishments in the public sector of the economy, estimates for capital expenditure in 1948, 1949 and 1950 have been made on the basis of an inquiry carried out by the Board of Trade and other Government Departments in collaboration with the Central Statistical Office. These estimates are given in Table 16.

Average capital expenditure per employee in 1950 was £63 for manufacturing industry as a whole. The industrial sectors with the highest rates of fixed capital expenditure per employee were mineral oil refining (£3,320), other chemical and allied trades (£161), and iron and steel manufacture (£118). Average expenditure per employee varied very little for factories of different sizes within any one industry.

TABLE 16
CAPITAL EXPENDITURE IN MANUFACTURE (Great Britain)
1948-50

£ million

| Industries | 1948 | 1949 | 1950 | | | |
|--|------------|------------|------------|---------------------|-----------|-------------------------|
| | Total | Total | Total | Plant and machinery | Vehicles | New buildings and works |
| Bricks, pottery, glass, cement, etc. .. | 20 | 19 | 20 | 12 | 3 | 5 |
| Mineral oil refining | 6 | 18 | 32 | 21 | — | 11 |
| Other chemicals and allied trades .. | 39 | 48 | 61 | 45 | 3 | 13 |
| Metal manufacture | 41 | 52 | 58 | 42 | 2 | 14 |
| Engineering, shipbuilding and electrical goods | 61 | 61 | 66 | 42 | 8 | 16 |
| Vehicles | 28 | 28 | 37 | 27 | 3 | 7 |
| Metal goods not elsewhere specified .. | 20 | 19 | 22 | 14 | 2 | 6 |
| Precision instruments, jewellery, etc. .. | 5 | 5 | 4 | 2 | 1 | 1 |
| Textiles | 39 | 51 | 52 | 38 | 3 | 11 |
| Leather, leather goods and fur | 3 | 3 | 3 | 2 | — | 1 |
| Clothing | 12 | 10 | 10 | 5 | 2 | 3 |
| Food and drink | 47 | 51 | 62 | 40 | 9 | 13 |
| Tobacco | 3 | 3 | 3 | 2 | — | 1 |
| Manufactures of wood and cork | 7 | 8 | 11 | 5 | 4 | 2 |
| Paper and printing | 26 | 25 | 28 | 23 | 2 | 3 |
| Other manufacturing industries | 13 | 13 | 13 | 9 | 1 | 3 |
| Government-built factories | 11 | 7 | 5 | — | — | 5 |
| Government-financed expenditure at private firms' establishments | 2 | 2 | 9 | 8 | — | 1 |
| <i>Total capital expenditure.. .. .</i> | 383 | 423 | 496 | 337 | 43 | 116 |
| <i>less</i> | | | | | | |
| Second-hand plant and vehicles | 25 | 21 | 22 | 13 | 9 | — |
| TOTAL | 358 | 402 | 474 | 324 | 34 | 116 |

Source: Board of Trade.

AGRICULTURE

Although the major part of the population works in urban areas, agriculture remains one of Britain's largest industries. It uses some 48 million of the 60 million acres of land (19½ million of 24 million hectares) in the United Kingdom and provides employment for over a million people.

Policy and Production

Britain's agricultural policy is embodied in the Agriculture Act, 1947, the Agriculture (Scotland) Act, 1948, and the Agriculture Act (Northern Ireland), 1949, the imple-

mentation of which is the responsibility of the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries, the Department of Agriculture for Scotland and the Ministry of Agriculture in Northern Ireland respectively.¹ It aims at a well-balanced system not only in the country as a whole but on each individual farm. In 1947 plans were made with the aim of securing by 1952 an increase in the volume of annual agricultural net output to about 50 per cent above the pre-war level.

This objective has in fact been achieved, the official index number for agricultural net output in the United Kingdom (pre-war average=100) being 149 for 1951-52 and provisionally estimated at 151 for 1952-53 (*Cmd. 8798*). A further objective to raise this to at least 160 by 1956 was announced in 1952 (*Cmd. 8556*). Table 17 shows the trend in production of some of the main products.

TABLE 17

AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTION IN THE UNITED KINGDOM

(Years beginning 1st June)

| | Unit | Pre-war average | 1946-47 | 1950-51 | 1951-52 | 1952-53 provisional |
|-----------------------------------|--------------|-----------------|---------|---------|---------|---------------------|
| Bread grains: | | | | | | |
| Total | '000 tons | 1,661 | 2,006 | 2,663 | 2,363 | 2,357 |
| Wheat | " | 1,651 | 1,967 | 2,606 | 2,316 | 2,307 |
| Rye | " | 10 | 39 | 57 | 47 | 50 |
| Other grains: | | | | | | |
| Total | " | 2,781 | 5,216 | 5,118 | 5,359 | 5,936 |
| Barley | " | 765 | 1,963 | 1,711 | 1,939 | 2,334 |
| Oats | " | 1,940 | 2,903 | 2,692 | 2,616 | 2,772 |
| Mixed corn | " | 76 | 350 | 715 | 804 | 830 |
| Potatoes | " | 4,873 | 10,166 | 9,507 | 8,284 | 7,848 |
| Sugar beet | " | 2,741 | 4,522 | 5,216 | 4,534 | 4,240 |
| Milk | mill. galls. | 1,563 | 1,665 | 2,013 | 2,016 | 2,046 |
| Eggs(a) | '000 tons | 385 | 332 | 488 | 464 | 460 |
| Beef and veal | " | 578 | 537 | 600 | 617 | 573 |
| Mutton and lamb | " | 195 | 141 | 147 | 146 | 171 |
| Pigmeat (a) | " | 435 | 145 | 341 | 462 | 551 |
| Wool (clip) | " | 34 | 27 | 27 | 29 | 29 |
| Index of net agricultural output: | | | | | | |
| Agricultural holdings(b) | — | 100 | 117 | 141 | 147 | 150 |
| Total(a) | — | 100 | 122 | 143 | 149 | 151 |

Source : *Cmd. 8798*.

(a) Includes estimated production from gardens, allotments, pig clubs, and other small producers.

(b) Holdings of one acre and above (or over a quarter of an acre in Northern Ireland). Excludes output of gardens, allotments, pig clubs, etc.

However, with her population of 50 million, Britain remains a food-importing country. Before the second world war Britain produced about 31 per cent of her food (in terms of

¹These departments are generally collectively known as the Agricultural Departments.

calories for human consumption) but by 1951/52 this had risen to 41 per cent. The comparable figures in terms of values are 34 per cent pre-war and approximately 50 per cent in 1951-52. Imports of food and feedingstuffs accounted for 45 per cent by value of total imports pre-war and about 38 per cent in 1952.

Types of Farming

There are more than 350,000 holdings in Great Britain with over 5 acres (2.023 ha.) of crops and grass besides about 100,000 holdings of 5 acres or less. In Northern Ireland there are 82,700 holdings of over 1 acre, of which 78 per cent are farms of under 50 acres.

The types of farming vary widely with difference of soil and climate. In general the eastern half of the country is predominantly arable and the western half predominantly dairying. In England and Wales, pasture types of farming account for 37 per cent of agricultural land, arable types for 22 per cent and intermediate types for 29 per cent; the remainder being unclassifiable or of little agricultural value. In many places land of several types is found intermingled within a small area. Market-gardens are usually found near towns. Fattening of animals for food is widespread but is carried on particularly in the Home counties, Midlands and Eastern counties, and stock-rearing is prevalent in the Highlands of Scotland, Wales and the North of England.

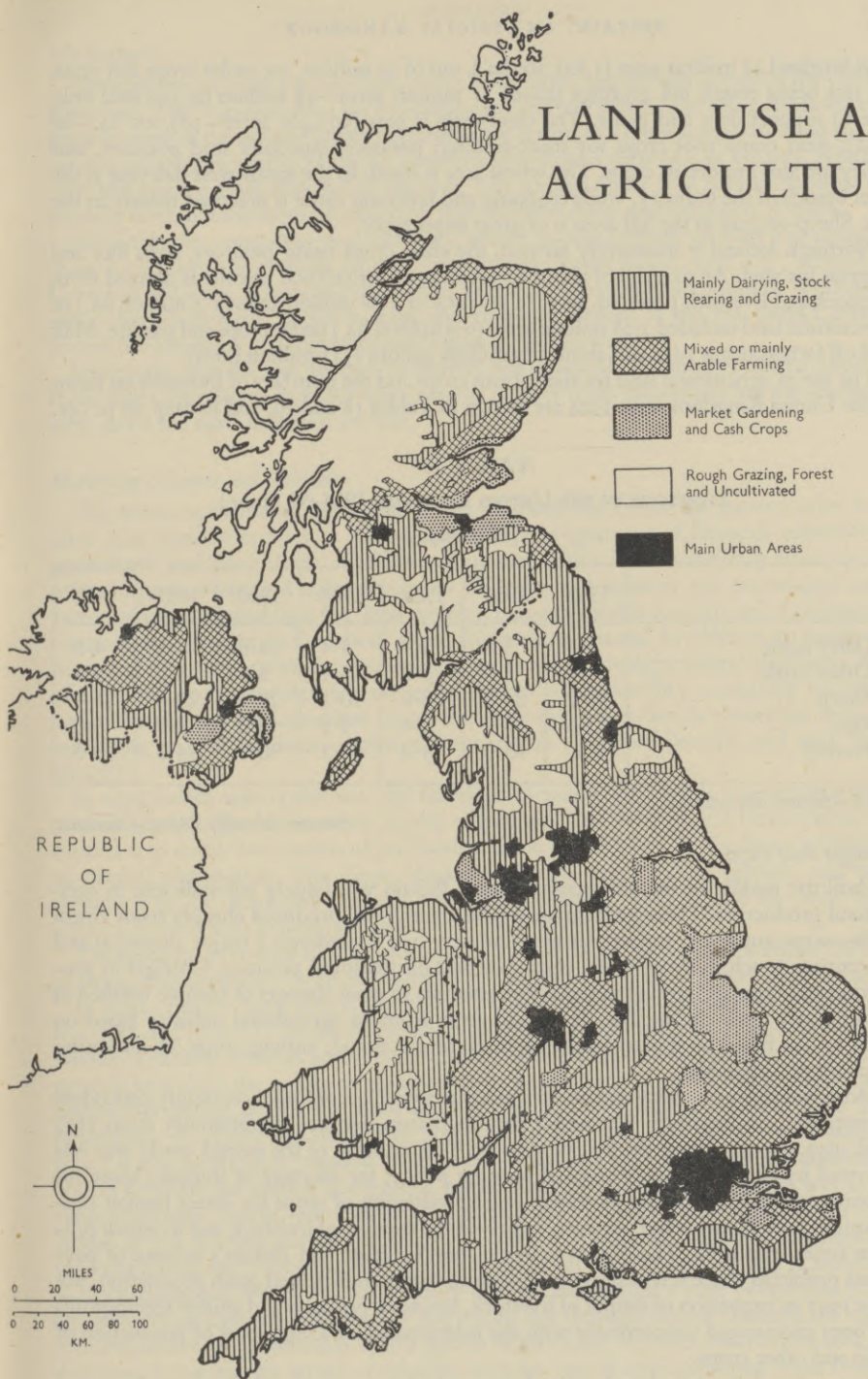
TABLE 18
USE OF AGRICULTURAL LAND IN THE UNITED KINGDOM
Million acres (1 acre=0.40469 hectares)

| | 1924 | 1934 | 1939 | 1944 | 1950 | 1951 | 1952 |
|-------------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|------|------|------|
| Wheat | 1.6 | 1.9 | 1.8 | 3.2 | 2.5 | 2.1 | 2.0 |
| Barley | 1.5 | 0.9 | 1.0 | 2.0 | 1.8 | 1.9 | 2.3 |
| Oats | 3.3 | 2.5 | 2.4 | 3.7 | 3.1 | 2.9 | 2.9 |
| Mixed corn | } 0.2 | 0.1 | { 0.1 | 0.4 | 0.8 | 0.8 | 0.8 |
| Rye (threshed) | | | | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 |
| All cereals | 6.6 | 5.4 | 5.3 | 9.4 | 8.3 | 7.8 | 8.1 |
| Potatoes | 0.7 | 0.8 | 0.7 | 1.4 | 1.2 | 1.1 | 1.0 |
| Sugar beet | 0.02 | 0.4 | 0.3 | 0.4 | 0.4 | 0.4 | 0.4 |
| Fodder crops | 1.7* | 1.2* | 1.4 | 2.0 | 1.5 | 1.5 | 1.5 |
| Fruit | } 1.4 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 0.3 |
| Vegetables | | } 0.8 | } 0.3 | 0.5 | 0.5 | 0.4 | 0.4 |
| Other crops | } 0.4 | | | } 0.1 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 0.3 |
| Bare fallow | | 0.4 | 0.4 | | 0.4 | 0.2 | 0.3 |
| Total tillage | 10.8 | 9.3 | 8.8 | 14.5 | 12.8 | 12.2 | 12.4 |
| Temporary grass | 4.7 | 4.1 | 4.1 | 4.8 | 5.6 | 5.8 | 5.7 |
| Arable land | 15.5 | 13.4 | 12.9 | 19.3 | 18.4 | 18.0 | 18.1 |
| Permanent grass | 17.6 | 18.7 | 18.8 | 11.7 | 12.8 | 13.1 | 13.1 |
| TOTAL CROPS AND GRASS | 33.1 | 32.1 | 31.7 | 31.0 | 31.2 | 31.1 | 31.2 |
| ROUGH GRAZINGS | 15.1 | 16.4 | 16.5 | 17.0 | 17.1 | 17.1 | 17.1 |

Source: *Monthly Digest of Statistics*.

*Excluding beans and peas, which, in each of the years, amounted roughly to 0.15 million acres, and which are here included in 'other crops'.

LAND USE AND AGRICULTURE



In Scotland 4½ million acres (1,821,300 ha.), out of 19 million, are under crops and grass, the rest being rough hill grazings (about 11 million acres—4½ million ha.) or land only able to support deer and game. The chief crop is oats (903,400 acres—365,000 ha.—in 1952); next come root crops for stock-feeding; potatoes, especially seed potatoes, and barley are also important crops. The wheat area is small. In the south-west dairying is the chief branch of the industry, while cropping and fattening cattle is practised mainly in the east. Sheep-rearing in the hill areas is of great importance.

Northern Ireland is intensively farmed, the chief crops being potatoes, oats, flax and ryegrass for seed. An average of about 80 per cent of agricultural income is derived from livestock and livestock products. In 1952 the total of 2.98 million acres (1.2 million ha.) of agricultural land included 2.28 million acres (0.9 million ha.) under crops and pasture. Milk sold off farms during 1952 was about 117 million gallons (532 million litres).

The use of agricultural land for the various crops and the numbers of livestock on farms in the United Kingdom since 1924 are shown in Tables 18 and 19, and in map on p. 141.

TABLE 19
LIVESTOCK IN THE UNITED KINGDOM, 1924-52 (June)
(Millions)

| | 1924 | 1934 | 1939 | 1944 | 1950 | 1951 | 1952 |
|--------------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| Dairy cattle | 3.4 | 3.8 | 3.9 | 4.4 | 4.6 | 4.5 | 4.6 |
| Other cattle | 4.4 | 5.0 | 5.0 | 5.1 | 5.9 | 6.0 | 5.6 |
| Sheep | 22.2 | 24.9 | 26.9 | 20.1 | 20.4 | 20.0 | 21.7 |
| Pigs | 3.6 | 3.9 | 4.4 | 1.9 | 3.0 | 3.9 | 5.0 |
| Poultry | n.a. | 83.9 | 74.4 | 55.1 | 96.1 | 94.3 | 95.0 |

n.a.—figures not available.

Source: *Monthly Digest of Statistics*.

Changes since 1870

Until 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—were imported, and the farming industry had to undergo a major alteration and concentrate much more on milk, eggs, pigs and horticultural produce. Changes in production and types of farming in successive attempts to meet changes of fortune resulted in a continuous trend throughout the period away from an agricultural industry based on grain to one based on livestock and livestock products and, among crops, an increasing emphasis on vegetables.

Moreover the meat, dairy and poultry industries were becoming increasingly dependent on imported feedingstuffs. The arable area in Britain declined continuously from 1872 until 1939, except during the first world war. The outbreak of the second world war was followed by an immediate reversal of farming policy, 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.

Recent trends in agricultural policy have resulted in greater emphasis on stock-rearing for meat and less stress on further increases in milk production.

Horticulture

Horticulture accounts for one-sixth of the value of the agricultural output of the United Kingdom. The war-time need for self-sufficiency and the shortage of other foods led to a great increase in the acreage under vegetables, but return to a more normal diet and the re-opening of oversea sources of supply have brought about a reduction of the area, which is now not much greater than before the war. The acreage under fruit remains at about the pre-war level, but the crops produced on that area have been approximately doubled.

Although the commoner vegetables are grown to some extent all over the country, there is a tendency for certain crops to predominate in specialized areas, e.g., broccoli in Cornwall and Kent, carrots and rhubarb in Yorkshire, asparagus and plums in Worcestershire, cherries in Kent, apples in Kent and Hereford, onions in the Fen district, strawberries in Hampshire and tomatoes under glass in the Lea Valley.

During the war the area devoted to flowers was drastically reduced by official controls. It has taken the nursery industry some time to recover from the setback but the acreage is now about the same as before the war.

Marketing Schemes and Subsidies

The severe agricultural depression which followed the fall in the general price level after 1920 resulted in 1931 in the beginning of a programme of financial assistance to agriculture, including tariffs, subsidies and quotas, which had a stabilizing effect on the prices of grain, cattle and milk, developed the sugar beet industry and encouraged cultivation of sub-marginal land (i.e. land which it is not profitable to cultivate). Commodity commissions were set up for wheat, sugar, livestock and bacon. In addition, to enable the home producer to regulate the marketing of his produce, the Agricultural Marketing Acts of 1931 and 1933 provided for the establishment of commodity marketing boards in Great Britain, and by September 1939 there were eight such boards concerned with the marketing of four products—potatoes, hops, bacon pigs (two boards), and milk (four boards).

In 1939, when war broke out, the functions of marketing boards, commodity commissions and similar bodies were largely suspended. The Agricultural Departments remained responsible for matters of production while the Ministry of Food was established to control distribution. The Hops Marketing Board continued to operate, and milk continued to be marketed through the Milk Marketing Boards (and the Joint Milk Council in Northern Ireland) as agents for the Ministry of Food.

The subsidies gave way to the Government's general food subsidies to stabilize the cost of living, though minor forms of assistance continued to be paid on a commodity basis.

In 1949 a further Agricultural Marketing Act was passed, giving ministers greater control over, and power to nominate members on, marketing boards, and amending the provisions of existing schemes accordingly. It also extended the powers which schemes could provide to include the supply of requisites and a wider range of services to registered producers. Marketing boards for wool and for tomatoes and cucumbers have since been established. A scheme for marketing home-produced apples and pears, under which a board was to be set up to regulate terms of sale, minimum prices and quality standards, as well as to undertake market intelligence, advertising and research, in the same way as the other marketing boards, was approved by Parliament on 21st January 1953 but has since lapsed. It was the first scheme since the war to fail to secure the support of the requisite two-thirds majority of producers voting, in terms of productive capacity and of numbers.

Since the second world war the Ministry of Food has bought a large proportion of the staple home agricultural products at fixed prices, and through various channels has resold it to consumers, in conjunction with a system of rationing, at prices often below cost, the difference being met by means of subsidies as in the case of some imported foods bought by the Ministry. (For changes proposed for 1954 see Appendix.)

Table 20 shows the subsidy per unit of food (home-produced and imported combined) in 1952-53.

TABLE 20
UNIT SUBSIDIES IN 1952-53

| Commodity | Unit | Unit Subsidy |
|--|--------|--------------------|
| Bacon | lb. | <i>Pence</i> 5½ |
| Bread | 3½ lb. | 4½ |
| Flour | 7 lb. | 6¾ |
| Eggs | doz. | 11¾ |
| Meat (carcass), including cost of calf subsidy | lb. | 2¼ |
| Milk, including cost of attested herds scheme | quart | 1¾ |
| Butter | lb. | 8½ |
| Cheese | lb. | 1½ |
| Margarine (for domestic purposes) | lb. | 3¾ |
| Cooking fat (for domestic purposes) | lb. | 3½ |
| Sugar (for domestic purposes) | lb. | 1 |

Source: Ministry of Food.

TABLE 21
FOOD SUBSIDIES 1952-53
Subsidies Administered by the Ministry of Food

| | £ million |
|---|-----------|
| Bacon | 22.3 |
| Bread and Flour | 57.4 |
| Shell eggs | 25.4 |
| Meat (carcass) | 24.4 |
| Milk (liquid) | 36.3 |
| Butter | 18.8 |
| Cheese | 1.9 |
| Margarine (domestic) | 13.4 |
| Lard and cooking fat (domestic) | 4.9 |
| Sugar (domestic) | 9.7 |
| Miscellaneous | 9.8 |
| Welfare and Milk in Schools Schemes | 47.2 |
| Animal feedingstuffs | 29.7 |
| <i>Total subsidies administered by the Ministry of Food</i> | 301.2 |
| Subsidies Administered by the Agricultural Departments | |
| Attested Herds Scheme | 9.7 |
| Fertilizer Subsidy | 11.0 |
| White Fish Subsidy | 1.7 |
| Ploughing Grants | 6.0 |
| Calf Subsidy | 5.4 |
| <i>Total subsidies administered by the Agricultural Departments</i> | 33.8 |
| TOTAL FOOD SUBSIDIES | 335.0 |

There are also direct agricultural subsidies, such as those for hill sheep and hill cattle, and for steer calves and heifer calves (other than those of Jersey, Guernsey, Friesian and Ayrshire breeds) which are suitable for rearing for beef production; grants towards the cost of field drainage, ditching schemes and farm water supplies; grants for the improvement of stock-rearing land in hill and upland districts, for increasing food or fodder production on poor or difficult land; subsidy for livestock improvement and for the supply of fertilizers and agricultural lime.

Total subsidies on food (home produced and imported combined) for 1952-53 amounted to £335 million. Table 21 shows how this sum was distributed. In 1951-52 total subsidies amounted to £414 million. They were reduced in 1952-53 as a result of changes in the 1952 Budget; the intention was to bring them down to a rate of £250 million in a full year. The 1953 Budget provided for an annual rate of £220 million; it was expected that this would be achieved as a result of the decontrol of eggs, feedingstuffs, wheat and flour, and the removal of the subsidy on sugar.

Guaranteed Prices

The four aims of price fixing are: (a) to give the producers a reasonable return; (b) to encourage production of crops and livestock products at the level required by the nation; (c) to ensure a sufficiency of a product at all times of year by seasonal variation of the price (e.g., winter milk), and (d) to discourage relatively wasteful forms of production (e.g., over-fat livestock).

Prices have been fixed annually since February 1945 for almost the whole output of agriculture excluding fruit and vegetable crops. The Agriculture Act, 1947, guaranteed to the farmer an adequate price and a certain market for his principal products: fat cattle, fat sheep, fat pigs, milk, wool, eggs, wheat, barley, oats, rye, potatoes and sugar beet.

The method, for most products, is for the Government to fix prices annually after a review of the economic position of the industry. Representatives of the farmers take part in the review and price-fixing discussions. Prices are prescribed for definite periods to enable farmers to plan ahead. The price may be a guaranteed fixed or minimum average price; a rate of deficiency payment related to a standard price; an acreage payment; a subsidy; or a price calculated in accordance with a formula of which, for example, the price of feedingstuffs might be the basis.

Controls on prices and supplies of cereals and feedingstuffs were ended in August 1953; imports had been returned to private trade in May 1953. This has involved the removal of the existing subsidy on flour, but a National flour of 80 per cent extraction has continued to be produced and the subsidy on bread made from it has been continued and modified to take account of the disappearance of the flour subsidy. Maximum prices for cereals were ended, but for the 1953 harvest the Ministry of Food agreed to buy any supplies offered under existing arrangements, which would continue until new ones had been brought into operation. Eggs were decontrolled as from 26th March 1953, and an interim organization, the National Egg Marketing Organization, was set up to advise the Minister of Food on their orderly marketing. Under these arrangements producers are guaranteed a minimum price but are free to sell their eggs, normally to licensed packing stations, at whatever prices they will fetch above this minimum.

A guaranteed price is of little value to a farmer unless he knows at the time precisely what produce it covers, and at what point it is to operate. The price 'award' which follows the annual review specifies the grades which are covered by the guarantee and the point at which it will be paid.

Provision is made under the Agriculture Act, 1947, for special (in addition to annual) price reviews when exceptional cost increases (e.g., in wages) take place.

On the decontrol of cereals and eggs, the guaranteed prices for these products at first became what is described above as 'guaranteed minimum average prices', prices actually

realized by farmers being free to fluctuate above those minima. Further arrangements for marketing the four cereal crops—wheat, rye, oats and barley—were announced in September 1953. Beginning with the 1954 harvest a system of deficiency payments, where the average price realized in any cereal year for grain of prescribed quality falls short of a standard price, will be administered by the Ministry of Food in conjunction with the Agricultural Departments.

Promotion of Efficiency

Besides providing stability through guaranteed prices and markets, a policy which has helped farmers increasingly to invest in capital equipment such as tractors (see p. 150), the State promotes productive efficiency through local administrative government, through land management and through various schemes and aids.

Agricultural Advisory Services

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 is divided into districts, to each of which District Advisory Officers have been appointed to act as general advisers to farmers. The District Officers can call on an extensive system of specialist advisers. Advisers in general agriculture, 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 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, feedingstuffs, etc., and the diagnosis of crop pests and diseases.

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 (see p. 152).

Agricultural Executive Committees

Agricultural policy is carried out in England and Wales under the Minister of Agriculture through County Agricultural Executive Committees (CAECs) set up under the Agriculture Act, 1947, with the duty of promoting agricultural development and efficiency. The committees comprise twelve members. Five are appointed directly by the Minister and seven from panels nominated by the interests concerned, three being farmers, two landowners and two workers. One of those directly appointed is a member of the county council; the others are persons with special qualifications or with experience of local agriculture. The committees are represented in areas within the county by District Committees. The system of voluntary part-time liaison officers, to interpret Government policy to the CAECs, was revived in 1952. The system differs in Scotland and Northern Ireland. In Scotland, agricultural policy is carried out under the Secretary of State for Scotland through the Department of Agriculture by 11 Area Agricultural Executive Committees. In Northern Ireland, an Agricultural Executive Officer working directly under the Northern Ireland Ministry of Agriculture is responsible for the carrying out of the Government's agricultural policy in each county.

The Agricultural Land Commission

The Agricultural Land Commission was set up under the Agriculture Act, 1947, and assumed the following functions on 1st January 1948: the managing and farming of land vested in the Minister of Agriculture and Fisheries, or land for which he has become responsible; and advising and assisting the Minister in matters relating to the management of agricultural land. The Commission also advises the Minister on the exercise of his powers

of compulsory purchase under the 1947 Act, to ensure the full and efficient use of agricultural land; and it prepares experimental schemes for the readjustment of farm boundaries and puts them into effect. The Commission manages about 200,000 acres. Nearly half of this is agricultural land intermixed with other lands used by the Forestry Commission. The remainder is mostly land acquired by the Minister under the Act on the grounds of ensuring 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.

The Agricultural Land Service

In 1943 Rural Land Utilization Officers were appointed to advise planning authorities on the agricultural implications of development plans in England and Wales. This work, as well as that of the pre-war Land Commissioner Service, has now been taken over by the Agricultural Land Service, formed in 1948, which operates now in eight provinces. The main duties of this service are as follows: (1) to act as agent for the Agricultural Land Commission, giving technical advice on the acquisition and management of agricultural land; (2) to give technical advice on measures to ensure good estate management, on the agricultural aspects of planning and the release of agricultural land for other development, including afforestation, on schemes under the Hill Farming and Livestock Rearing Acts and the Marginal Production Schemes, on the provision and management of smallholdings by smallholdings authorities, and on the provision of allotments by local authorities.

In Scotland similar duties are carried out by officers of the Department of Agriculture.

Security of Tenure

About two-thirds of the occupiers of farms in England and Wales are tenants or mainly tenants (renting at least three-quarters of their land). The highest proportion of tenant farmers is found in the northern, north-western and west midland counties of England, where 70-80 per cent of the cultivated areas in each county is farmed by tenants.

In England and Wales the Agricultural Holdings Act, 1923, required at least 12 months' notice to be given to quit an agricultural holding and gave a tenant a right to compensation for disturbance on leaving his holding; a tenant had no statutory right of contesting the notice to quit. The Agricultural Holdings Act, 1948, gave the tenant the right in normal circumstances to have the matter referred to the County Agricultural Executive Committee (acting for the Minister); either tenant or landlord could then appeal against the committee's decision to an Agricultural Land Tribunal—an independent body, whose decision is final. The Scottish Act of 1949 applies similar provisions to Scotland, with a right of appeal to the Scottish Land Court. In Northern Ireland under the various Land Acts passed between 1870 and 1925 every farmer is either the owner, or is in process of becoming the owner, of his holding. There are no farm landlords in Northern Ireland.

Under the Agriculture Act, 1947, the Minister of Agriculture has the power to place under supervision an owner or occupier considered guilty of bad estate management or bad husbandry. This power he has delegated to the County Agricultural Executive Committees. If the owner or occupier fails to show satisfactory improvement in his standard of management or of husbandry after 12 months under supervision, or earlier if he has failed to comply with a direction, he may be dispossessed. An owner or occupier may appeal to an Agricultural Land Tribunal against a proposal that he should be dispossessed.

Smallholdings and Allotments

There are about 1,167,000 allotments¹ in the United Kingdom. Most of these are provided by local authorities, who have certain powers and duties in this respect under the Allotments Acts.

¹An allotment is legally defined as a parcel of land of not more than 2 acres (0·809 ha.), held by a tenant under a landlord and cultivated as a farm or garden.

There are also some 20,000 smallholdings provided by county councils and county borough councils in England and Wales and by the Minister of Agriculture and Fisheries. 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 Minister of Agriculture approximately 1,000 situated on 18 different estates are managed on the Minister's behalf by the Land Settlement Association Limited, which was originally formed in 1935 to develop smallholdings for unemployed men from industrial areas. The Association provides centrally on each estate various services which the tenants are obliged to use. These services include 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 a number of profit-sharing farms, which still operate.

In Scotland the Department of Agriculture provided plots of up to one acre for the unemployed. In 1937 there were over 2,000 plot-holders, but there has been a gradual closing down of schemes since the end of the war and the number of plot-holders had fallen to 419 at the end of 1952.

Land settlement in Scotland has always been carried out by the central Government, which now owns and maintains some 432,000 acres (174,822 ha.) of Land Settlement Estates with about 3,900 holdings. On these estates loans up to 75 per cent of working capital may be granted to new tenants.

There are about 200,000 domestic pig keepers in England and Wales and about 500,000 domestic poultry keepers. They are encouraged by the Small Pig Keepers' Council and the National Domestic Poultry Keepers' Council, respectively, promoted by the Ministry of Agriculture. In Scotland there are about 7,000 domestic poultry keepers. In Northern Ireland there are 82,000 poultry keepers and 36,000 pig keepers.

Drainage and Water Schemes

The estimated cost of drainage and water schemes approved for State aid amounts to:

ENGLAND AND WALES (to 31st March 1953)

- Farm drainage (since 1940)—£24 million.
- Main rivers (since 1930)—over £27 million.
- Minor arterial drainage (since 1937)—over £10 million.
- Farm water supply (since 1941)—over £14 million.

SCOTLAND (to 31st March 1953)

- Farm drainage and arterial drainage (since 1940)—£6½ million.
- Farm water supplies (since 1942)—£1,106,858.

NORTHERN IRELAND (to 31st March 1953)

- Farm drainage and arterial drainage (since 1942)—£2½ million.
- Farm water supplies (since 1942)—£1¼ million.
- Main rivers¹ (since 1947)—over £500,000.

Grants for farm drainage may be up to 50 per cent of the cost; for main river drainage they can range up to 80 per cent.

¹Under the Drainage Act (Northern Ireland), 1947, the Ministry of Agriculture was constituted the drainage authority for Northern Ireland.

Farm Buildings

The provision of many more farm buildings for the industry, including steel Dutch barns and buildings to house grain-drying and grass-drying plants, is being facilitated.

A scheme for the large-scale production of standardized components for farm buildings was announced in February 1948. The Ministry of Works, the building trade and agricultural organizations have co-operated in preparing the scheme, which provides components for buildings that will suit a wide range of agricultural and horticultural purposes. With these components, buildings either 18 ft. or 33 ft. wide can be constructed to a height of 8 ft., 12 ft. or 16 ft. in bays of 15 ft. The available length is any multiple of 15 ft. The scheme is increasingly popular, and orders in 1952 were higher than in previous years. With the decontrol of steel the Ministry is no longer required to give special facilities to manufacturers of these components, but there is every reason to suppose that continuing use will be made of standard components for the construction of farm buildings.

Crops and Grass

Recent researches at the Ministry of Agriculture's Grassland Research Station, Hurley (see footnote¹, p. 269), and elsewhere are directly influencing agricultural practice, notably in the development of scientific grassland management and the extension of ley-farming in districts where formerly this alternate husbandry system has not been the usual practice; in the choice of crop varieties; in crop husbandry; in the application of insecticides and fungicides; and in the use of disease-free planting material.

One of the main aims of the agricultural expansion programme has been to produce more livestock from a smaller grass acreage and to import less feedingstuffs than before the war. It is necessary on the one hand to maintain cropping for human consumption and increase home production of coarse grains, and on the other hand to improve grazing in summer and the supply of conserved grass and green crops to replace imported oilcake in winter. Silage production in the United Kingdom increased from 338,000 tons in 1947 to about 2,011,000 tons in 1952. Artificially dried grass production has increased from a negligible quantity in 1947 to 222,000 tons in 1952.

Animal Husbandry

Britain is noted for her exports of pedigree livestock and since the end of the war there has been a marked recovery of the export trade in livestock of high quality.

Horses. To ensure that quality is maintained, stallions must be licensed whether they travel or stand for service at home. Grants are paid to approved societies hiring out pedigree stallions of heavy breeds. The number of farm horses has fallen by half since 1939 because of mechanization.

Cattle. It is mainly the beef breeds (e.g., Shorthorns, Herefords, Aberdeen Angus) which have made a reputation overseas, but interest in British dairy stock is increasing. The rise in milk consumption since 1940 has resulted in concentration at home on dairy breeds, but in spite of the change-over to milk, 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. Schemes for communal use of sires are in operation, with special schemes in the Highlands and Islands for the loan of bulls and rams (free of charge) to communities of smallholders. Cattle-rearing in the United Kingdom is encouraged by subsidies on calves reared for beef production and on hill cattle. Northern Ireland sends to Great Britain all fatstock surplus to its ration requirements.

Licensing schemes operate for bulls and boars in order to ensure sound breeding. Artificial insemination centres, which are officially licensed, cover practically the whole of England and Wales and licensed centres are also operating in Scotland and Northern Ireland. Nearly one-third of the dairy cows in England and Wales are artificially inseminated.

Under a plan introduced in October 1950 for the eradication of bovine tuberculosis on an area basis, areas containing over three-quarters of a million cattle have already been cleared. Others are being cleared. At the end of 1952 there were nearly 100,000 attested herds (3½ million cattle) in Great Britain. Northern Ireland has had an Attested Herds Scheme in operation since 1949; there are 1,125 attested herds (39,185 head of cattle).

Milk. Since October 1949 all dairy farms in Great Britain must be registered, and regulations lay down conditions under which milk is produced, handled, treated and stored. Milk may be sold, subject to licence, under special designations: 'Tuberculin Tested' (TT), 'Accredited' (in Scotland 'Standard'), 'Pasteurized' and 'Sterilized'. It is intended that ultimately there will be facilities for the heat treatment of all milk that is not tuberculin-tested. Premiums are paid on TT and accredited milk and a bonus on attested herds.

In Northern Ireland milk has been paid for on a quality basis since 1934. The whole of Northern Ireland is now a 'safe milk' area.

Sheep. The best mutton and lamb throughout the world is largely of British origin. At home, modern farming conditions have led to a decline in 'arable' flocks (i.e. flocks feeding off root and forage crops grown in rotation with, for example, barley) and an increase in grass-reared sheep; hill-sheep farming has been maintained in spite of losses in 1947.

Poultry. To raise the standard of poultry stock there is a Poultry Stock Improvement Plan under which breeding stations and hatcheries are accredited. By December 1952 accredited breeding stock amounted to 2,950,000 birds in England and Wales. Similar schemes operate in Scotland and Northern Ireland.

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 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 £20 million and this can be increased by £2 million if necessary.

Marginal Production Schemes

Grants of up to 50 per cent of the cost can be given to occupiers of agricultural land to help them carry out on their farms operations which would be temporarily uneconomic without assistance but which would eventually enable them to increase production. About £2½ million is being provided for this kind of assistance in 1953-54.

Mechanization

Mechanization has been one of the important causes of the increase of productivity of labour on the land in recent years.

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 1952, 342,070. According to the Economic Commission for Europe, Britain has the greatest tractor density in the world, one tractor per 57 acres (23 ha.) of arable land. The increase in some of the newer agricultural machines has been even more notable; thus, 17,275 combined harvester-threshers were in use on the 1952 harvest; in 1939 there were only 150. As so often happens in agriculture the solution of one problem creates another: in a climate such as Britain's, the widespread use of these combines gives rise to the need for grain-drying and grain-storage facilities on a substantial scale. How to provide these on sound technical and economic lines is a problem which is receiving the closest attention by the many public and private interests concerned.

Considerable, but as yet not complete, success has attended intensive efforts to solve the problem of mechanizing the cultivation and harvesting of root crops—especially potatoes and sugar beet—which make so heavy a seasonal demand on labour. This aspect of farm mechanization is also receiving close attention.

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 depends very largely.

The National Institute of Agricultural Engineering carries out research, testing and development work in agricultural engineering, and the Agricultural Machinery Advisory Committee, representative of the industries and Government Departments concerned, advises on requirements and supply of machinery and the development and production of new machines.

The home agricultural engineering industry in 1939 made goods to the value (ex works) of no more than £4½ million. In 1952 the output was valued at £106 million, about £58½ million of which was exported. Making full allowance for increased prices, this represents more than a tenfold increase.

In 1952 more than 7,000 tractors as well as other types of agricultural machinery were owned by county agricultural executive committees in England and Wales and by private firms of contractors for hiring to farmers.

Research and Advisory Services

Agricultural Research in Britain is planned and co-ordinated by the Agricultural Research Council (see p. 268). This body advises the Agricultural Departments (see footnote p. 139) on the programmes, estimates and staffing of the grant-aided Agricultural Research Institutes (15 in England and Wales and seven in Scotland, listed in footnote¹ p. 269), and itself controls 14 research centres (listed in footnote² p. 269).

The exchange of information on research in other Commonwealth countries takes place through the machinery of the Commonwealth Agricultural Bureaux and Institutes (ten bureaux and two institutes in the United Kingdom and one institute in Canada, see p. 273).

The Agricultural Improvement Council for England and Wales and the Scottish Agricultural Improvement Council advise the Agricultural Departments on problems requiring investigation and on the application of the results of scientific investigation to farming practice. In reconstructing the Council in 1953, at the end of a three-year period of office, the Minister included a prominent landowner and a land agent to assist the Council to devote more attention to problems of estate management, including buildings and fixed equipment.

Research and advice are combined in the Provincial Agricultural Economics Service of England and Wales. The service is attached to the universities and organized in ten economic advisory centres. In Scotland the Department of Agriculture has a Farm Economics branch, and agricultural economists are on the staff of the three Agricultural Colleges. Similar arrangements exist in Northern Ireland.

The Agricultural Advisory Services (see p. 146) provide technical advice and instruction free to all engaged in agriculture and horticulture, and the Agricultural Land Service in England and Wales (see p. 147) advises landowners on estate management problems.

Facilities are provided at the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries Experimental Centres 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.

The Ministry of Agriculture for Northern Ireland has its own research divisions investigating problems of animal and crop production. The research divisions work in close

touch with the Ministry's county staffs, and also provide technical advisory services for the farmer. A very close link has been forged between the Queen's University of Belfast and the research divisions, since certain officers of the latter are professors and lecture in the University Faculty of Agriculture.

Control is also exercised by the Plant Disease Division in the disinfection of all flax seed sown in Northern Ireland. A well-equipped Dairy Bacteriology Division keeps a watchful eye on the maintenance of the hygienic standards laid down for the production and handling of milk.

At Hillsborough, in County Down, the Northern Ireland Agriculture Research Institute owns and operates a farm of some 500 acres (202 ha.). The Institute is endowed from public funds and, therefore, the officers of the Ministry's Research Divisions are afforded facilities for carrying out their field experiments. Another 500 acres at Hillsborough are devoted to forestry and are controlled by the Forestry Branch of the Ministry of Agriculture. Thus there is a close integration of research, education and advisory work in these research divisions.

Education

Eight universities in England and Wales (Cambridge, Durham, Leeds, London, Oxford, Nottingham, 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; in Northern Ireland a degree course is provided at Queen's University, Belfast. There are four Agricultural Colleges and two Farm Institutes in England and Wales and three Agricultural Colleges in Scotland which give two-year diploma courses. These are more practical than degree courses and are intended mainly for farmers and farm managers. These courses are also a preparation for the National Diplomas in Agriculture, Dairying, Horticulture and Poultry Husbandry. In Northern Ireland there are three Agricultural Colleges catering for young men and women.

There are 34 Farm Institutes in England and Wales and six farm schools in Scotland run by local education authorities providing courses in general agriculture, dairying, poultry, horticulture and poultry husbandry. Courses are usually for one year of 33 to 40 working weeks. Various short courses are run during the vacations, and local education authorities also provide a wide range of part-time instruction which also meets the needs of the domestic producer.

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 in all some 1,400 with about 61,000 members, mostly between the ages of 10 and 25. Each club is self-governing but has the support of an advisory committee of farmers and other adults and of the local organizer. Clubs are combined in county federations and in National Federations for England and Wales (founded 1932), Scotland (1937), and Northern Ireland (1929).

FISHERIES AND FORESTRY

The Agricultural Departments referred to in the preceding section on Agriculture are also the responsible departments for Fisheries, which make an important contribution to Britain's food supplies. Forestry is promoted in Great Britain by the Forestry Commission, which is also responsible to the Minister of Agriculture and Fisheries and the Secretary of State for Scotland.

Fisheries

Britain's fishing industry falls into two main divisions: demersal and pelagic¹ (white fish

¹Demersal fish live on or near the sea-bed (e.g., cod, haddock, plaice, turbot, sole, etc.). Pelagic fish live in the intermediate waters or near the surface (e.g., herring, pilchard, mackerel, etc.).

and herring). There are also fisheries for mussels, cockles, whelks and oysters from the Thames Estuary to the Wash, and on the Cornish and South Wales coasts; for lobsters and crabs off the Scottish coasts, and for crabs, lobsters and whelks in the east and south coastal areas of England.

Organization and Production

There were 29,431 persons regularly employed in fisheries in Great Britain at the end of 1952. Landed weight of fish disposed of amounted to a little over 19,000 tons per week; consumption of fresh, frozen and cured fish in Great Britain amounted to about 17,000 tons landed weight per week.

Northern Ireland consumes about one-third of its own catches and exports the rest to Great Britain and to the Irish Republic.

Sea Fishing

The chief means of catching fish are by the use of nets—trawl, seine, drift and ring—and by lining. Trawling is carried on in distant, middle and near waters for demersal fish throughout the year and seasonally for herring. The deep-sea trawler fleet comprised 1,059 vessels at the end of 1952. Seining is chiefly used on the nearer grounds, the principal catches being plaice and haddock. About 550 Scottish vessels engage in seine net fishing during most of the year, while from Grimsby, Fleetwood and Whitehaven 71 such vessels are in regular operation. Ulster fishermen also use seine nets. Drift nets are mainly used for herring and pilchards by 429 steam and motor drifters; ring netting, a method of catching herring mainly in the more sheltered waters, is growing in popularity and is the method used by about 200 motor-boats. Long lining on grounds too rough for trawling is carried on by a limited number of vessels (mainly Scottish), while small and hand lining still provide employment for a large number of crews in autumn, winter and early spring. Cod, whiting and mackerel are caught.

The quantity and value of fish landed in the United Kingdom during 1952 were as follows:

WET FISH (demersal and pelagic)

Great Britain: 989,902 tons valued at £43,700,608.

Northern Ireland: 5,343 tons valued at £148,875.

SHELL FISH

Great Britain: value £1,183,872.

Northern Ireland: value £3,939.

Exports of fish from the United Kingdom—fresh, frozen, cured or canned—in 1952 were valued at £5,839,776.

Freshwater Fisheries

The principal commercial freshwater catches are salmon, grilse, sea-trout and eels. In Scotland and Northern Ireland fixed nets along the coast and sweep nets in rivers and estuaries are used; in England drift nets are used for catching salmon in the sea. In Scotland the value of the salmon catch (both commercial and sporting) amounts to about £1 million, and in Northern Ireland to £200,000, annually. In Northern Ireland eels are captured by long lines and by eel nets placed in special gaps in river weirs.

Sporting fishing is by rod and line in lakes, lochs, rivers and streams. Salmon, grilse and sea-trout are the most important species, and the fishing rights command high rentals. There are also extensive fishings for brown trout. Other freshwater fish taken, particularly in England, are roach, rudd, perch and dace. Fishing for freshwater fish other than salmon and trout is of minor importance and figures of catches are not available.

Promotion and Regulation of the Industry

Laws in Britain relating to fisheries and fish are principally directed to the following purposes: (a) protection of supply by measures against over-fishing, e.g., the Sea Fisheries

Regulation Acts, 1888 to 1930, and the Sea Fishing Industry Acts, 1933 to 1938; (b) promotion of the prosperity of the industry, e.g., the Herring Industry Acts, the Sea Fish Industry Acts and the White Fish and Herring Industry Act, 1953; (c) protection of the quality of the product, e.g., the Food and Drugs Act, 1938. The Government Departments mainly responsible for the administration of laws in the first two categories are the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries, the Scottish Home Department, and the Ministry of Commerce for Northern Ireland; the Ministry of Food is concerned with questions of processing and distribution and, together with the Ministry of Health, 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 *Herring Industry Board* (see p. 55) was set up under the Herring Industry Act of 1935, to reorganize, develop and regulate the herring industry; subsequent amending Acts have also been passed. The Board promotes sales of herrings both at home and abroad, encourages and carries out schemes of research and experiment into methods of fishing and processing, grants loans to fishermen for the acquisition of boats and equipment, and exercises a measure of control over the industry by means of rules and directions and a licensing option. It operates a scheme for the reduction of herring to oil and meal, using its own and commercial processing plants. In August 1951 the Board was given additional powers to participate in the industry, including fishing for herring, and purchasing, processing and selling herring; such powers, however, are to be used only to secure proper provision for the needs of the industry and after consultation with the interests concerned. The Board is assisted by the Herring Industry Advisory Council, representing various sections of the industry, and by local officers who work at the ports during the fishing season, and who on occasion act as port arbiters in disputes regarding herring sales. Sectional committees may be set up to advise the board on matters affecting a particular section of the industry.

The *White Fish Authority* (see p. 56) was set up by the Sea Fish Industry Act, 1951, to reorganize, develop and regulate the white fish industry. It has powers, similar to those of the Herring Board, to carry on research and experiment, encourage co-operation in the industry, promote exports, provide processing plant, and grant loans in connection with fishing vessels or processing plants. The Authority is composed of independent members working in consultation with the industry through the White Fish Industry Advisory Council, and has delegated certain of its functions in Scotland and Northern Ireland to a committee consisting of Scottish and Northern Irish members.

Research

The authorities concerned with fisheries research are the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries, the Scottish Home Department and the Development Commissioners (see pp. 265 and 271).

Ports

The principal fishing ports in England and Wales are Hull, Grimsby, Great Yarmouth, Lowestoft, Milford Haven and Fleetwood; in Scotland, Aberdeen and Granton for white fish, and for herring the Moray Firth ports, and Stornoway and Shetland, together with the Clyde ports; Ardglass, Portavogie, Kilkeel and Annalong are the fishing centres of Northern Ireland. London is the principal wholesale distributing centre, and Billingsgate Fish Market handles an average of 600 tons a day.

Forestry

Only a small part of Britain's timber requirements is met from its own woodlands; the greater part—to the value of £164 million in 1952—is supplied by imports. In recent years, however, the Government has been devoting continuous effort through the Forestry Commission to the long-term task of increasing the country's timber resources, which

over the centuries, and particularly as a result of overfelling in the two world wars, have been seriously depleted.

Forest Area

The last census of woodlands (1947-49) disclosed that the total area of woodland in Great Britain on 30th September 1947, excluding woods under 5 acres (2.02 hectares) in extent, was 3,448,362 acres (1,395,505 ha.). This represents 6.1 per cent of the land surface of the countries surveyed, or 71 acres (29 ha.) of woodland for every 1,000 of the population.

According to the Census figures, 3,412,388 acres (1,380,947 ha.), or 99 per cent of the total area of woodland, were on the mainland and 1 per cent distributed over various islands. England, with 1,865,046 acres (754,759 ha.) had 54 per cent of the whole; Scotland, with 1,266,838 acres¹ (512,672 ha.) had 37 per cent of the whole; and Wales, with 316,478 acres (128,074 ha.) 9 per cent of the whole.

The greatest density of woodland in Great Britain is to be found in the north and east of Scotland, where the Census showed that ten counties all had 8 per cent or more of their land area under woodland—Moray, for example, had 21.6 per cent and Nairn 19.1 per cent. The second region of high density lies in the south-east of England and comprises the following five counties: Sussex, Surrey, Hampshire (in which is to be found the well-known New Forest), Kent and Berkshire. In Wales, the only county with an especially high woodland density is Monmouth, with 10.7 per cent of its land area under woodland at the time of the Census. Every county contains some measurable woodland; the Census disclosed that even the administrative county of London had 639 acres (259 ha.).

Types of Woodland

Fifty-two per cent of the total woodland area in Great Britain as a whole was classified in the Census as High Forest, which consists of stands of trees that are normally grown to maturity from planting, sowing, natural regeneration or, occasionally, from Coppice shoots; 10 per cent was classified as Coppice (woodland in which the crop is worked or could be worked on the Coppice system); 15 per cent as Scrub; and 23 per cent as Felled or Devastated.

Woods which are wholly or mainly coniferous occupy a slightly larger area in the High Forest of Great Britain as a whole than do the broadleaved species; in Scotland coniferous woods predominate, with 79 per cent of the total, the broadleaved species accounting for only 21 per cent. In England, broadleaved species occupy 63 per cent, oak accounting for 33 per cent, beech for 11 per cent, ash for 7 per cent, birch for 5 per cent, sycamore for 4 per cent, and Spanish chestnut, elm, and other broadleaved trees for one per cent each. In coniferous woods, which make up 37 per cent of the total, the Scots pine is the most common tree, and accounts for 14 per cent of the total. In Wales, where the conifers again predominate (although only by a small margin), the most common species are the Norway and Sitka spruces, which account for 29 per cent of the total. The broadleaved trees, amounting to 45 per cent in all, consist mainly of oak, which forms 26 per cent of the whole.

Volume of Timber

The timber volume of Great Britain's woodlands (timber over 3 inches in diameter) at 30th September 1949 was estimated at approximately 2,650 million cubic feet (75 million cubic metres), the hardwood amounting to approximately 1,550 million cubic feet (44 million cubic metres), and the softwood to approximately 1,100 million cubic feet

¹Some 10,000 acres (4,047 ha.) of woodlands, mostly conifers, in the north-east of Scotland were blown down by the gales of 31st January 1953 which coincided with the flood disaster on the east coast of Britain.

(31 million cubic metres). The total annual growth of timber was estimated at approximately 97 million cubic feet (2.75 million cubic metres).

Ownership of Woodlands

Eighty-two per cent of all woodlands in Great Britain is owned by private individuals or by limited companies, trusts, corporations, local authorities or Government departments other than the Forestry Commission. The remaining 18 per cent is under the management of the Forestry Commission.

The Forestry Commission

The Forestry Commission was established under the Forestry Acts, 1919–51, to promote the interests of forestry, the development of afforestation and the production and supply of timber in Great Britain. Under the Forestry Act, 1945, the Minister of Agriculture and Fisheries and the Secretary of State for Scotland became jointly responsible for forest policy; under these Ministers the Forestry Commission continued to carry out forestry operations, research and the training of foresters; and since 1950 it has been the licensing authority for the felling of timber. The Forestry Act, 1951, placed responsibility on the Commissioners for the safeguarding of an adequate reserve of growing trees.

During the years 1919–1952,¹ the Forestry Commission acquired 1,855,700 acres (750,965 ha.) of land through the Forestry Fund² and under the Transfer of Woods Act, 1923. This total comprises 1,122,900 acres (454,415 ha.) classified as 'forest land', which is either planted or will be planted in due course, and 732,800 acres (296,550 ha.) of 'other land' which includes forest nurseries, rough grazing, agricultural land and land unsuitable for planting on account of soil conditions and locality. The total number of State forests in Great Britain at 30th September 1952 was 437, of which 175 were in England, 191 in Scotland and 71 in Wales.

Policy

Great Britain's forest policy, laid down in the various Acts, is to extend State and private operations so as to establish, over 50 years, 5 million acres (2.02 million ha.) of well-managed woodlands, made up of 3 million acres (1.2 million ha.) of new planting by the Commission and the replanting by the Commission and private owners of 2 million acres (0.8 million ha.) of existing woodland. The annual yield from these 5 million acres should be about 35 per cent of the national timber requirements.

The restoration of privately owned woodlands is being assisted by the Dedication Scheme, initiated by the Forestry Act, 1947, under which owners are invited to agree to their land being given over to timber production and to their woods being managed in accordance with a plan approved by the Forestry Commission; in return the owner is entitled to financial aid in the form of grants.

Forestry Education and Research

The Commission maintains five forester-training schools: at Parkend and Lynford in England, Gwydyr in Wales, and Benmore and Glentress in Scotland. Northerwood House, the Commission's educational centre in the New Forest, Hampshire, is used for practical courses for university students, landowners, school teachers and timber firms' employees.

Higher education in forestry is provided at several universities, suitable graduates being recruited by the Commission as forest officers.

In 1946 Alice Holt Lodge, Farnham, Surrey, was opened by the Commission as a

¹Figures for 1952 do not include those for the full year but for the Forest Year 1952, which ended 30th September 1952.

²See p. 157.

forestry research station. Grants are made for research on special forestry problems of a fundamental scientific nature to be carried out by universities and other institutions qualified to undertake such work. Expenditure on research and experiment in 1952 amounted to £179,408.

Finance

The Forestry Fund was established in 1919 and from it is paid all the expenditure of the Forestry Commissioners. The fund is replenished by sums voted annually by Parliament, receipts from forest produce, rentals and other sources. From 1920 to 1952 Parliamentary votes totalled £47,545,800 and receipts £15,811,741. Payments were £62,982,054.

National Forest Parks

The Forestry Commission has opened to the public seven National Forest Parks: Argyll, Glen Trool, Glenmore and Loch Ard in Scotland; Hardknott, Forest of Dean and Snowdonia in England and Wales. The total area of these parks is about a quarter of a million acres (101,174 ha.); they include planted areas and unplanted moorland and mountains. Camping facilities are provided in most of the Forest Parks, and the number of overnight stays at the camping grounds exceeded 50,000 in 1952.

Forestry in Northern Ireland

In Northern Ireland, forestry has been the responsibility of the Ministry of Agriculture for Northern Ireland since 1922. At that date the Government had acquired some 4,000 acres (1,619 ha.) for afforestation, of which 500 acres (202 ha.) had been planted. Since then the State forest area has grown steadily, and at a greatly accelerated pace since the end of the second world war. By 31st March 1953, 59,300 acres (23,999 ha.) had been acquired for State afforestation, of which approximately 34,400 acres (13,922 ha.) had been planted. The area of exploitable private woodland is at present some 20,000 acres (8,094 ha.), and private planting is assisted both by the supply of young trees at cost price from the Government nurseries and by grants towards the cost of new plantations.

FUEL, POWER, AND WATER SUPPLY

The most important primary sources of the fuel and power used in Britain are coal and petroleum, and the most important secondary sources are electricity (including hydro-electricity) and coal gas. Normally, inland coal requirements are met from within the country; supplies from the mines also afford substantial exports. Nearly all petroleum is imported (most of it as crude oil, and refined within the country), only a little being produced from coal, shale and local oil wells. The fuel and power industries, with the exception of the petroleum industry and coal distribution, are under public ownership; water supply continues to be run by local undertakings of various kinds and has not been nationalized.

Coal

Coal has been worked in Britain for over 700 years and the mining of coal has been organized as an industry for over 300 years, having reached this stage of development some 200 years in advance of that of any other European country. British coal exports dominated the world coal market until about 1910. In 1913—the peak 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 coalmining industry had been developed so early was largely responsible for the subsequent decline in its prosperity. At a time when other countries were just beginning, the British coalmining industry was already bound by tradition and long established practices that were not easy to discard.

The industry suffered a further decline 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 50·8 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 the mineral coal to the State and made it the statutory responsibility of the Coal Commission to accelerate the integration of the industry by still further reducing the number of separate undertakings. At the outbreak of the second world war in 1939, however, this process was not far advanced.

In 1942 the Government assumed full operational control of the industry, though the colliery undertakings continued to own the coal mines. In May 1946 the Coal Industry Nationalization Act received the Royal Assent; on 1st January 1947 the whole coalmining industry was transferred to public ownership and control and the National Coal Board, an independent public corporation (see p. 51), was set up and made responsible for its efficient operation.

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.

Location

The main coal-bearing areas, roughly in order of output, are to be found in Yorkshire, Nottinghamshire and Derbyshire, Durham and Northumberland, Central Scotland, South Wales, Lancashire and North Wales, Staffordshire, Warwickshire and Leicestershire. There are no coal-bearing areas in Northern Ireland.

Administration

The collieries—about 900—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; their number and distribution may also vary. Some of the larger Areas are split up into Sub-Areas the managements of which are responsible to Area managements for the operation of groups of collieries within the Area. The Areas are grouped into nine Divisions which roughly correspond to the main coal-bearing areas. A Divisional Board for each Division supervises and co-ordinates the work of the Areas within the Division, formulates divisional policy, and is responsible 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.

Output and Manpower

In 1952 coal output was 226·4 million tons, including 12·2 million tons from opencast sites, compared with 190·8 million tons in 1946. There has been a similar upward trend in productivity: output per manshift rose from 1·03 tons in 1946 to 1·21 tons in 1951, the highest for any year in the recorded history of the industry. In 1952 output per manshift fell to 1·19 tons; this fall was partly attributable to the flow of new recruits who had to be trained and who also set many colliery managements the problem of providing capacity for extra manpower. The average number of all workers in 1952 was 716,000 (17,000 more than in 1951).

Exports of coal were resumed after the war and, including bunkers, reached 19·3

THE NATIONAL COAL BOARD'S PROGRESS, 1947-52

| | | 1947 | 1948 | 1949 | 1950 | 1951 | 1952 |
|----------------------------|------------------------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Coal output | million tons | 187.2 | 197.6 | 202.7 | 204.1 | 211.9 | 214.3 |
| | Opencast | 10.2 | 11.8 | 12.4 | 12.2 | 11.0 | 12.2 |
| | Total | 197.4 | 209.4 | 215.1 | 216.3 | 222.9 | 226.5 |
| Manpower | thousands | 288 | 293 | 296 | 288 | 287 | 294 |
| | Other workers (a) | 423 | 431 | 423 | 409 | 412 | 422 |
| | All workers (a) | 711 | 724 | 719 | 697 | 699 | 716 |
| | Recruitment | 94 | 74 | 52 | 55 | 73 | 77 |
| | Wastage | 68 | 66 | 68 | 76 | 64 | 55 |
| | Net change | +26 | +8 | -16 | -21 | +9 | +22 |
| Attendance | Shifts worked per man per year (b) | 4.69 | 4.71 | 4.67 | 4.72 | 4.81 | 4.79 |
| | | 244 | 245 | 243 | 245 | 250 | 249 |
| Productivity | tons per manshift | 2.86 | 2.92 | 3.02 | 3.11 | 3.17 | 3.15 |
| | | 1.07 | 1.11 | 1.16 | 1.19 | 1.21 | 1.19 |
| Earnings | per manshift (c) | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. |
| | | 36 10 | 41 1 | 43 1 | 44 10 | 48 6 | 54 0 |
| | | 28 10 | 33 1 | 34 4 | 35 6 | 38 10 | 43 2 |
| Colliery financial results | per ton of saleable coal | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. |
| | Costs | 41 3 | 45 7 | 45 0 | 45 5 | 49 2 | 56 9 |
| | Proceeds | 40 3 | 47 3 | 47 11 | 47 10 | 51 2 | 57 3 |
| | Profit (+) or loss (-) (d) | -1 0 | +1 8 | +2 11 | +2 5 | +2 0 | +6 |

Source: National Coal Board Report and Accounts 1952

(a) Yearly average. (b) 52 weeks. (c) Including the value of allowances in kind. (d) Operating profit or loss, i.e. before paying interest.

million tons in 1949. Thereafter, owing to increased demands from home industry, they declined to 11.6 million tons in 1951, but in 1952 they rose again to a little over 15 million tons including 3.4 million tons of bunkers for foreign-owned vessels.

In 1950 the National Coal Board announced its long-term plan of development for the industry involving the reorganization and increased mechanization of existing mines and the sinking of new ones. The plan envisaged a capital investment of £635 million at 1949 prices between 1950 and 1965 when it was estimated that the annual output of coal would have risen to about 240 million tons. The plan was not a rigid blueprint, room being left for modifications in the light of changing circumstances and new knowledge. Actual capital expenditure in the three years 1950-52 was £89 million at current prices.

Various estimates have been made of the country's workable reserves. The latest was made by the Coal Survey in 1946 which considered there was certainly sufficient coal to maintain output for 100 years but that in some places economically workable reserves, particularly of special coals, would be worked out sooner.

Table 22 shows statistics of the National Coal Board's progress since its inception.

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. Current output is drawn from 11 shale mines, retorted in four crude oil works and the crude products are refined in a central refinery at Pumpherston. Output of shale reached a peak of 3½ million tons in 1913, but the cost of the processes and other economic difficulties led to a reduction of output. This at present averages 1½ million tons a year, yielding, in 1952, some 107,000 tons of crude shale oil. From the latter some 100,000 tons of refined products were obtained. In 1952 some 109,000 tons of motor and aviation spirit were obtained from coal by hydrogenation and 175,000 tons of refined benzole from coke ovens and gas works. Prospecting for crude petroleum has so far led to the establishment of four oilfields in Nottinghamshire, one in Lancashire and one in Scotland, but 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.

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 and Caribbean areas. In 1950 they together accounted for no less than 18.2 per cent of world production and for over 40 per cent of the oil entering into international trade, and they supplied some 60 per cent of total Commonwealth needs.

Consumption of petroleum products in the United Kingdom has risen from just over one million tons in 1900 (mostly kerosene for lamps, and lubricants) to over 17 million tons in 1952 (predominantly gas, diesel and fuel oils and motor spirit).

Up to 1939 three-quarters of the United Kingdom petroleum supply 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, a series of complex factors have operated to favour the siting of refineries in the consuming areas. Predominant among these, in the case of Britain, were the need to save foreign exchange (particularly dollars), the advantages of a petroleum chemicals industry (see p. 177), the relatively low prices of crude oils, which have not risen as fast as those of refined products, and cheaper transport costs for crudes. Consideration of all these factors led up to a vast domestic refinery expansion programme costing about £150 million over the years 1947-52.

At the beginning of 1953 refinery capacity in the United Kingdom amounted to 23 million tons per annum; actual production of refined products rose from about five million tons in 1948-49 to 22.5 million tons in 1952. Exports of refined products became

possible, and their value reached over £52 million in 1952 while in the same year that of imports of refined products fell from £141 million in 1951 to £96 million.

Electricity Supply

The first public supply of electricity was provided at Godalming, Surrey, in 1881, following the development of the vacuum carbon-filament lamp between 1875 and 1880. From the earliest days a measure of public control has been a feature of the industry, and the Electric Lighting Act of 1882 authorized the Board of Trade to grant exclusive rights to local authorities and private enterprise to supply consumers in a given area. By the turn of the century technical developments had led to a large expansion of distribution areas and the introduction of the electric motor as a source of motive power. 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 reorganize the industry on a national scale in order to realize the benefits of a standard and integrated system of supply. In 1919 the Electricity Commissioners were set up as a supervisory body and to secure reorganization 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; to connect these selected stations with one another and to local distribution undertakings by means of a national system of main transmission lines, known as the Grid; and to establish a standard alternating current frequency of 50 cycles. 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.

The Nationalized Industry

Under the Electricity Act, 1947, the electricity supply industry of Great Britain was brought completely under public ownership and control and in April 1948 the British Electricity Authority (the Central Authority) and 14 Area Electricity Boards took over the assets of the former municipal and private undertakings throughout Great Britain except the North of Scotland District. The Authority is responsible for the generation and transmission of electricity, and the Area Boards for its distribution and sale to consumers. Previously, in 1943, the North of Scotland Hydro-Electric Board was established as a non-profit-making public body mainly to develop the water power resources of the Highlands and Islands, and to distribute electricity in the more sparsely populated areas not covered by existing undertakings. The 1947 Act made the Board solely responsible for all means of generation and distribution in its area, which was somewhat extended to include that part of Scotland north and west of a line running roughly from Dumbarton on the Firth of Clyde to a point just north of Newburgh on the Firth of Tay.

With the exception of a few small non-statutory undertakings supplying a fraction of one per cent of the total supplies to the public, the industry in Great Britain is now entirely under public control. Of the total public supplies in Great Britain, the British Electricity Authority produces some 98 per cent, and the North of Scotland Board most of the remainder.

The British Electricity Authority and Area Electricity Boards are responsible to the Minister of Fuel and Power; and the North of Scotland Hydro-Electric Board to the Secretary of State for Scotland. Consultative councils have been set up to represent the interests of consumers in the area of each Board. The councils consist of between 20 and 30 members, of whom between 50 and 60 per cent are nominated by local authority associations. A council has also been set up for the area of the North of Scotland Hydro-Electric Board.

The main function of the British Electricity Authority is the development and maintenance of an efficient, co-ordinated and economical system of electricity supply on a

national scale. It is responsible for the generation and acquisition of electricity supplies and for their transmission to the Area Boards, which then distribute them. The Authority also has the duty of co-ordinating distribution by the Area Boards and it has a general control over their policy, especially in development programmes, tariffs, general finance, and labour relations. The Authority undertakes research and may require the Area Boards to do so. Generation is carried out at 293 stations in the 14 generating divisions of the Authority, which are based in general on the same geographical regions as the Area Boards.

At 31st March 1953, 49,091 persons were employed by the British Electricity Authority (Headquarters and Generating Divisions) and 132,273 by the Area Boards; a total of 181,364, of which 11.6 per cent were women.

In Northern Ireland, electricity is generated by two municipal undertakings and one public board. The bulk of the electricity is acquired by the Northern Ireland Joint Electricity Committee set up by statute in 1948, for sale to statutory distribution undertakings. Of these the Electricity Board for Northern Ireland distributes electricity throughout the province with the exception of the cities of Belfast and Londonderry, where it is carried out by municipal undertakings.

Generation of Electricity

Almost the whole of Britain's electricity is produced in coal-fired steam generating stations. Plentiful supplies of coal together with good rail and coastal transport for moving the coal, in contrast with the remote and scattered location of 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.

In 1952, 60,563 million units (one unit = one kilowatt-hour) or 97.1 per cent of the public supply in Great Britain was generated at steam stations; 1,672 million units or 2.68 per cent from water power and 158 million units or 0.25 per cent 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 1952 at 62,393 million units showed an increase of 4 per cent over 1951, 59,971 million units, and nearly 50 per cent over 1946, 41,253 million units (see Table 23).

Sales of electricity in Northern Ireland in 1952 totalled nearly 693 million units.

TABLE 23
PRODUCTION OF ELECTRICITY IN GREAT BRITAIN

| Year | Million units generated | Year | Million units generated |
|---------|-------------------------|------|-------------------------|
| 1920-21 | 4,275 | 1945 | 37,284 |
| 1925-26 | 6,619 | 1946 | 41,253 |
| 1930 | 10,917 | 1950 | 54,965 |
| 1935 | 17,569 | 1951 | 59,971 |
| 1940 | 28,773 | 1952 | 62,393 |

Generating capacity in Great Britain as a whole at the end of 1952 totalled 17,823 megawatts (maximum continuous rating) compared with 12,498 megawatts at the end of 1946. The Authority is at present implementing a large-scale programme of capital investment, for the regions it controls, which includes the provision of an increase, between the years 1946 and 1955, of 10,600 megawatts (sent out).

The Authority is the largest consumer of fuel in Britain and in 1952 it used approximately 35 million tons, consisting mainly of coal. Average thermal efficiency (i.e. the ratio of power output to the coal consumed) rose from 20.86 per cent in 1947-48 to 22.04 per cent in 1951-52 as new plant was brought into use. Five stations were operating throughout 1951-52 with a thermal efficiency of over 28 per cent. A policy of standardization of equipment is being implemented wherever possible, especially in generators, boilers and other plant. The two standard sizes of turbo-alternators are 30,000 kilowatts and 60,000 kilowatts, and most sets now installed are of these sizes.

Transmission and Distribution

Main transmission lines—the Grid—cover most of the country. Those of the Authority totalled 4,600 route miles (7,400 km.) at 31st March 1952, of which 4,105 miles were operated at 132,000 volts and 495 at 66,000 volts and below. Operation of the Grid is effected through the Authority's eight operational areas, set up for that purpose and distinct from the generating divisions; each has a central control station and the operations are co-ordinated by the national control station in London.

In order to meet estimated demand during the next 20 years, a new super-grid system of main transmission at 275,000 volts, which will make British electricity supply the most closely integrated power network in the world, is being promoted by the Authority. The first stage, already in progress, is due for completion in 1955. The Authority is also undertaking development of a plan to link British and French grid systems to take advantage of different peak periods in the two countries.

The Area Electricity Boards distribute to consumers electricity acquired mainly from the Authority, but in part from other sources, e.g., collieries. There were 13.5 million consumers in March 1952, an increase of approximately 3.5 million on those supplied in March 1939. Industrial users are the group of consumers with the highest consumption, and demand from this sector is 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 development of electricity supplies for rural areas has been facilitated by the change in the structure of the industry under the 1947 Act. During 1951-52 supplies were provided for a further 9,744 farms which raised the total to 120,121.

The Area Boards are required to promote the standardization of systems of supply and types of electric fittings. The standardization of low-voltage supplies has been under consideration for many years, and in 1945 it was decided that the adoption of a voltage of 240 volts would be the practical and economic method of standardization of alternating current low-voltage supplies. Implementation, however, is restricted by shortage of labour and materials.

Capital Investment

The comprehensive capital plan to bridge the gap between ever-increasing demand and supply is limited by shortages of equipment and finance. Capital investment by the Authority and Area Boards in 1952 was approximately £148 million, of which £79 million was spent on generation, £10 million on main transmission, £54 million on distribution, £4 million on repair and maintenance of buildings and £1 million on supplies associated with the defence programme.

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 Highland hydro-electric power is expected to be substantially higher and eventually may exceed

10,000 million units. In 1952, 889 million units were generated from this source compared with 322 million in 1949.

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 1869, 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 modern gas industry developed during the period between the wars when ever-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 modernization 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.

The Nationalized Industry

Under the Gas Act, 1948, the gas industry was brought under public ownership and control on 1st May 1949. The assets of 982 undertakings, of which 274 belonged to local authorities, were vested in 12 Area Gas Boards. Together they cover the whole of Great Britain and are charged with the statutory duty to develop and maintain an efficient, co-ordinated and economical system of gas supply to domestic, industrial and other consumers. The chairmen of these boards constitute the Gas Council, which is headed by an independent chairman and deputy-chairman and is responsible for advising the Minister of Fuel and Power on questions affecting the gas industry.

The Gas Boards, which are autonomous bodies, are charged *inter alia* with the responsibility of manufacturing and distributing gas to consumers. Their powers differ from those of the Electricity Area Boards, which are limited to the distribution and sale of current, while the central executive body—the British Electricity Authority—is charged with the duties of generation and transmission. A link between the industry and the consuming public was established under the nationalization 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, as in the case of electricity, the gas supply industry remains in the hands of a number of municipal undertakings and statutory and non-statutory companies.

Production and Consumption

In 1952 in Great Britain 27.5 million tons of coal were carbonized by gas undertakings and 25.2 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 consumed at the ovens or at collieries or steelworks.

In 1921, 250,300 million cubic feet (7,100 million cubic metres) of gas was manufactured by authorized gas undertakings or acquired from coke ovens, and the number of consumers was 7.5 million. By 1952, gas manufactured and acquired from coke ovens

for distribution had risen to 569,300 million cubic feet (16,111 million cubic metres) and the number of consumers had risen to about 12.25 million, an increase of 127 per cent in the volume of gas available and of about 63 per cent in the number of consumers.

The total number of persons employed in the gas industry in December 1952 was 148.6 thousand including 13 thousand women. There has been an increase of 13 thousand in the number of workers since September 1948. Table 24 illustrates the trends in the manufacture of gas over the last 30 years, showing the steady rise in the manufacture of gas at gasworks and the very rapid increase in the acquisition of supplies from coke ovens, etc.

TABLE 24

PRODUCTION AND AVAILABILITY OF GAS IN GREAT BRITAIN, 1921-1952

*Thousand million cubic feet**

| Year | Gas made at gasworks | | | | Gas bought from coke ovens and other sources | Total gas available |
|----------|----------------------|-----------|-----------|-------|--|---------------------|
| | Coal gas | Water gas | Other gas | Total | | |
| 1921 (a) | 194.5 | 49.9 | 4.6 | 249.0 | 1.3 | 250.3 |
| 1925 (a) | 231.3 | 48.2 | 4.3 | 283.8 | 4.8 | 288.6 |
| 1930 (a) | 255.3 | 39.5 | 5.0 | 299.8 | 13.2 | 313.0 |
| 1935 (a) | 260.5 | 32.4 | 6.0 | 298.9 | 20.5 | 319.4 |
| 1940 (a) | 260.8 | 29.8 | 7.1 | 297.7 | 36.9 | 334.6 |
| 1945 | 302.4 | 65.3 | 8.5 | 376.2 | 51.5 | 427.7 |
| 1950 | 382.4 | 84.8 | 14.1 | 481.3 | 63.1 | 544.4 |
| 1951 | 399.1 | 84.1 | 14.9 | 498.1 | 65.9 | 564.0 |
| 1952 | 408.3 | 79.2 | 13.8 | 501.3 | 68.0 | 569.3 |

*1,000 million cubic feet=28.3 million cubic metres.

(a) Statutory undertakings only.

Nearly three-fifths of all gas produced is sold for household use and the remainder for industry, commerce and public services. (See Table 25.)

TABLE 25

CONSUMPTION OF GAS IN GREAT BRITAIN, 1948 TO 1952

*Thousand million cubic feet**

| | 1948 | 1949 | 1950 | 1951 | 1952 (provisional) |
|-----------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-----------------------|
| Domestic | 288.2 | 286.5 | 287.7 | 294.2 | 289.1 |
| Industrial | 105.0 | 109.2 | 122.6 | 133.2 | 136.4 |
| Commercial | 52.6 | 58.0 | 61.8 | 68.9 | 71.8 |
| Public administration | 11.1 | 9.9 | 11.2 | 11.2 | 11.1 |
| Public lighting .. | 8.2 | 10.4 | 11.6 | 11.0 | 11.0 |
| TOTAL | 465.1 | 474.0 | 494.9 | 518.5 | 519.4 |

*1,000 million cubic feet=28.3 million cubic metres.

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 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. The principal exception is in rural areas where, owing to difficulties in storage and transmission, gas is not economic. These difficulties have been overcome in some areas 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.

Industrial and Commercial Use. Gas is especially suited to industries which require a simple 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. Industrial use of gas increased greatly during the second world war and reached 103 thousand million cubic feet in 1943. By 1951 industrial consumption had risen further to 133 thousand million cubic feet.

Capital Investment

The structure of the nationalized industry has already permitted considerable integration by the linking of undertakings for the transmission of gas, 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 the East and West Gas Grids of South Wales.

The chief objects of capital expenditure since the war have been to overtake arrears of maintenance and plant renewal; plans for substantial expansion have had to be postponed. Capital expenditure in 1952 was £47 million, compared with £41 million in 1951 and £34 million in 1950.

By-products

With the rapid increase in the volume of gas produced, the problems of the disposal of what were regarded originally as the 'waste' products of the carbonization of coal (notably tar, benzole, sulphur and ammonia) became increasingly important.

Production of coke at gas works in 1952 was 12,578,000 tons, and at coke ovens 17,092,000 tons. The gas industry and coke ovens jointly produce over 2½ million tons of crude coal tar and about 100 million gallons (455 million litres) 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 includes dyestuffs (of which Britain now produces more than 80 per cent of its requirements), fertilizers, 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 carbonization derivatives is becoming of increasing importance to the economy of the industry.

Water Supply

Britain has a sufficient rainfall to ensure enough water to supply all her domestic and industrial requirements. Water problems are 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 by 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 has not been nationalized. It remains in the hands of a large number of water undertakings of different kinds. In September 1953 in England and Wales there were 893 local authority

water undertakings, 55 joint water boards (including bulk supply boards) and 16 committees, 106 statutory water companies, 46 non-statutory water companies, 5 private proprietors with statutory powers, and well over 1,000 private proprietors without statutory powers, mostly affording small supplies. Water undertakings vary greatly in size; of the statutory undertakings, 26 (about 2½ per cent of the total) supply about 50 per cent of the population, and 123 supply 75 per cent. Over the past 80 years there have been a number of amalgamations; the outstanding example has been the Metropolitan Water Board (see p. 54) which was established in 1902. Eight separate undertakings were combined to form the Board, which is probably the largest single water undertaking in the world, and supplies about 350 million gallons (1,591 million litres) daily to about 7 million people in Greater London.

Water undertakings together supply about 1,750 million gallons (7,955 million litres) a day. They spend about £20 million a year on capital development, financed by loans, the interest on which, together with running costs, is paid by the undertakings from a total annual income of some £50 million. This income is derived from local water rates or charges levied on domestic consumers in proportion to the annual rateable value of their property and from prescribed charges for meters 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.

Today, piped water supplies reach some 95 per cent of the total population of England and Wales. The provision of piped supplies for rural districts was assisted by an initial grant of £1 million under the Rural Water Supplies Act, 1934; further grants of up to £45 million (in England and Wales) were provided under the Rural Water Supplies and Sewerage Acts, 1944 and 1951. More than 70 per cent of persons living in rural areas have piped water supplies or are within easy reach of water mains.

Ninety-five per cent of the total population of Scotland is reached by piped supplies, as compared with eighty-two per cent in the country areas. Although the water problem in Scotland is broadly similar to that of England and Wales, the differences in geography, law and organization have led to special legislation being enacted. The Water (Scotland) Act, 1949, provides for a £20 million grant for rural water supplies, sets up the Scottish Water Advisory Committee to advise the Secretary of State for Scotland who is the responsible authority, and makes the domestic water rate uniform over the country area of a county.

Northern Ireland has abundant supplies of fairly uniform soft water. Gravitation water systems supply the large towns. Belfast is supplied principally from a reservoir in the Mourne mountains holding approximately 3,000 million gallons (13,600 million litres). A second reservoir is shortly to be constructed in the same area. Londonderry also has an upland reservoir supply.

The Water Supplies and Sewerage Act (Northern Ireland), 1945, places certain statutory obligations on local authorities with regard to water supply, drainage and sewerage, and provides grants towards the cost of improvements which are made.

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.

Growth and Development of Water Supplies

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 Edward Chadwick and his colleagues, who demonstrated the dangers to

pure water supply and sanitation brought about by the new industrialization, that the Health Act, 1848, became law. The Act laid down a common minimum standard of sanitary service and became the foundation of all subsequent legislation on sanitation. For example, the Sanitary Act of 1866 prescribed that local authorities should inspect their areas and suppress nuisances. Through the establishment of separate water undertakings from the middle of the nineteenth century onwards, the water supply system developed in piecemeal fashion with some overlapping and waste.

To meet the urgent need for co-ordination and long-term planning the Ministry of Health was assisted from 1923 onwards by an Advisory Committee on water, and in 1924 the Ministry started to encourage the formation of Regional Advisory Water Committees for important areas having a common water problem.

The Water Act, 1945, gave the Minister of Health powers to implement national water policy to promote the conservation and proper use of water supplies in England and Wales. Provision was also made for a Central Advisory Water Committee to advise the Government on general questions relating to water. The Act dealt with the local organization of water supplies and the powers and duties of local authorities and water undertakings. Local authorities were required to supply piped wholesome water to every part of their districts where there were houses or schools, to maintain wells, springs, and water mains, and to ensure that supplies were free from pollution.

On the formation of the Ministry of Local Government and Planning in January 1951, the responsibilities of the Ministry of Health in regard to water were transferred to that Ministry, renamed the Ministry of Housing and Local Government in December 1951.

Inland Water Survey

A survey of all inland water resources has been started to provide information on the yield, behaviour and quantity of the nation's water resources to Government Departments, water undertakings, industry, agriculture and other water users. An advisory body, the Inland Water Survey Committee, which is not a statutory committee, was set up in 1950, and consists mainly of engineers. The committee is not at present sitting. The field work on surface water is being carried out mainly by the new River Boards. The other two aspects of the survey, rainfall and underground water supplies, are the responsibility of the Meteorological Office and the Geological Survey and Museum, respectively.

River Boards

Under the River Boards Act, 1948, 32 River Boards have been set up to carry out and co-ordinate the various aspects of river management previously performed by a large number of separate authorities, including 53 catchment boards responsible for land drainage, 45 fishery boards and 1,600 pollution authorities. In particular, the River Boards are directed to concern themselves with the conservation of water resources in their areas to meet the increasing demand from industry and domestic users.¹

Each River Board covers a River Board Area. The River Board Areas together comprise the whole of England and Wales, except the Thames and Lea Catchment areas (which remain under the Conservators of the River Thames and Lea Conservancy Catchment Board, respectively), the administrative County of London, and areas adjoining that county not included in any catchment area.

River Boards are composite bodies representing local government, agricultural and fishery interests, and their expenses are apportioned among the councils of the counties or county boroughs concerned in them in proportion to the rateable values of property in the River Board Area.

¹Under the Coastal Flooding (Emergency Provisions) Act, 1953, the Minister of Agriculture and Fisheries may authorize River Boards to enter upon land, to construct new embankments, to obtain clay and other materials, and to build access roads, etc., in order to expedite necessary work in emergencies such as the East Coast flood disaster of January 1953.

River management in Scotland and Northern Ireland has not been centralized to the same extent.

Prevention of River Pollution

A sub-committee to investigate measures for the prevention of river pollution was set up by the Central Advisory Water Committee in 1949. Its recommendations were incorporated in the Rivers (Prevention of Pollution) Act, 1951, which revises and strengthens previous legislation. There is a similar Act for Scotland. It is now an offence for any person to permit any polluting matter, solid or liquid, to enter a river. Enforcement of the Act is vested in the River Boards and the Thames and Lea Conservators.

SOME MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES

In terms of production and exports the most important British industries are the metals and metal-using group, the textiles group and the chemicals group. This section gives notes on some of the industries in these broad categories as well as on some traditional British craft industries and some newer industries with an expanding export trade.

Metals and Metal-using Industries

The metals and metal-using industries contributed as much as 52 per cent of total United Kingdom exports in 1952. They consist chiefly of the industries producing iron and steel and various non-ferrous metals; the vehicles industries (motor vehicles, cycles, aircraft, ships and locomotives); the electrical engineering industry; the machinery industries, a large group embracing all kinds of metal products from machine tools to lawn mowers; and the cutlery, hardware, implements and instruments industries.

Iron and Steel Industry

Iron and steel are the basic materials of this whole group of industries. Britain pioneered the application of coal to the smelting of iron ore from the seventeenth century onwards and was responsible for the technical development which led to the great expansion of steel-making in the second half of the nineteenth century. Today Britain is the world's third largest producer (after the United States and the Soviet Union) and is renowned for the quality of its special alloy steels.

British steel production at the start of the twentieth century averaged about five million ingot tons a year, and was about twice this amount in the years before the second world war. Output in 1945 was 11·8 million ingot tons.

Modernization of the industry, begun on the establishment of the British Iron and Steel Federation in 1934 as the central trade association for the industry, but interrupted by the war, was resumed in 1946, when a five-year plan drawn up by the Federation was submitted to the Government. The general objective was to modernize steel-making capacity in Britain and increase it to 16 million tons a year. The total estimated cost at 1945 prices was £168 million, or about £340 million at 1952 prices. Actual expenditure to the end of 1952 was over £300 million (£400 million at 1952 prices). Target capacity was exceeded, 16·4 million tons being produced in 1952. The index of productivity in steel smelting and rolling measured in output per head had increased from 106 in 1945 (1938=100) to 143 in 1952.

The largest plant built under this plan, which was completed in 1953, is the Abbey Works at Margam in South Wales, employing some 7,000 people and costing £60 million, which since July 1951 has been producing steel sheets, plates and strip. A new tinplate works at Trostre, South Wales, started operation in October 1951 and a new cold reduction mill is planned at Velindre, also in South Wales.

A second five-year plan to raise United Kingdom steel production to at least 20 million tons by 1957-58 has been submitted to the Government.

Public supervision of the iron and steel industry dates from 1932, when a Government-appointed body, the Import Duties Advisory Committee, gave special attention to the reorganization of this industry. Detailed control was exercised in the second world war by the Iron and Steel Control of the Ministry of Supply, and from 1946 to 1949 the industry was supervised by an Iron and Steel Board. On 15th February 1951 the greater part of the industry came into public ownership by virtue of the Iron and Steel Act, 1949. On that day the Iron and Steel Corporation of Great Britain, established under the Act, took over from private shareholders the ownership of 92 major companies and some 150 associated companies, though the companies retained their separate identities and managements. The Government elected in October 1951 passed, in 1953, another Iron and Steel Act to repeal the 1949 Act and to return these companies to private ownership and to set up an Iron and Steel Board to provide public supervision over the industry.

Direct exports of the industry in 1952 were valued at £192 million and about 470,000 persons were employed in all branches.

Non-ferrous Metals Industries

Non-ferrous metals industries in Britain contributed direct exports to the value of £82 million in 1952. Apart from a little mining of lead, tin, tungsten and copper, the British industry consists of factories for smelting, rolling, extrusion, drawing, casting and fabrication, chiefly of aluminium, copper, lead, zinc, tin, magnesium and the precious metals. These and other non-ferrous metals, such as nickel, molybdenum and tungsten, are used in steel alloys, and science is finding new uses for non-ferrous metals of all kinds which are vital to industries as diverse as, for example, production of nuclear energy (uranium), jet aircraft engines (aluminium, columbium, magnesium, titanium), and electronic apparatus (selenium, tungsten, germanium).

The Vehicles Industries

The vehicles industries make the largest contribution to the export trade (some £451 millions in 1952), and employed at the end of 1952 over one million people: 210,000 in shipbuilding and repairing, 293,000 in manufacture of motor vehicles and cycles, 210,000 in manufacture and repair of aircraft, 141,000 in the manufacture of parts and accessories for motor vehicles and aircraft, and 170,000 in manufacture and repair of locomotives, railway carriages, wagons and trains.

Motor Vehicles Industry. In size and value the vehicles industries are headed by the motor vehicles industry, which comprises the manufacture of cars and commercial vehicles other than tractors. Exports in 1952 (including parts) were valued at £241 million. Britain is the world's largest exporter of these products, and has been responsible for some of the latest technical advances, such as the application of the gas turbine engine to motor car propulsion, for which at least four British manufacturers have patents.

On the production side, some of the new assembly plants in Britain, electrically controlled and using the minimum of labour, may stand comparison with similar plants anywhere in the world for efficiency and reliability.

Total production of motor vehicles in Britain rose from 10,500 in 1908 to a peak of 783,672 in 1950. This total fell slightly in 1951, through steel shortages, and again in 1952, through restriction in some export markets, but rose again to record levels in 1953. An encouraging factor in the 1953 recovery has been the very large increase in exports to the United States and Canada. The United States is now the largest individual market by value for British cars.

The industry is to be found mainly in the Midlands and in London and in south-east England, but is represented in most regions. Motor vehicle producers may be divided into four main groups: (1) the 'Big Six', which control between them 12 establishments producing over 90 per cent of the output of cars and light vehicles; (2) specialist producers

of cars; (3) specialist producers of cars and commercial vehicles; (4) manufacturers of commercial vehicles excluding the 'Big Six' and specialist producers. The two largest firms in the first category, Austin and Nuffield, were acquired by a holding company, the British Motor Corporation, in February 1952, with the object of obtaining economies and standardization. This group, with assets totalling £66 million, is the fourth largest motor manufacturing group in the world, representing some 50 per cent of British output.

The principal trade association in the industry is the Society of Motor Manufacturers and Traders (SMMT), founded in 1902, which holds in London a Commercial Motor Exhibition every two years, and a Motor Exhibition annually.

Research is carried out by the Motor Industry Research Association, founded in 1946, at Lindley, Warwickshire, an autonomous body partly financed by the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research (see p. 267) but mainly by the industry and the SMMT; and also by DSIR's Mechanical Engineering Research Laboratory at East Kilbride, Scotland.

Cycle Industries. Exports of motor cycles, motor tricycles and cycles (including parts) made in Britain earned £42 million in 1952. Exports of pedal cycles and parts alone were valued at £31 million. The industry making cycles is quite separate from, though akin to, the motor vehicles industry. Britain is the world's largest exporter of these products.

A Scotsman, McMillan, built the first pedal cycle in 1840. Factory production began in 1868, when a sewing-machine firm undertook a contract for 100 pedal cycles. The modern pedal cycle industry is one of the most concentrated in the country, three large firms being responsible for about two-thirds of the output. Cycle manufacturers buy some components from specialist component manufacturers, who are often the same firms which supply the motor vehicles and aircraft industries. The chief centres of production are at Nottingham and Birmingham. The labour force is about 20,000, excluding persons employed by specialist component firms. Output has risen from two million cycles in 1935 to four million in 1952.

Aircraft Industry. Aircraft exports, including parts other than tyres, reached a value of £43 million in 1952 and are expected to approach £60 million in 1953. British contributions to aeronautical science are numerous, from the early nineteenth century, when Sir George Cayley founded the science of aerodynamics, to the twentieth century, when the use of a gas turbine for jet propulsion, for which Sir Frank Whittle was granted a patent in 1930, came to fruition with the flight of the first jet-propelled aircraft on 15th May 1941. Since the second world war, the United Kingdom aircraft industry (which dates from 1905) has concentrated mainly on the development and production of gas turbine aircraft for civil and military purposes, although a range of piston-engined types is still produced. Progress with transport aircraft in particular was shown when on 2nd May 1952 the *Comet* inaugurated the first scheduled air service in the world employing gas turbine propulsion, between London and Johannesburg. The *Comets*, *Viscounts* and *Britannias* are being ordered in large quantities by overseas as well as British airlines. Orders in hand for them at the end of 1952 amounted to £50 million and many more orders are expected as airlines renew their fleets. This is apart from military aircraft, which earn Britain foreign currency through exports and production under licence in foreign countries.

A new private company entitled Air Finance was formed in September 1953 to assist aircraft manufacturers to promote exports by offering credit facilities to overseas customers.

The industry employs about 210,000 people compared with 134,219 in 1948, 1.8 million in 1944 (the war-time peak) and 35,890 in 1935.

The representative body of the United Kingdom aircraft industry is the Society of British Aircraft Constructors, founded in 1916. The annual exhibition and flying display held by this society at Farnborough is a fixture of international importance.

The greater part of research on fundamental problems of aerodynamics, structures, engines, etc., is carried out by the Ministry of Supply. This work is done in collaboration with the industry and results are made known to manufacturers, who are in close and constant touch with the Ministry's establishments. The actual design, construction and initial testing of aircraft are, however, carried out by the manufacturer. British technical achievements recently disclosed include the by-pass type of engine (the first distinct step forward in the evolution of the aircraft gas turbine engine), and the delta and aeroclinic wing shapes.

Shipbuilding. Ships built in British yards exported to other countries in 1952 were valued at £36 million, compared with £53 million in 1951.

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 she launched over two million tons, still the peace-time record for the industry. The problem of surplus capacity and periodic heavy unemployment appeared in all shipbuilding countries during the inter-war years. 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 continued 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, sections, angles, etc., and a widely diversified pattern of general industry to supply the numerous components that go to the making of a ship.

About 73 per cent of the total output of ships is produced in two main areas: along the lower Clyde in Scotland, where vessels of all kinds are built, including fast ocean-going vessels and cross-Channel steamers; and in north-east England along the lower reaches of the rivers Tyne, Wear and Tees and in the towns of Hartlepool and West Hartlepool, where there is a special emphasis on tankers, 'tramp' steamers and colliers. The other shipbuilding areas are smaller: Belfast in Northern Ireland specializes in liners, refrigerator and motor ships; Merseyside undertakes naval construction, luxury liners, and motor ships; Barrow in Lancashire specializes in liners and naval vessels. Ships are also built in the Southampton area and along the Forth and Tay estuaries, while numerous places along the coast produce fishing vessels, yachts, barges, and small craft.

Repair yards and dry docks are situated in all the great ports and there are important repair facilities in all the shipbuilding areas.

There are many firms engaged in shipbuilding, although, as with other engineering industries, nearly half the output of new ships is concentrated in the hands of about a dozen. Practically the whole of the marine engineering industry is owned by shipbuilding firms.

In the years 1946 to 1950 Britain launched nearly half the world's total new tonnage, and 30 per cent in 1952. From 30 to 40 per cent of launchings are for oversea customers. More than half the two million gross tons under construction at the end of 1952 was tanker tonnage, and this proportion is tending to increase.

In December 1952 there were about 210,000 employees in the shipbuilding and repairing industries, including the Royal Dockyards.

Locomotives Industry. Locomotives and rail vehicles provided exports valued at nearly £37 million in 1952.

Britain was the first country to develop the locomotive railway and British engineers pioneered railway development in all parts of the world.

The locomotives industry in Britain has come to be divided into two separate sections: one of these comprises the locomotive works of the main British Railways, and is

engaged in building and repairing locomotives and rolling-stock for their use; the other consists of private firms providing locomotives for all purposes, but mainly for export.

The first section of the industry was taken over from the main railway companies of Great Britain by the British Transport Commission, when rail, long-distance road and inland waterways transport was nationalized.

Locomotive building and repairing by British Railways is carried on in such railway centres as Crewe, Swindon, Doncaster, Darlington, Derby, Eastleigh and Ashford, and in a number of small construction and repairing shops. Total British Railways staff employed on locomotive construction and repairing was about 40,000 in 1952, while about 42,000 were employed on construction and the repairing of rolling-stock.

The second section of the industry comprises a number of firms who make steam, diesel and diesel-electric locomotives as part of their other engineering activities. These firms employ about 60,000 workers but not more than one-third are employed in locomotive building. Of this third, 13,000 are engaged in the production of steam locomotives, mainly in a few large firms in south-east Lancashire and the west of Scotland, and, on a smaller scale, on the north-east coast and in the West Riding of Yorkshire.

The following table shows the production of locomotives by British Railways workshops and private firms during 1952 analysed according to type of locomotive and its destination:

| | UK Railways | Industrial | Export |
|--------------------------------------|-------------|------------|--------|
| Steam | 210 | 50 | 299 |
| Diesel and diesel-electric | 62 | 182 | 407 |

During the same period 25 electric locomotives were also produced for main line railways in the United Kingdom.

The Electrical Engineering Industry

The electrical engineering industry in its present form is not much more than fifty years old. Output in 1951 was valued at £700 million compared with £14 million in 1907 and £310 million in 1946. This shows a rate of expansion unequalled by any other leading British industry. Some 650,000 people are employed in the industry in all its branches, including electrical manufacturing, the production of radio electrical equipment and lamps, wires and cables, telegraphs and telephones, other electrical goods and contracting.

The industry is the seventh largest individual British exporting industry, following after vehicles, machinery, iron and steel, cotton, chemicals and wool in value; and Britain is one of the two largest world exporters. In 1951, the industry as a whole, including radio and other domestic products, contributed the equivalent of £97 million towards payment for essential imports. Over half these exports went to Commonwealth countries, particularly India, Malaya, Australia, the Union of South Africa and New Zealand. Europe and North and South America also took large quantities.

Machinery Industries

Machinery in one word embraces a vast range of industries including agricultural machinery (see p. 179), ball and roller bearings, boilers, motors, excavators, mechanical handling equipment, furnace plant, gas and chemical machinery, machine tools, oil refining plant, office machinery (see p. 179), packaging machinery, prime movers, pumps, sewing machines, textile machinery, electrical machinery, etc. Exports of this whole group in 1952 totalled in value £422 million, compared with £363 million in 1951 and £318 million in 1950.

Textile Machinery. One of the oldest of Britain's mechanical engineering industries is the textile machinery industry which developed rapidly following the introduction of mechanical spinning and weaving towards the end of the eighteenth century. The industry now gives employment to about 70,000 people and comprises some 600 firms

making every kind of machine and accessories for processing all types of natural and synthetic fibres. It enjoys a world-wide reputation, not only for the high quality of its products but also because it can offer 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; bast and leaf fibre machinery, of which the United Kingdom is still by far the world's largest supplier; and, of course, all types of mill stores and textile machinery accessories. In 1952 exports were valued at over £50 million.

To assist the efforts of the home mills to maintain their pre-eminence in world textile production, and to keep its own place as the world's traditional supplier of textile machinery, the industry is spending more and more of its resources and time on research into the structure and peculiarities of various fibres and into new and improved methods of processing. By this research it is developing machines capable of producing more efficiently yarns and fabrics of higher quality. The research laboratories and design departments of the machinery makers are energetically and successfully seeking the solution of new problems arising from the introduction of the synthetic fibres, such as nylon, 'Terylene' and 'Ardil'.

Textile Industries

The textiles and clothing group as a whole, including manufactures of wool, cotton, linen, jute, silk, rayon and synthetic fibres, lace, hosiery, woven apparel and carpets, exported in 1952 goods to the value of £381 million, or 15 per cent of total United Kingdom exports. Over 1,400,000 people were employed in these industries at the end of 1952, including 154,000 in cotton spinning and doubling, 120,000 in cotton weaving, etc., 206,000 in woollen and worsted, 86,000 in rayon, nylon and silk, 119,000 in hosiery and knitted goods, 91,000 in textile finishing, 162,000 in other textiles, and 494,000 in clothing (excluding footwear).

The Wool Textile Industry

The wool textile industry 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. Over 80 per cent of woollens and over 90 per cent of worsteds are made in Yorkshire. Scotland and the West of England have retained their importance as specialized producers of high-quality woollen cloth. The woollen side of the industry is normally organized 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 mainly organized horizontally—combing, spinning and weaving being done by separate firms. Small firms employing fewer than 300 workers predominate in the industry. Output reached a post-war peak at the end of 1950. There was a downward trend for most of 1951 and recession—reflecting a world-wide recession in textile trade—became marked in the last quarter of that year. The first half of 1952 was a period of much reduced activity, but production recovered thereafter. Average monthly production in 1952 was 19.26 million lb. of tops (combed wool), 23.1 million lb. of woollen yarn, 14.84 million lb. of worsted yarn, 18.47 million square yards of woollen fabrics, 13.02 million square yards of worsted fabrics and 2.50 million square yards of blankets.

The wool industry remains one of Britain's leading export industries; the total value of exports of woollen and worsted yarns and manufactures (including carpets) in 1952 was £123.9 million, or nearly 5 per cent of all exports. After the tourist trade, vehicles and machinery, the wool industry is Britain's best dollar earner; exports of all wool manufactures to the United States and Canada were valued at £30.6 million in 1952. British tops are used by worsted spinners in all parts of the world.

Research is carried on mainly by the Wool Industries Research Association, which receives a grant from the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research. Research is also financed by a statutory levy on the industry.

The Cotton Industry

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.

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 have since been brought back into production, the industry still employs only about two-thirds as many workers as in 1937. It remains, however, one of Britain's largest consumer-goods industries, being the principal source of the clothing worn in Britain and playing 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 utilization.

Production rose steadily from 1945 until the end of 1951, when the industry began to feel the effects of the world textile recession. Production did not begin to recover until the second half of 1952. In 1953 it was still well below the peak 1951 figure, which was itself less than the 1937 level. Output of cotton yarns, including cotton waste yarns, totalled 968 million lb. in 1951 and 853 million lb. in 1952, compared with 741 million lb. in 1946 and 1,358 million lb. in 1937. Output of cotton cloth was 2,202 million linear yards in 1951 and 1,691 million linear yards in 1952, compared with 1,626 million linear yards in 1946 and 3,640 million linear yards in 1937.

There were about 154,000 persons employed in the spinning section of the industry in December 1952, and 120,000 in weaving. About two-thirds of the workers in the industry are women.

Despite the contraction of the industry between 1914 and 1945 and the recession in 1952, cotton remains a leading export industry. In 1952 exports of cotton yarn and manufactures, including 35.7 million lb. of yarn, 9.4 million lb. of finished thread and 710.8 million square yards of woven cotton piece-goods, were valued at £148 million, or over 5½ per cent of total exports. The bulk of the industry is located in south and east Lancashire.

Other Textiles

Linen was made in Britain nearly 1,000 years ago. Today it is an industry of small firms, chiefly in Northern Ireland (the greatest linen manufacturing region in the world). The principal raw material of the industry is flax. Elsewhere in the United Kingdom linen manufacture is confined mainly to Scotland, where, in general, coarser linens are produced. The main products are yarn and thread, and, among the piece-goods, household textiles and interlinings and industrial cloths predominate. Technical problems are investigated by the Research Institute of the Linen Industry Research Association, formed in 1919. Exports in 1952 were valued at over £22 million, the United States being the chief market.

Jute, most of which comes from India and Pakistan, gives rise to a considerable industry centred in Dundee. The principal products are bags, yarns for backing carpets, and canvas

for linoleum, rope and tarpaulin cloth. Exports other than cordage were valued at about £3 million in 1952; the Commonwealth and United States were the chief markets.

Silk goods are exported to many markets, and are appreciable dollar earners. Raw silk is supplied mainly from Japan and Italy.

Rayon is a fibre produced from cellulose, either in the form of wood pulp 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. Of the eleven companies in the rayon industry in 1952, six companies produced viscose rayon (which accounts for over half the total output), three acetate rayon, one both viscose and acetate, and one cuprammonium rayon.

Other Synthetic Fibres. Nylon is produced from a combination of chemical substances, most of which are obtained from indigenous raw materials. It was discovered in the United States and first used in Britain in the second world war for parachutes. 'Terylene', a product of research in the laboratories of the Calico Printers' Association, Manchester, is at present being made in Britain by Imperial Chemical Industries, Ltd. (ICI), in a pilot scale plant, but a £10 million plant is under construction with an annual capacity of over 11 million lb. scheduled for operation in 1955, and a further sum of £7 million is to be spent on doubling the capacity of this new plant. ICI is also setting up a plant in Canada, and the fibre has been made for some years under licence in the United States under the name 'Dacron'. It is also to be made under licence in France and Italy. 'Ardil' is a protein fibre, resembling wool, evolved in the Scottish laboratories of ICI. Filaments were first produced in 1938 and a plant with a capacity of 10,000 tons a year, started in 1949, is now in production. Alginates, derived from seaweed harvested around Scotland, provide valuable non-inflammable fibres, such as calcium alginate, which is insoluble and rather like silk in its other properties.

At the end of 1952, 36,000 people were employed in the production of rayon, nylon and similar continuous filament yarn and staple fibre, and exports of these goods for the year totalled £10 million. A considerably larger number of people were employed in the production of spun yarns and the weaving and knitting of rayon, nylon and similar goods, exports of which totalled about £39 million for 1952.

Since the advent of rayon in its various forms, and more recently of the new synthetic fibres, British textile manufacturers have been developing a number of ways of blending natural and other fibres. By this means they can produce economically fabrics and garments with attractive and useful new combinations of texture, colour, finish, moisture absorption, hard-wearing and crease-resistant properties.

Chemical Industries

Broadly, the chemical industries include the manufacture of such products as paints, polishes and matches, as well as of acids, alkalis, dyestuffs, plastics and pharmaceuticals. The industry employs about half a million people, contributes about 3 per cent of the total national output of goods and services, and in 1952 exported goods valued at £138 million, or over 5 per cent of visible exports. British pioneers made great contributions to the science of chemistry, as the names of Robert Boyle, Joseph Priestley, Michael Faraday and John Dalton testify.

Heavy Chemicals and Dyestuffs. In the heavy chemicals section sulphuric acid is being made increasingly from anhydrite (calcium sulphate), of which the United Kingdom has immense deposits. In the past 35 years the dyestuffs section of the British chemical industry has been responsible for three out of the five major world discoveries. In 1920 'Caledon' Jade Green, the latest and most attractive green yet made, was discovered in Britain. Then came the 'Dispersal' and later the 'Dunanol' dyes for acetate rayon which

alone made the commercial exploitation of that new fibre possible. Thirdly, there was the 'Monastral' fast blue, an entirely new pigment, depending on a hitherto unknown colour principle. More than a thousand different dyestuffs are available.

Petroleum Chemicals. The large-scale manufacture of organic chemicals from petroleum in Britain has developed since the second world war. Previously they were made almost entirely from coal, coal tar, molasses and calcium carbide. Nearly £30 million are invested in the five major petroleum chemicals plants built since 1945. The principal products include gases, e.g., ethylene and propylene from which are made industrial alcohol, solvents and other chemicals and intermediate products used in plastics (see below), synthetic fibres (see above), leather finishing, paint and detergents.

Detergents possess qualities associated with soap but are in addition free from scum formation and are able to break up and remove grease. Estimated United Kingdom production of synthetic detergents rose from 12,000 tons in 1946 to over 100,000 tons in 1952, of which 11,100 tons were exported.

Fertilizers. The British scientists Lawes and Gilbert contributed to the evolution of fertilizers, which now constitute a major branch of the chemical industry. Scientific knowledge has increased rapidly in recent years and the research carried on in the United Kingdom at Rothamsted, Hertfordshire (see p. 269), and the Macaulay Institute of Aberdeen (see p. 269) is of world-wide importance. Production in 1951-52 (June to June) of phosphatic fertilizers totalled 277,000 tons, of nitrogenous fertilizers 286,000 tons and of compound fertilizers 1½ million tons.

Pesticides. Pesticides have been used for hundreds of years but it was not until 1920 that they have been based on accurate scientific methods. Important discoveries in Britain in the last decade have led to major developments in the production of selective weed killers, e.g., methyl chloro phenoxy acetic acid (MCPA) and insecticides based on benzene hexa-chloride (BHC).

Exports of disinfectants, insecticides, etc., rose in value from £880,000 in 1939 to £6 million in 1952.

Pharmaceuticals. Pharmaceuticals provided exports valued at £32 million in 1952 compared with £3 million in 1938. The present annual rate of United Kingdom output is valued at about £90 million. About three-quarters of the pharmaceutical products sold today have been introduced within the last twenty years, including sulphonamides, antibiotics (e.g., penicillin), hormones, anti-malarial drugs (e.g., 'Paludrine' and 'Daraprim'), liver extracts and anti-tubercular drugs.

Plastics. Plastics are man-made materials, generally of organic and synthetic origin, which at some time in their manufacture are in a plastic (i.e. flowing) condition and thus capable of being shaped under heat and pressure. The industry falls into two separate and self-contained groups. The first, the production of plastics materials, falls within the chemical industry, but the fabricating side which uses those materials does not.

Production of plastics materials has risen from 30,000 tons in 1939 to 100,000 tons in 1950 and an estimated 190,000 tons in 1952. Exports reached a peak value of over £16 million in 1951 but fell to a little over £13½ million in 1952.

Traditional Craft Industries

There are a number of industries noted for the quality of their traditional craftsmanship which make an important contribution to Britain's export trade. Foremost among these is the pottery industry.

Pottery. When the demand for earthenware and porcelain cups was suddenly increased in the eighteenth century by the spread of the fashion of drinking tea and coffee, Wedgwood

and Spode introduced developments which transformed a domestic craft into a factory industry with a flourishing domestic and foreign trade. Today the industry is one of Britain's most successful dollar earners, and is almost completely independent of overseas raw materials. The manufacture of high-grade pottery requires china clay found in Cornwall and ball clay from Devonshire and Dorsetshire. Suitable clays are found in Staffordshire for items such as drainpipes, chimney-pots and roofing tiles.

Between 75 and 80 per cent of the industry is concentrated in the area of Stoke-on-Trent in Staffordshire, comprising the six towns of Stoke, Burslem, Tunstall, Hanley, Fenton and Longton. For domestic pottery alone the figure is about 90 per cent. The industry employs about 35 per cent of the whole working population of the area, while a large proportion of the rest is employed in allied industries. Other centres include Worcester, Derby, Bristol, and Poole (in Dorset). The industry is divided into distinct sections. The largest section produces domestic pottery, subdivided into china, earthenware, stoneware, and Jet and Rockingham used mainly for tea and coffee-pots. The other main sections produce respectively glazed tiles, sanitary ware and electrical porcelain (e.g., insulators and fittings). There are about 300 firms, of which about 200 make domestic pottery. The labour force is nearly 81,000 including over 45,000 women.

Since the second world war steps have been taken to increase output per man-hour. Improved factory layout, standardization and semi-automatic 'making' machines have been introduced. Perhaps the greatest advance has been the installation of gas and electric tunnel kilns, through which trolleys, stacked with clay shapes, pass continuously.

The modern industry benefits from an ancient tradition of good design and craftsmanship, made world-famous by a long line of great British potters, which 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, Minton, Royal Crown Derby and Coalport.

Research is carried out by the British Ceramic Research Association, financed partly by the industry and partly by the Government through the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research. The Association's new laboratories at Penkhull, Stoke-on-Trent, were opened in 1951.

Of the £29 million worth of domestic pottery produced in 1951, £17 million worth was exported. The chief customers for china (excluding electrical porcelain) were Canada, the United States and Australia, and for earthenware Canada, Australia, the United States and the Union of South Africa.

Scientific Instruments. Scientific instruments were made commercially in Britain at the beginning of the seventeenth century and probably earlier. At that time navigational aids, such as barometers, and microscopes (mainly for medical purposes) were made.

The industry increased in size during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, but in 1914 it was still small; it manufactured a variety of optical, mechanical and electrical instruments for laboratory and industrial uses. The first world war proved that its products were of prime importance to the war effort and when peace came it expanded under the protection afforded by special tariffs.

During the second world war the industry expanded again very substantially to meet defence needs. Since 1945 its production has further increased to meet the pent-up demands from home and overseas for instruments for use in research and in industry, where their extended use has become recognized as essential to efficiency. Some 50,000 people, mostly skilled craftsmen, are now employed. In 1952 goods were made worth about £40 million, of which about £13 million were exported directly, i.e. excluding indirect exports of instruments as part of plant and equipment.

Every two years the industry holds an exhibition devoted to instruments in commercial production, instruments under development being the subject of an annual exhibition held by the Physical Society.

Jewellery, Gold and Silverware. This is a craft industry in which British craftsmen are heirs to a great tradition. Exports in 1952 were valued at over £11 million. Of the 1,860 firms producing in 1950, 135 were in the southern counties, 76 in the northern, 64 in Wales and the Midlands, and 46 in Scotland. The chief centres are Birmingham, London and Sheffield. A Design and Research Centre for the gold, silver and jewellery industries was incorporated in 1951, with headquarters at the Goldsmiths' Hall, Cheapside, London.

Whisky. Whisky is one of the United Kingdom's largest single dollar earners. Exports in 1952 were valued at £33 million, over half of which went to the United States. The earliest mention of Scotch whisky was in the fifteenth century, and in the following years domestic distillation became very common. During the eighteenth century illicit whisky-making was practised frequently in remote places. The world-wide popularity of Scotch whisky may be said to date from the end of the nineteenth century when blending became generally adopted. Before that time distilleries either bottled their own whisky or blended it with that of other distilleries. 'Single' whiskies are still produced for local consumption on a small scale, but modern whiskies are blends of twenty or more different kinds, some made from malted barley and others from other grains.

The Leather Industry. The leather industry in Britain is one of the largest in the world, employing over 30,000 workers and exporting goods (including footwear) to the value of over £22 million. The Leather Industry Research Association, costing about £50,000 a year, has, according to a survey conducted by DSIR, saved the industry some £305,000 a year. The British Boot, Shoe and Allied Trades Research Association encourages the application of science and mechanization in an industry based upon traditional craft. The bulk of the Association's work is now carried on in new laboratories at its headquarters at Kettering, Northamptonshire.

Expanding Export Industries

Some industries which really belong in the main categories already mentioned are singled out here as having rapidly increased or started a considerable export trade since the second world war. They illustrate the flexibility of British industry in adapting itself to changing world markets.

The Agricultural Machinery Industry. This industry has grown to be one of the largest in Britain, employing 40,000 people with an annual output valued at over £100 million. In 1952 it produced among other implements 154,000 tractors, 48,329 mouldboard-ploughs, 14,560 disc harrows, 73,600 mowers, 5,306 combine harvesters, and 9,895 milling machines. Britain, where production dates virtually from 1933 when the English Ford Company produced 2,788 tractors, now has the largest annual output of tractors in Europe and the second largest in the world, exports the greatest proportion of its output and is the second largest exporter in the world. Exports of agricultural tractors in 1952 were valued at £42 million compared with £28 million in 1950. Important markets are Australia, New Zealand, Turkey, Sweden and Denmark. Exports of other agricultural machinery were valued at nearly £18 million in 1952 compared with under £10 million in 1950.

The Office Equipment Industry. This industry is now second in size only to that of the United States and provides an example of remarkable expansion since the second world war. The value of its output is now over £40 million a year compared with about £2 million in 1939, and its exports of office machinery alone reached nearly £10 million in 1952, of which nearly £2 million went to North American dollar markets.

The Petroleum Refining Industry. This industry, in which capital of some £150 million has been invested since 1947, provided exports of refined petroleum products valued at over £52 million in 1952 compared with £30.1 million in 1951 and £12.8 million in 1950. At the same time imports of refined products fell from £140.9 million in 1951 to £95.7 million in 1952.

The Prefabricated Buildings Industry. The British prefabricated buildings industry, based on long experience dating back in various forms to before 1830, has contributed to solving the problem of housing shortage not only in Britain but in many other countries of the world. Exports of prefabricated buildings increased in value from £2,800,000 in 1950 to nearly £7 million in 1952, when they were sent to over fifty different countries, including Canada and some other dollar countries.

Radioactive Isotopes. The United Kingdom is now the largest exporter in the world of radioactive isotopes, produced as a by-product from nuclear reactors (see p. 270). During the year ended June 1952, the Radio-Chemical Centre at Amersham, Buckinghamshire, a dependency of the British Atomic Energy Research Establishment at Harwell, sent out 9,578 consignments of radioactive isotopes, 3,053 of which went overseas by air to 37 countries. Owing to the growing urgency of demands from different countries the British Overseas Airways Corporation has converted a fleet of *Argonauts* to carry the isotopes in their wing-tips and is considering suggestions for similar modification to *Comet II* aircraft. This method reduces the cost of transport by over 60 per cent by cutting out the cost of heavy lead containers. Radioactive isotopes are used mainly for medical purposes, but also increasingly in scientific research and in industry.

The Refrigeration Industry. This industry falls broadly into three classes—domestic, commercial and industrial. It has made remarkable strides since the end of the second world war. Although before the war production of commercial and industrial refrigeration machinery was well established, domestic refrigeration production, now large, was then quite small.

The 200 firms engaged in the industry employ some 12,000 workers and produce annually goods worth nearly £30 million (nearly ten times the value of production in 1935), of which about £13 million is exported. A full range of refrigeration machinery and equipment is available.

Contractors' Plant. Production in the United Kingdom before the war was mainly concerned with excavators, concrete mixing machinery and road surfacing plant, including road rollers. But now many new machines, especially for earth-moving, are in production. Examples are motor graders, scrapers, trenchers, dozer equipment, dumpers, rippers and rooters.

Whereas output in 1935 was valued at only £2 million, in 1952 it reached nearly £48 million, of which £22 million was exported.

Recent developments in the manufacture of the heaviest types of crawler tractors, bottom dumpers, motor scrapers and mobile crushers will ensure the continued expansion of this industry.

The Electronics Industry. British engineers invented radar and pioneered the first public television transmission, and Britain now has the largest electronics industry outside the United States. The industry has grown enormously in the past fifteen years. It now employs over 130,000 people, and the value of its annual production is some £110 million, of which nearly £25 million was exported in 1952, compared with less than £2 million in 1938. Only 40 per cent of this production is of radio and television sets; the remainder is of such important products as military equipment, radio and television transmitters, communications equipment, navigational aids and industrial equipment.

VIII. TRANSPORT AND COMMUNICATIONS

SHIPPING

British shipping is not nationalized¹ and, in peace time, State control is largely limited to seeing that the safety and other regulations provided for by the various Merchant Shipping Acts are carried out.

Composition

With a merchant shipping fleet, in 1952, of over 18½ million tons gross (vessels of 100 g.t. and over, including fishing and miscellaneous craft), 21 per cent of the world total of 90 million tons, the United Kingdom has the world's largest merchant navy in active employment, although the United States holds first place for the highest tonnage registered.² The United Kingdom fleet carries an estimated 40 per cent of the world's international sea-borne traffic (passengers and goods). Its capital value is not known but it has been estimated, by a leading shipping authority, that if by an extraordinary catastrophe it were entirely lost and had to be replaced at current (1952) prices, the cost would be not less than £2,000 million.

The importance of merchant shipping to the British economy derives partly from the fact that it is a considerable earner of foreign exchange. During 1952 earnings from shipping (excluding tanker shipping) totalled £433 million, while expenditure on the same services amounted to £325 million, leaving a net invisible income of £108 million compared with a total of £261 million for all net invisible income.

The tonnage of 18½ million tons comprises about 6,000 ships. More than 3,000 of these are trading vessels manned by about 190,000 men, of whom some 45,000 are Asiatics. It includes the largest privately owned tanker fleet in the world—4·2 million tons, or 6·6 million tons deadweight (d.w.). With Government-owned tankers, the tanker fleet totalled 4·5 million tons out of a world total of 20 million tons in 1952. The rapid growth of world and United Kingdom tanker tonnage in recent years reflects the great increase in world oil consumption in the twentieth century.

Among recent trends, of which the increase in tanker tonnage is the most marked, have been the growth in the average size of all types of vessel, the change from coal to oil burning in steamships, and the replacement, reflected in building programmes, of steamships by motor vessels. The latest development is the investigation being made into the use of gas turbine engines in ships. In March 1952 the tanker *Auris* made the first crossing of the Atlantic of any ship propelled solely through gas turbines.

The greater part of the British merchant fleet is engaged in foreign trade, where for centuries it has maintained a reputation for high standards of service and competitive efficiency, and has thus played a valuable part in promoting wider and freer multilateral trade. In passenger transport British shipping has also been noted for generations for the provision of an efficiently organized service over a world-wide network of routes.

¹With the exception of certain cross-Channel shipping services which were taken over by the British Transport Commission as part of the main-line railway undertaking (see p. 190).

²Nearly half the United States merchant tonnage consists of US Government-owned vessels withdrawn to reserve fleet.

Some British Shipping Lines

Among the best known British lines and ships are:

Cunard White Star Ltd. This famous company, which operates on the North Atlantic route, owns the world's two largest liners. The *Queen Elizabeth* (over 83,000 gross tons) entered service in 1940 and was very soon requisitioned for war service with the rest of the company's fleet, which during that period carried nearly 4½ million passengers and handled more than 11 million tons of cargo. The *Queen Mary* (over 81,000 gross tons) came into commission in 1936, and in 1938 established a record for the Atlantic crossing which remained unbroken until 1952. The *Caronia* (34,000 gross tons), launched in 1947, is the latest of the Cunard's several smaller but fast ocean liners on the Atlantic route.

Furness, Withy & Co. Ltd. This company is also predominantly a liner organization. It operated the first motor vessels on its North Pacific-United Kingdom service, and subsequently, between the two world wars, developed an extensive passenger trade by motor vessel between New York and Bermuda. It controls *Shaw, Savill and Albion Co. Ltd.*, which operates on the Australia and New Zealand route, and whose largest ship is *Dominion Monarch* (over 26,000 gross tons). It has also a substantial interest in *Royal Mail Lines Ltd.*, which operates on the North, South and Central America routes and whose largest ship is the *Andes* (over 25,000 tons).

Union-Castle Mail Steamship Co. Ltd. This line has provided the principal link with south and east Africa for over 100 years, first as freight carriers then with growing mail and passenger services. Its two post-war liners, the *Pretoria Castle* and the *Edinburgh Castle*, are each over 28,000 gross tons. A new motor vessel, the *Bloemfontein Castle*, operates from London to South and East African ports. Two new vessels, *Rhodesia Castle* and *Kenya Castle*, each over 17,000 tons, are to be operated on a 'Round Africa' service.

Peninsular and Oriental Steam Navigation Co. Ltd. The famous 'P & O' line has operated on Far East routes since the opening of the Suez Canal in 1869, at which time it had a well-established service to Spain and Portugal. A large fleet now operates on the India, China and Australia route. The largest 'P & O' ship is the *Himalaya* (nearly 28,000 gross tons). Another ship of the same tonnage, the *Arcadia*, was launched in May 1953 and is expected to make her maiden voyage to Australia early in 1954.

Other important lines include:

The Orient Line to Australia through the Suez Canal. Its largest ship is the *Orcades* (over 28,000 gross tons). Another ship of the same tonnage, the *Orsova*, intended for the Australian service, was launched in May 1953 and will be completed early in 1954.

Ellerman Lines to South and East Africa. Ellerman Lines also operate services to the Mediterranean, North America and the Far East.

Elder Dempster Lines, which were originally famous for the transport of tropical fruit, now operate mail, passenger and cargo services to South and West Africa.

The Blue Star Line, which is famous for its pioneer work in meat transport from South America and Australasia by refrigerated ship.

The Tanker Fleet

The two principal tanker companies are:

The Shell Fleet, i.e. the Anglo-Saxon Petroleum Co., an associate of the Shell Transport and Trading Co., has about 570 vessels totalling over 6 million tons (d.w.), half of which is chartered, and half directly owned. Its building programme includes a number of very large tankers, at a cost of £45 million.

The British Tanker Company Ltd., a shipping subsidiary of the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company Limited, has 152 ships in service and 27 under construction and on order, including

several of 32,000 tons (d.w.). Eventual tonnage will be nearly 2½ million tons (d.w.). In addition, the Company charters about 150 ships, bringing the tonnage operated to about 4 million tons.

The Whaling Fleet

The largest specialized ships of the merchant fleet are whaling ships, including four factory ships which on board process the whole catch into whale oil (which they carry in numerous tanks). The United Kingdom's whaling factories are large ships and range from 14,400 to 23,000 gross tons.

Cable Ships

The laying, maintenance and repair of Britain's world-wide cable network is carried out by a fleet of eight cable ships, each of which has an operational area in a different region, and is responsible for as much as a 20,000-mile section of submarine cable.

Weather Ships

For the past five years British merchant ships have participated in the international weather patrols by making voluntary observations in the course of normal voyages. Among the 2,400 vessels taking part are 635 British deep-sea and coastal vessels. There are also four British ocean weather ships helping to service ocean weather-stations in the North Atlantic which carry out a full programme of meteorological work.

Shipping Organizations

Shipping companies have, through the years, devised a number of groupings and organizations, which are concerned with regulating the activities and interests of the industry, as well as with common problems.

There are a number of national organizations concerned with the various aspects of the shipping industry and its activities, the most important of which are the following:

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 (see also p. 109).

Lloyd's Register of Shipping

This is an organization, distinct from its namesake, which surveys and classifies ships with particular regard to their safety and operational efficiency. Lloyd's Register 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.

Corporation of Trinity House

The Corporation of Trinity House (see p. 53) is the authority responsible for all lighthouses in England and Wales and the Channel Islands (the Commissioners of Northern Lighthouses and Commissioners of Irish Lights being responsible for lighthouses in Scotland and Ireland respectively) and for pilotage arrangements in a number of ports.

The Chamber of Shipping; The Liverpool Steamship Owners' Association; The General Council of British Shipping

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.

Employers' Organizations

The Shipping Federation and the Employers' Association of the Port of Liverpool are the employers' organizations concerned with labour relations and the regulation of employment throughout the Merchant Navy—Merchant Navy being the term given to the whole organization (ships, owners, officers and men) engaged in the sea transport of goods and passengers. Together the Shipping Federation and the Employers' Association of the Port of Liverpool form the Merchant Navy Establishment Administration, which makes arrangements for the employment of all officers and ratings not serving continuously with a particular company. The Shipping Federation also operates, under the title of 'National Sea Training Schools', various schools for training deck, engine-room and catering department ratings.

Seafarers' Organizations

Masters and officers are represented by the Mercantile Marine Service Association, the Navigators' and Engineer Officers' Union, the Marine Engineers' Association, the Amalgamated Engineering Union and the Radio Officers' Union, as the case may be. The National Union of Seamen represents the interests of Merchant Navy ratings.

National Maritime Board

The National Maritime Board is composed of representatives of the shipowners' and seafarers' organizations, and is responsible for all negotiations of wages and conditions of service in the Merchant Navy, although, except by special arrangements, National Maritime Board Agreements do not apply to vessels under 200 gross tons or to tugs, salvage vessels, etc.

The Royal National Lifeboat Institution

Lifeboats in the United Kingdom are maintained by the Royal National Lifeboat Institution, which depends entirely for its funds on voluntary subscriptions, and very largely for its administration on voluntary workers.

Local Associations

There are also a number of local associations of shipowners, centred around the main port areas. There are, for example, the *Bristol Steamship Owners' Association*, the *London General Shipowners' Society*, and the *North of England Shipowners' Association*, whose names are self-explanatory. Others are those representing companies engaged in a specialized trade or type of cargo.

International Organization

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 standardization 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.

British tramp shipping, and indeed the tramp shipping of the world, is offered and engaged for charter hire in London's Baltic Exchange where ship brokers and owners meet and arrange contracts for the movement of all types of cargo between any ports in the world.

Relations with the Government

The Government Department chiefly concerned with merchant shipping is the Ministry of Transport and Civil Aviation. In the sphere of safety, it is responsible for such matters as seeing that the load-line, which shows the draught to which a ship may be safely loaded, is correctly indicated; that every ship has adequate life-saving and fire-fighting equipment; and that the necessary standard of safety has been reached in passenger ship construction. It is responsible for the examinations for and the issue of certificates of competency to masters, navigating and engineer officers, deck ratings, and ships' cooks, and regulates such matters as crew accommodation on board ship, scales and quality of provisions, and the carriage of medical stores. It is responsible for running the Mercantile Marine offices at United Kingdom ports at which crews are signed on and for keeping the central registers of shipping and seamen. The Ministry (with other Government Departments) is represented on the Merchant Navy Welfare Board and the Merchant Navy Training Board (see p. 187). It also administers the Coastguard Service. Apart from these administrative functions, the Ministry maintains a close and friendly liaison with the shipping industry on matters of policy and problems relating to imports and exports, and also in relation to special passenger requirements.

Abroad, the Merchant Shipping Acts are administered by H.M. Consuls and by officers of Commonwealth and Colonial Governments.

Ports, Docks and Harbours

There are over 300 ports in the United Kingdom. The bulk of the ocean-going traffic is handled by the 12 largest of these, which are, in order of the shipping tonnage (ocean-going and coastal combined) which passed through them in 1952: London, Southampton, Liverpool, Newcastle upon Tyne, Glasgow, Belfast, Hull, Swansea, Manchester, Bristol, Cardiff and Middlesbrough. The rest deal mainly with coastwise, North Sea and cross-Channel traffic.

Of these 300 ports, those previously owned by the railways are now under national ownership and are administered by the British Transport Commission (see pp. 52 and 189). Important examples are Southampton (docks only), Hull, Swansea, Cardiff and Middlesbrough (docks only).

Others are controlled by a public trust on which are represented users of the port (such as shippers, importers and shipping companies) and other interested parties such as Government Departments and local authorities. Examples are London (controlled by the Port of London Authority¹), Liverpool (Mersey Docks and Harbour Board), Belfast (Belfast Harbour Commissioners) and Glasgow (Clyde Navigation Trust).

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 Acts of Parliament which relate specially to the ports concerned.

There are about 150,000 people employed in the running of British ports. Just under half of these are administrative, clerical and technical staff and pilots, lightermen, customs officials and so on. Over half are the dock workers (formerly and still popularly called 'dockers') who do the physical work of handling cargo.

Ships do not arrive in ports or leave them with any regularity, with the result that there is sometimes too much work for the dock workers available, sometimes too little. Dock

¹For further information on the Port of London Authority, see p. 54.

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 (see p. 53). Workers on these registers now receive a guaranteed minimum wage even when there is not enough work for all of them.

The Principal Ports

London. The Port of London, with 69 miles (111 km.) of waterway and over 4,000 acres (1,619 ha.) of dock estate, is the second largest in the world, handling more tonnage annually than any other except New York. In 1952 over 59 million tons of shipping were handled by the Port of London. This figure and the following tonnage figures are compiled on a double count, i.e. at both the arrival and departure of each vessel.

From the Port of London over 100 shipping companies operate to over 300 overseas ports, and every month more than 700 ships on regular service leave for all parts of 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 with a population of some 11½ million persons.

North-Western Area. Liverpool, which handled over 33 million tons of shipping in 1952, serves the industrial North and is the largest exporting port in the country. Flour imports have made it the second largest milling centre in the world, and tobacco is stored in what is probably the world's largest warehouse. Liverpool is also important for transatlantic passenger traffic and short sea-routes and coastwise trading.

Manchester, with over 8½ million tons of shipping in 1952, is an inland city made into a port by the construction of the Manchester Ship Canal. It is an exporting and importing centre for the industrial Midlands, Lancashire and Yorkshire.

English Channel Area. Most of the Channel ports are primarily for passenger traffic with the Continent. Southampton, however, with nearly 36 million tons of shipping in 1952, is the chief port for ocean passenger traffic. It is used by 32 shipping companies which operate world-wide services. Southampton has no industrial hinterland but owes its importance to its double tides and easy access from the Channel and from London. A considerable volume of oil is now handled for the refinery at Fawley.

North-Eastern Area. Newcastle upon Tyne, with over 16 million tons of shipping in 1952, serves the industrial North-East and is the most important coal-shipping centre and largest ship-repairing port in the country.

Hull, with over 11 million tons of shipping, serves particularly the industrial centres of Yorkshire and the Midlands, while Middlesbrough, with over 7 million tons, imports iron ore for, and exports iron and steel from, the local iron and steel industries.

South-Western Area. The most important group of ports in this area is that which depends on the South Wales coalfield.

Swansea is the largest of this group with a net registered tonnage of over 11 million in 1952. As well as coal, Swansea exports the steel and tinplate manufactured in its immediate neighbourhood, but its rapidly increasing importance derives largely from the oil which it imports and exports for local refineries.

Cardiff, with coal as the chief export, had a shipping tonnage of over 8 million in 1952. Bristol, with a net registered tonnage of over 8½ million in 1952, serves the industrial Midlands as well as the highly industrialized city of Bristol itself, and has also a large coastal trade.

Scotland. Glasgow, the principal Scottish port, with over 13 million tons of shipping in 1952, serves as an entrepôt centre for the industrial area dependent on the Lanarkshire coalfields.

Northern Ireland. Belfast, with nearly 12 million tons of shipping in 1952, is the principal port of Northern Ireland and handles the main Irish Sea traffic.

The Merchant Navy

Strength

The number of masters, officers and men (excluding Asiatic seamen serving on articles of agreement opened in Asia) making up the strength of the British Mercantile Marine in December 1952 was 145,000. The number of Indian, Pakistani and Chinese seamen serving regularly in British ships is of the order of 45,000.

Training

A recognized system of training is maintained by the Merchant Navy Training Board on which are represented shipowners, seafarers' organizations, the Ministry of Education, the Ministry of Transport and Civil Aviation and the nautical schools.

Before a new entrant can join a ship as a deck rating in the United Kingdom he must undergo a course of pre-sea training at an approved sea-training establishment. After twelve months' service at sea and on attaining the age of 18 he can take the qualifying examination for the rating of Able Seaman (AB), and if successful is granted a certificate which enables him to serve as Efficient Deck Hand. If he passes the qualifying examination, holds a Lifeboatman's Certificate and has experience of steering a ship he becomes eligible for a certificate as AB on completion of three years' sea service. He will then be eligible for promotion to the rating of Petty Officer, or after four years' service, may take the examinations qualifying him to become a Navigating Officer.

There are residential and non-residential training establishments for potential navigating officers, some of which rank as public schools. Among the residential establishments are *HMS Conway*,¹ *HMS Worcester*, the Nautical College, Pangbourne, and the School of Navigation at Southampton University. Potential navigating officers serve at sea as apprentices or cadets for four years, though this period may be reduced if they have had pre-sea training.

These schemes are for training officers and ratings who serve on deck. There are also training courses for ships' firemen. Engineer officers are generally required to have served an apprenticeship in engineering workshops ashore, but an alternative scheme of training has 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 18 months' training at sea and finally 12 months' training in an engineering workshop ashore. Radio officers are trained in wireless colleges.

Conditions of Employment and Welfare

Wages and conditions of employment are negotiated by the National Maritime Board (see p. 184). Minimum wages and holidays with pay are guaranteed for both officers and ratings. Moreover, the Merchant Navy Established Service Scheme, introduced by the Board, 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, when they have to wait between jobs.

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, National Insurance, and the Colonial Office, has been responsible since 1948 for the control and co-ordination of the welfare of merchant seamen in this country and of British merchant seamen abroad.

¹When *HMS Conway* went aground and was severely damaged in April 1953, training was continued in temporary quarters ashore.

In the United Kingdom the Board runs 15 Port Welfare Committees and has regional seamen's welfare officers in London, Glasgow, Cardiff, Liverpool and Newcastle. It manages directly a number of Merchant Navy houses and clubs, and many others are run by voluntary societies. In oversea ports the voluntary societies run approximately 300 clubs for British merchant seamen.

INLAND TRANSPORT

All the main-line railways in Great Britain, the ports formerly owned by the railways, all except one of the principal canals, and all long-distance road haulage undertakings were nationalized by the Transport Act of 1947. Air services did not come within the scope of the Act.

The Transport Act established a public corporation, the British Transport Commission, with wide powers, to run the greater part of public transport in Great Britain. To operate the system six executives were appointed¹: (1) the Railway Executive, organized in six regions; (2) the Road Haulage Executive, operating nationalized long-distance road transport in eight divisions; (3) the Road Passenger Executive, a planning and advisory body formed to promote the co-ordination of passenger transport services; (4) the Hotels Executive, to run the railway hotels and catering services; (5) the London Transport Executive, to operate road and rail passenger transport in the London area; and (6) the Docks and Inland Waterways Executive.

The British Act, with certain incidental exceptions, did not, however, extend to Northern Ireland where the position is governed by the Transport Act (Northern Ireland), 1948 (see p. 200).

With the change of Government in 1951, proposals were made for new legislation to amend the Transport Act of 1947, and a new policy for the operation of public transport was announced. It was proposed to introduce some measures of decentralization in the administration of the railways, which, however, were to remain in public ownership, and to return long-distance road haulage to private enterprise.

A Bill embodying the proposed amendments to the Transport Act, 1947, was submitted to Parliament and received the Royal Assent on 6th May 1953. The new Act provided for a reorganization of the operation of the railways under a scheme to be prepared by the Commission and submitted to the Minister of Transport and Civil Aviation (see p. 42) within twelve months. The Railway Executive was to be replaced by newly created area authorities. Both the functions and the composition of the British Transport Commission were modified by the Act and some of the Commission's functions were to be delegated to the area authorities. The approval of both Houses of Parliament was required before the scheme could come into effect.

The Act also repealed the provisions of the Transport Act, 1947, relating to the compulsory acquisition by the British Transport Commission of road haulage undertakings, and required it to dispose of its road haulage undertaking carried on by the Road Haulage Executive. The Commission may, however, with the consent of the Minister of Transport and Civil Aviation, retain a proportion of its Road Haulage Executive property, equivalent broadly to the interest the railways held in road haulage before nationalization, by making it over to companies controlled by the Commission. The Minister has appointed a six-member Disposal Board to supervise the disposal of the road haulage undertaking of the Road Haulage Executive, and from 1st October 1953 the Executive's former activities are being carried on, pending disposal, by a board of management as an undertaking entitled the British Road Services. This board will continue to manage such road haulage interests as are retained by the British Transport Commission. The other Executives, with the exception of the London Transport Executive, were also abolished as from 1st

¹The Road Passenger Executive was abolished in October 1952, and the other Executives, with the exception of the London Transport Executive, were abolished as from 1st October 1953.

October 1953. The Docks and Inland Waterways Executive was replaced by a Board of Management and the Hotels Executive by a Hotels and Catering Services Committee to be known as British Hotels and Catering Services. So far as the railways are concerned, interim arrangements pending their reorganization leave the regions unchanged but give wider powers to the Chief Regional Officers who are now known as Chief Regional Managers. Each of the latter is responsible for all railway activities—commercial operating and technical—in his region, and reports directly to the Transport Commission.

The following is a summary of the inland transport position as it was at the time the 1953 Transport Act became law, but before any of its provisions had been implemented.

The British Transport Commission

The British Transport Commission consisted of a chairman, a deputy chairman, three full-time and three part-time members¹ appointed by the Minister of Transport and Civil Aviation.

The entire railway system of the country passed into the control of the Commission on 1st January 1948, together with the formerly railway-owned docks, waterways and canals. From that date it also began to acquire, either through voluntary sale or compulsory acquisition, road haulage undertakings engaged predominantly in long-distance traffic with the exception of traders carrying their own goods in their own vehicles. After 1st February 1950 private road hauliers could not transport goods outside a 25-mile radius of their base without permits from the Road Haulage Executive. About one-fifth of the country's road passenger transport outside London came under the control of the Commission; part was inherited from the former railway companies and part newly acquired. The Commission was empowered to prepare area schemes for the co-ordination of passenger services (road and rail). The London Passenger Transport Board, controlling all passenger services in the London area with the exception of the suburban services of the main-line railways, was also vested in the Commission.

The Commission, though the largest single transport undertaking in the country, has not possessed the complete transport monopoly that is often supposed. The whole of short-distance road haulage was outside its direction, as were the greater part of road passenger transport services outside London, several waterways and the majority of the country's docks. The C-licence road haulier (the manufacturer or trader carrying nothing but his own goods) was also free to operate at any distance, and there were over 800,000 C-licensed vehicles.

The work of the Commission, which in 1952 involved the employment of over 888,000 people and the gross receipt of over £620 million, was delegated to the Executives (see p. 188), each consisting of a chairman and a varying number of members, and each responsible for the day-to-day management of a different part of the inland transport system.

Consultative Committees

As in other nationalized industries, committees representing consumer interests were set up. Their object is to protect users of the nationalized transport services and to give them an opportunity of putting forward criticism and constructive suggestions for the improvement of the services. Members of these transport users' consultative committees are appointed by the Minister of Transport and Civil Aviation after consultation with the interests concerned, to represent commerce, industry, labour and local authorities, with an independent chairman and representatives of the British Transport Commission. There is a Central Transport Consultative Committee and eleven area committees covering the whole of Great Britain.

¹The maximum number is increased by the 1953 Act to 14 members besides the chairman, all of whom may be part-time members.

Railways

Britain, pioneer of the industrial revolution, was also the first country to develop the railways which were essential for transporting goods to and from the industrial centres. Nor were the benefits of this development confined to Britain. British locomotives were exported to America and Russia as early as 1829 and 1836, and since then, British rolling-stock and locomotives, retaining their pre-eminence, have been exported to every country in the world.

In 1825 the Stockton and Darlington Railway was opened and for the first time goods were drawn by a steam-engine on a public railway. Passengers were horse-drawn and no doubt felt safer. In 1829 Stephenson's Rocket won a prize of £500 and 'filled the breasts of thousands with lively fears for the safety of the individuals who were on it' by reaching a speed of 30 miles an hour. The fears soon died down and, after a short period during which the country went 'railway-mad' and new railway companies were being formed every day, Britain settled down to expanding its railway system steadily under the pressure of competition between independent companies.

Competition was responsible not only for the growth of the railway network but for high standards of speed and of comfort for passengers. There were sleeping-cars by 1873, dining-cars by 1879, and corridor trains by 1892. Expresses reached an average of 50 miles (80 km.) an hour and by 1904 the *City of Truro* touched a speed of 102 miles (164 km.) an hour. In 1938 the *Mallard* set up the world's speed record for a steam locomotive, which it still holds, by reaching a speed of 126 miles (203 km.) an hour.

During the nineteenth century and the early part of the present century the railways had virtually a monopoly in inland transport. Within the railway system there was keen competition, but the general trend was towards unification. By 1920, out of the 1,000 railway companies originally promoted, only 200 remained, and in that year the Railways Act merged 120 companies into four main groups.

But immediately after the first world war, and while the railways were still recovering from the effects of it, their security was challenged by the rapid development of road transport. The Traffic Acts of 1930 and 1933, regulating commercial road transport, afforded some protection, but the loss of traffic from rail to road continued. In an effort to recover traffic, the railways in 1938 put forward their 'Square Deal' proposals, calling for relief from all statutory regulation of charges, and freedom to decide for themselves the rates for merchandise carried. The campaign was cut short by the outbreak of the second world war when, as in the first world war, the Government took control of the railways under an arrangement which guaranteed the companies and London Transport a fixed sum of £43½ million a year. Nationalization followed at the end of 1947.

Operations and Facilities

Britain has more railways per square mile than any country in the world, except Belgium, and British railways are now the busiest in the world. They run 40,000 passenger and goods trains daily, carrying nearly three million passengers a day and about three-quarters of a million tons of freight each weekday.

The Railway Executive

Responsibility for administering, maintaining and operating the British Railways was delegated by the Transport Commission to the Railway Executive, which also managed and operated the packet ports, such as Harwich, Folkestone and Holyhead (the points of connection between the British railway system and the systems on the continent of Europe and in Ireland), together with the connecting shipping services (see map pp. 192-3). The Executive consisted of a chairman, four full-time and three part-time members, all appointed by the Minister of Transport and Civil Aviation after consultation with the British Transport Commission.

Each member of the Executive, apart from being jointly responsible for the smooth running of the system, had a special departmental responsibility. The railways were organized on a regional basis. There were six regions: London Midland, Western, Southern, Eastern, North Eastern, and Scottish.

In each region there was a chief regional officer, responsible to the Executive but with considerable independent authority. His own officers had their special functions, as had the members of the central Executive, and each was responsible to his opposite number in the Executive.

SUMMARY OF OPERATIONS OF BRITISH RAILWAYS AT END-1952

| | |
|---|--------------|
| Total track miles (standard gauge) | 51,703 |
| Route miles (standard gauge, including 924 miles electric) | 19,276 |
| Bridges (of which the longest is Tay Bridge, 2½ miles) | 63,104 |
| Locomotives, <i>total number</i> | 19,149 |
| of which: steam, British Railways | 18,859 |
| electric, diesel, gas turbine and petrol, | |
| British Railways | 274 |
| London Transport Railways | 16 |
| Carriages, <i>total number</i> | 45,969 |
| of which: electric motor vehicles | 2,134 |
| diesel railcars | 36 |
| seating capacity, steam | 2,098,446 |
| seating capacity, electric | 350,241 |
| Restaurant and buffet cars | 700 |
| seating | 24,519 |
| Sleeping cars | 440 |
| berths | 8,437 |
| Wagons, <i>total number</i> , including brake vans | 1,120,118 |
| Staff, <i>total number</i> | 601,381 |
| Receipts (year 1952), <i>total</i> | £403,357,882 |
| Expenditure (year 1952), <i>total</i> | £363,756,185 |
| Total freight carried (year 1952) revenue earning, <i>tons</i> .. | 284,916,000 |
| Originating passenger journeys (year 1952) | 988,997,000 |

Ordinary single fare in mid-1953 was 1¼d. a mile third class; first class is 50 per cent above third class, and ordinary return fare is double the single fare. There is no second class in Britain except on certain trains connecting with Continental services.

The Hotels Executive

Responsibility for railway hotels, refreshment rooms and restaurants and the service of meals and refreshments on trains was taken over in 1948 by the Hotels Executive, which consisted of a chairman and two full-time members.

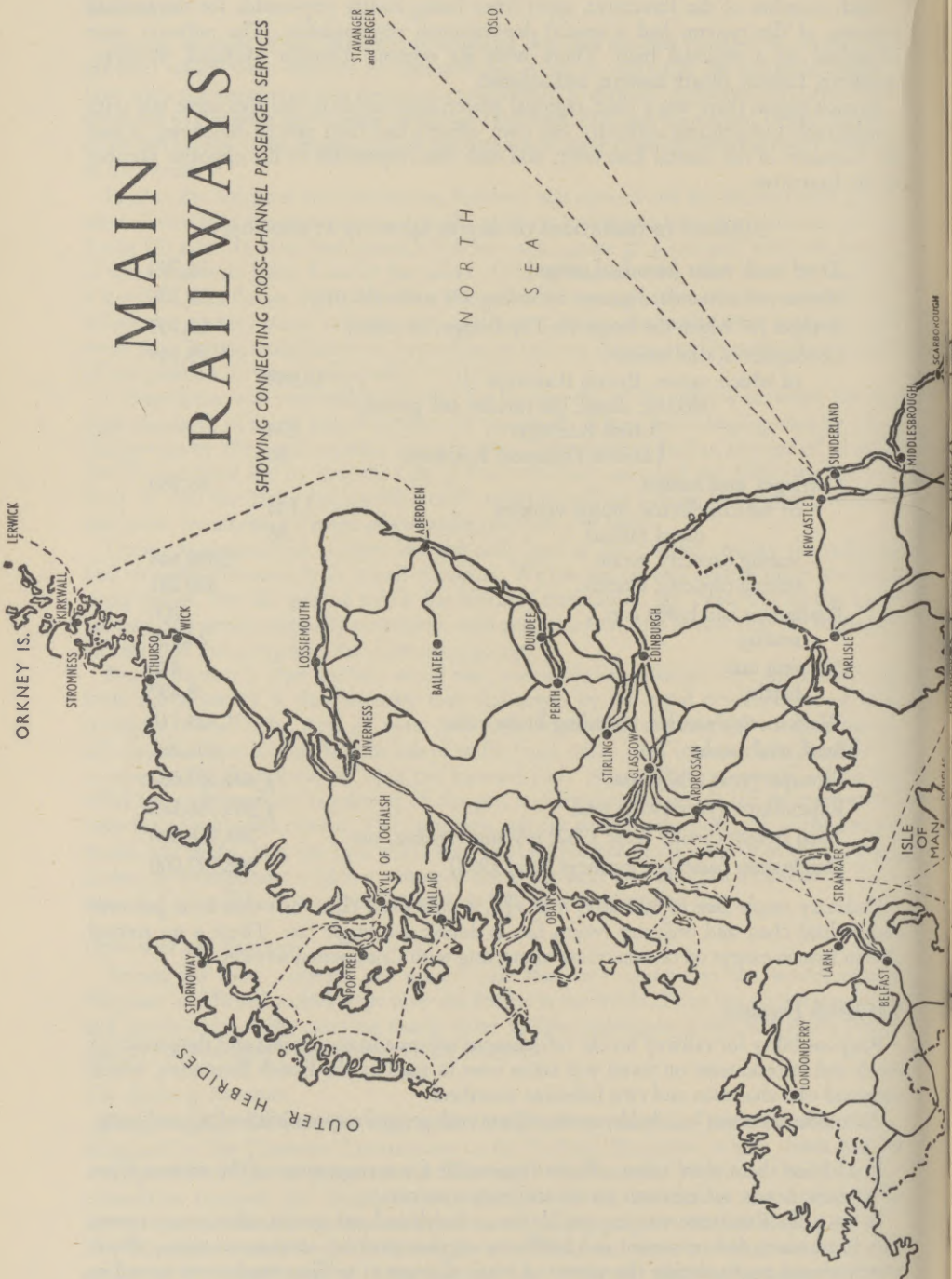
Administration was handled by seven officers with general responsibilities for purchasing, finance, etc.

In addition there were other officers responsible for management of the various types of services; hotels, refreshment rooms and restaurant cars.

In 1952, the Executive was responsible for 42 hotels and 398 station refreshment rooms and, in summer, 628 restaurant and buffet car regular weekday services on trains, which were reduced to 463 during the winter. A total of about 11 million meals were served in restaurant cars during the year. The total number of staff employed was 15,326.

MAIN RAILWAYS

SHOWING CONNECTING CROSS-CHANNEL PASSENGER SERVICES



Roads

Britain has more miles of metalled road, in proportion to its size, than any other country in the world. For every square mile of territory there are over two miles of road, making a total of 185,523 miles (298,570 km.) of public highway in 1952.

The network of British roads is distinguished not only by its extensiveness but also by its haphazard nature. This characteristic has its roots in history. For their own purposes, which were chiefly military, the Romans who occupied Britain built their great roads straight. But after their departure these roads were neglected. For long-distance transport there were alternative routes by sea, by the navigable rivers, and later by the canals, and roads were built from town to town and village to village to serve local needs. The upkeep of roads was mainly the concern of the parish, but the Government intervened at various times with a view to stimulating improvement. Its most effective intervention was to institute turnpike trusts. The maintenance of a length of main road was placed in the hands of a trust, made up of private individuals, empowered to levy tolls at the toll gates erected at the limits of its jurisdiction. Early in the nineteenth century there were over 1,000 of these trusts administering some 22,000 miles of road. The last surviving trust came to an end in 1875. The early nineteenth century was also notable for the work done by Telford and McAdam in improving road construction. Then the development of railways intervened and served to meet, for the time being, the growing demand for better communications.

The development of the internal combustion engine and the rapid growth in the number of motor cars created a new situation which influenced the Government in 1909 to set up a Road Board to assist in the provision of new and improved roads to meet the needs of the increased traffic. The Board functioned until 1919, when its responsibilities were taken over by the newly created Ministry of Transport.

For the administration of Government financial assistance, roads are divided into trunk roads, Class I, II and III roads, and unclassified roads. Trunk roads are the principal arteries of national communication and the cost of their maintenance and improvement is met from the Road Fund, administered by the Minister of Transport and Civil Aviation, who is the highway authority for these roads. Grants from the Road Fund are made towards approved expenditure on classified roads—75 per cent on Class I roads, 60 per cent on Class II roads and 50 per cent on Class III roads, though the responsibility for these roads rests with certain local authorities, as does the responsibility and the whole cost of unclassified roads. On maps and signposts the trunk and Class I roads can mostly be identified by the letter 'A' in front of the route number; similarly the route numbers of Class II roads bear the prefix letter 'B'. Of the total 185,523 miles of road, 8,248 are trunk, 19,563 are Class I, 17,691 are Class II, 48,678 are Class III, and 91,343 are unclassified.

Between the two wars the Ministry and local highway authorities started a large-scale programme of road improvement. They built new bridges and new arterial roads and by-passes, many of them with dual carriageways and cycle tracks. Old roads were straightened and widened.

In 1939 the programme had to be suspended, but in 1946 the Minister of Transport announced the start of a ten-year plan for highway improvement and development.

A Special Roads Act was passed in May 1949 authorizing the provision of roads reserved for special classes of traffic. Since then the country's economic position has made the expenditure of funds upon the construction of motorways impossible but the planning of these roads is proceeding.

As well as having more metalled roads, in proportion to its size, than any other country, Britain has greater density of traffic on the roads. At the end of 1952 there were nearly 25 motor vehicles for every mile of road.

It is not surprising, therefore, that there are many road accidents. In 1952, 4,705 people

were killed and 203,436 injured on British roads. In the first six months of 1953, road casualties numbered 103,279 (as compared with 95,157 in the first six months of 1952); this total included 2,274 persons killed (as compared with 2,090 killed in the first six months of 1952).

To combat this, road safety committees have been set up in every town and county, and vigorous local campaigns are being conducted with the aid of grants from the Ministry of Transport and Civil Aviation. Prominent in this work are the Royal Society for the Prevention of Accidents, the police, and local education authorities. The system of pedestrian crossings has been revised, the main features of the new system being a big reduction in the number of crossings and a more conspicuous marking in the form of white stripes, known as 'zebra' crossings, illuminated by flashing beacons. It is hoped that these changes, combined with a simplification of the regulations, will result in the crossings being more carefully respected by drivers and more widely used by pedestrians.

The Road Haulage Executive

Long-distance haulage of goods by road was nationalized by the Transport Act, 1947, and was administered by the Road Haulage Executive (consisting of a chairman, four full-time and two part-time members), which virtually completed acquisition of the long-distance road haulage undertakings in the country by the end of November 1951. In addition, the Executive had taken over a number of undertakings by voluntary agreement, and also the road haulage companies previously owned by the former railway companies.

The administration was highly decentralized and organized as follows. First, the country was divided into eight geographical divisions and the operation of road haulage in the division was the general responsibility of the divisional manager. Each division was then divided into three to five districts, under a district manager. Districts were divided into five to ten groups under a group manager who controlled about 125 vehicles. In each group there were a varying number of depots.

In addition to the eight geographical divisions there was one functional 'special traffics' division which handled certain types of freight over the whole country.

At the end of 1952 the Road Haulage Executive had acquired 3,774 undertakings and was employing 72,579 people and operating 39,320 motor vehicles and 654 horse-drawn vehicles.

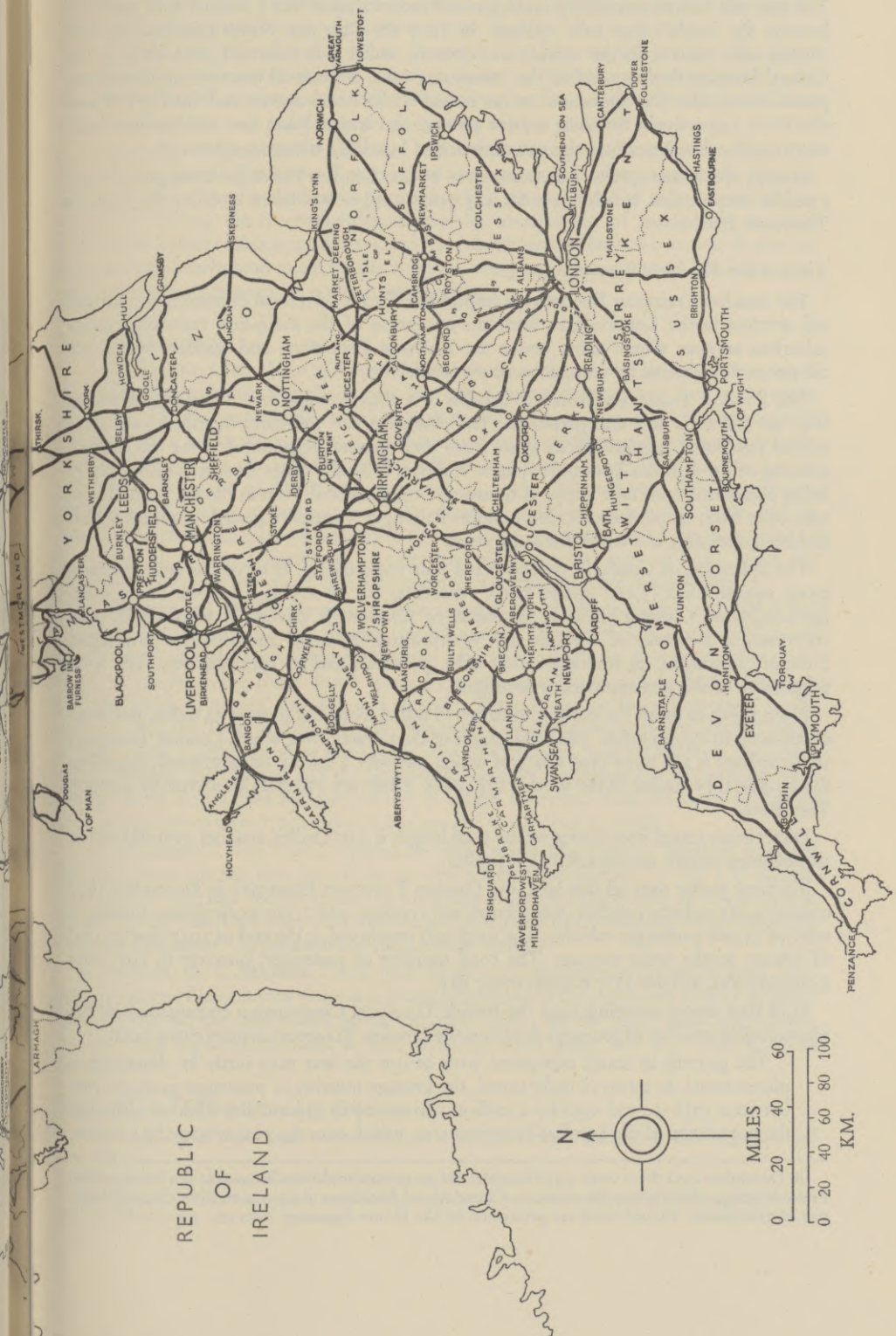
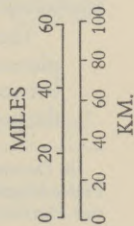
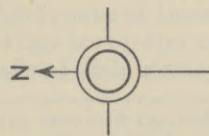
The Road Passenger Executive

The British Transport Commission had secured control of a number of road passenger transport companies (by the purchase of the shares), operating some 14,000 vehicles, or about one-fifth of the total number operated outside London. The main task of the Road Passenger Executive, however, was concerned with the preparation of area schemes for the co-ordination of passenger services (both road and rail). Three such schemes were prepared or proposed, but they were not proceeded with, and the Executive was abolished in October 1952. (The powers of the Commission to prepare area schemes have been revoked by the 1953 Act.)

London Transport

London's transport system, in its modern sense, may be said to have begun when in 1829, four years after the opening of the Stockton and Darlington Railway, the first omnibus—horse-drawn—appeared on the London streets. Trams—also horse-drawn—appeared in 1861. 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 a better method for building a railway inside a city was found when the Tower Subway was constructed.

REPUBLIC
OF
IRELAND



The line was laid in an entirely underground tunnel shaped like a hollow tube and thus became the world's first tube railway. In 1890 the City and South London, the first electric tube railway in the world, was opened, and it was followed soon after by the Central London Railway, called the 'twopenny tube' because all journeys on it cost two pence. Soon after this buses and trams ceased to be horse-drawn and used petrol and electricity respectively for their motive power, and trams, buses and underground railways rapidly developed into the vast network of London's transport system.

In 1933 the whole system was taken over by the London Passenger Transport Board, a public corporation which ran it for 14½ years until it was taken over by the London Transport Executive.

The London Transport Executive

The London Transport Executive is responsible for the operation of passenger road and rail services in the London area with the exception of the main-line railways, certain suburban services which came under the Railway Executive, and taxicabs which are all privately operated by companies or owner-drivers.¹

The London Transport Executive consists of a chairman and five members, of whom four are full-time and one part-time. The chairman and full-time members each have special functional responsibilities apart from their general responsibility for the smooth running of the London Transport system. It differs from the other Executives not only in being concerned with two forms of transport—road and rail—but in having been able to take over from its predecessor, the London Passenger Transport Board, a system which had been operating as a whole for some years.

The operation of London's transport is a vast undertaking. It serves an area of nearly 2,000 square miles (5,180 square km.), extending for an average distance of 25 miles (40 km.) from Charing Cross in the centre of London. It covers, in whole or in part, 10 counties, the cities of London and Westminster, 27 other metropolitan boroughs, 2 county boroughs, 49 municipal boroughs, 59 urban and 29 rural districts. The total population of the area approaches 10 million.

From north to south the railway stretches 18 miles, from east to west 32 miles, and from north-west to east 49 miles. The total length of the railway over which London Transport trains operate is 248 miles (399 km.), of which just over a third is underground, including the longest tube tunnel in the world, 17¼ miles. There are 277 stations served by London Transport.

Diesel buses travel over routes whose total length is 2,975 miles, coaches over 665 miles, trolleybuses (which use electricity) 253 miles.

To carry traffic over all this area, the London Transport Executive in December 1952 owned 4,085 railway coaches, 8,213 buses and coaches, and 1,770 trolleybuses, making a total of 14,068 passenger vehicles. The total staff employed at the end of 1952 was 97,132, of whom 10,283 were women. The total number of passenger journeys in 1952 was 4,295,285,000, or over 11·7 million every day.

In its first report covering 1948 the British Transport Commission commented on the astronomical number of journeys made on the London Transport system every year:

The growth in travel compared with before the war may justly be described as phenomenal. In terms of daily travel, the average number of passenger journeys rose between 1938-39 and 1948 by 2 million—from 10½ to 12½ million. This . . . although the population of the London Transport area, which over the year averaged 9,620,000,

¹In December 1952 there were 5,436 taxicabs and 9,134 taxicab drivers licensed in the Metropolitan Police District, which covers the counties of London and Middlesex and parts of Kent, Surrey, Essex and Hertfordshire. Taxicab fares are prescribed by the Home Secretary.

was still below the pre-war figure of 9,888,000. In fact, rides per head of the population have increased by 23·5 per cent to 479 in 1948.¹

People not only travelled more frequently but also on the average for longer distances, with the result that passenger miles, which take into account both the numbers of passengers and the miles they travel, rose from 898 per head of population in 1938-39 to 1,342 miles in 1948, an increase of 49·4 per cent.²

To meet this challenge to the efficiency of London Transport, plans have been put forward by the British Transport Commission for extensive developments in the London railway system. These would cost approximately £340 million and take 20-30 years to complete. Among the recommendations are the construction of new tubes, the electrification of steam suburban railways and the substitution of buses for trams. A start on this plan has already been made by the removal, completed in 1952, of all London trams, and by some extensions to the underground railways.

Inland Waterways

Canals, by providing cheap and easy, if slow, transport for goods, played a great part in the industrial revolution. But their great days lasted only about 70 years, from 1761 when the Duke of Bridgewater built a canal to carry coal from his collieries to Manchester, until the end of the 1830s when railway competition destroyed the canals' monopoly. From then on (except for the building of the Manchester Ship Canal) their history has, in peace time, been one of declining importance. In 1909, 1921 and 1931 the Government issued reports urging co-ordination of the canals in the form of a public trust, but no trust was formed and (although by 1947 about a third had come under the ownership of the railways) a large measure of co-operation was achieved only in 1948 when the Transport Act came into force and the majority of the canals were nationalized.

In England and Wales the main inland waterways stretch from the estuary of the Humber (in the north-east), Mersey (north-west), Thames (south-east) and Severn (south-west) and converge on the industrial Midlands, which are thus served by a network of canals giving them direct access by water to some of the country's principal seaports (Hull, Liverpool, London and Bristol). There is also an important route which runs between the Trent and the Mersey. Among the well-known names of English canals are the Grand Union, the Aire and Calder, the Sheffield and South Yorkshire, the Leeds and Liverpool, the Oxford and the Shropshire Union Canals, and the Manchester Ship Canal, which is in a class by itself, less of an inland waterway than the entry to a great port. In 1952 there were 1,752 miles (2,820 km.) of canals open to traffic.

The Manchester Ship Canal, opened in 1894, made Manchester, which is 35 miles (56 km.) from the sea, into one of the greatest ports in the country. It cost £17 million to construct and can accommodate ocean-going ships of 12,000 tons. It has not been taken over by the Transport Commission and is owned by a company over which the City of Manchester Corporation has considerable control.

In Scotland, the Caledonian Canal, built by the Government and opened in 1822, provides 60 miles of continuous waterway joining Inverness in the north-east to Fort William in the west, and can take vessels up to 500 tons. Others are the Forth and Clyde Canal, which bisects Scotland from east to west at its narrowest point, and the Crinan Canal in Argyllshire.

The Docks and Inland Waterways Executive

The majority of the canals were taken over by the British Transport Commission and

¹The number of rides per head of population in 1952 was 436.

²This figure has decreased yearly since 1948, and in 1952 was 1,202 miles, which still represented an increase of 33·9 per cent over 1938-39.

have been operated and administered by the Docks and Inland Waterways Executive, which consisted of a chairman and two full-time members.

For the purposes of operation the Executive divided the canal-system into four divisions, apart from Scotland (the Scottish canals being administered separately): (1) North-Eastern, based on the Humber estuary; (2) North-Western, based on the Mersey estuary; (3) South-Eastern, based on the Thames estuary; (4) South-Western, based on the Severn estuary.

The Executive decentralized administration as far as possible, and the divisional waterways officer in each case was given wide powers in the management of local business.

At the end of 1952 the Executive was employing 4,795 staff in connection with its inland waterways, and operated 1,243 carrying craft, which, with the craft of many independent operators, carried 12,442,000 tons of traffic during the year.

The Executive also administered the small docks which used to belong to canal companies and the docks which used to belong to the railways and which were nationalized by the Transport Act, 1947. The only exceptions were those which were mainly interchange points between railways and railway-owned steamer services which were administered by the Railway Executive (see p. 190).

Altogether the Executive controlled over 40 major ex-railway-owned docks. Here again they adopted a policy of decentralization and much responsibility was left to the docks managers who worked under the Executive.

The general policy has been to carry out as much maintenance and improvement work as possible, so as to ensure quick turn-round in the ports, within the limits of the capital investment expenditure available. To this end, Port Advisory Committees representing labour and shipping and trading interests have been set up in a number of ports and attention is being paid to increased mechanical handling of cargo.

At the end of 1952 the Executive was employing 20,816 people on the docks under its control. Over 68 million tons of import and export cargo were handled during 1952 at all the British Transport Commission docks, including those operated by the Railway Executive.

The Ulster Transport Authority

Public inland transport in Northern Ireland, with the exception of passenger transport in the City of Belfast, a section of the railway system previously owned by the Great Northern Railway Company (Ireland), and some small rail and road transport undertakings, is owned and controlled by the Ulster Transport Authority established under the Transport Act (Northern Ireland), 1948. The railway system formerly operated by the Great Northern Railway Company (Ireland) has passed to a public body called the Great Northern Railway Board, established on 1st September 1953 by the Northern Ireland and Republic of Ireland Governments.

Before the 1948 Act was passed, all the railways in Northern Ireland were separately owned and, from 1935, road transport (except for passenger transport in Belfast City and certain types of specialized and ancillary freight haulage) was under the control of the Northern Ireland Road Transport Board, a public undertaking formed to provide public transport services by road and to co-ordinate these services with those of the railways. Now the Ulster Transport Authority operates all the road services formerly provided by the Northern Ireland Road Transport Board, together with the railway services provided before 1949 by the Northern Counties Committee of the British Railways Executive and by the Belfast and County Down Railway Company.

When the railway undertaking of the Northern Counties Committee was acquired by the Ulster Transport Authority from the British Transport Commission in 1949 it was agreed that each of the parties should co-operate with the other to 'foster and encourage

by all means in their power traffic and intercourse between Great Britain on the one hand and Northern Ireland on the other and to . . . maintain the principles of through rates and fares and facilities as between places in Great Britain and places in Northern Ireland'.

The Ulster Transport Authority is a less complex organization than the British Transport Commission and has no subsidiary Executives. The following figures for the year ended September 1952 show the scope of its operations:

| | | |
|---|-------|--|
| Railway track mileage | | 301 miles, broad gauge 15 miles, narrow gauge |
| Road route mileage | | 2,600 miles |
| Locomotives | | 92 |
| Railway coaching vehicles | | 466 |
| Railway freight vehicles | | 2,644 |
| Omnibuses and coaches | | 1,054 |
| Goods motor vehicles | | 1,193 |
| Employees | | 9,623 |
| Passengers carried during year | .. | 107,376,774 |
| Merchandise carried during year | .. | 1,940,180 tons |
| Livestock carried during year | .. | 1,020,636 head |
| Number of transport stations and depots | | 155 |
| Hotels | | 5 |

CIVIL AVIATION

The Ministry of Civil Aviation was set up, in 1945, to form and direct policy for the general development of British civil aviation, to plan British air services in consultation with the Corporations, and to look after the interests of private and charter flying by British companies. The Ministry has delegated the supervision of design, development and production of British civil aircraft to the Ministry of Supply, which is responsible for the provision of all Service aircraft and carries an extensive programme of research and development to meet civil and Service needs.

From November 1951 the two offices of Minister of Transport and Minister of Civil Aviation were held by the same Minister, and in October 1953 the two Ministries were amalgamated to form the Ministry of Transport and Civil Aviation. The Ministry has two Parliamentary Secretaries, one to deal with transport matters and one with civil aviation.

The Corporations

The Civil Aviation Act, 1946, aimed at securing the development of air transport services by Corporations operating under public control and subject to the general direction of the Minister of Civil Aviation. The Act reserved to three State-owned Corporations (British Overseas Airways Corporation, British European Airways and British South American Airways) and their agents and associates the right to carry passengers and goods for hire and reward upon scheduled journeys between any two places, at least one of which is in the United Kingdom. Scheduled journeys were defined in the Act as a series of journeys which constitute a systematic service and whose benefits are available to members of the general public. Charter flying was not reserved to the Corporations.

The practice of using 'chosen instruments' to operate the civil air services under Government supervision was adopted in 1924 when a company called 'Imperial Airways' was established using funds voted by Parliament for the development of Empire air com-

munications. In collaboration with the Royal Air Force, Imperial Airways developed and operated the first long-distance air routes in the world, to Africa, Australia and Asia, and inaugurated some of the earliest transatlantic services. Only minor attention was given to the development of European air services. But in 1935 British Airways Limited, an amalgamation of four independent companies, was formed and received Government support as a supplementary 'chosen instrument' for this purpose. In 1939 Imperial Airways and British Airways were amalgamated into BOAC (British Overseas Airways Corporation), the first public corporation in the field of civil aviation. During the second world war, the Corporation, under the direction of the Air Ministry, maintained and developed the pattern of inter-Commonwealth and inter-Allied air communications in close association with Transport Command of the Royal Air Force. At the end of the war two new corporations were formed: British European Airways Corporation, which had formerly been the European division of BOAC, was given the responsibility for operating the European services and internal services within the United Kingdom; and BSAAC (British South American Airways Corporation) took over the routes to South America until, in 1949, it was merged into BOAC.

The Air Transport Advisory Council was constituted as an independent body to consider representations from the public about the adequacy of the Corporations' air services and their charges, and questions concerning air transport referred to it by the Minister. The Council can make recommendations on these matters to the Minister.

Three advisory councils for the purpose of securing the efficient discharge of the Corporations' functions, with due regard to the circumstances and requirements of particular areas, have been appointed by British European Airways, for Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. These councils have the right of direct access to the Minister.

Initially the three Corporations enjoyed a virtual monopoly of United Kingdom scheduled services, but in 1948 arrangements were introduced which enabled independent companies to operate a few scheduled services, outside the Corporations' spheres of interest, under associate agreement with one of the Corporations.

The change in Government policy on civil air transport services and operators as announced in 1952 expressed the Government's intention not to impair the competitive strength of the two Airways Corporations (BOAC and BEA) in operating the services on their established external networks, but to give independent companies, through an extension of the associate agreement scheme, more scope and opportunity for participation in scheduled services without increasing the cost of air transport to the taxpayer.

The Boards of Directors of the two Corporations are appointed by and are responsible to the Minister of Transport and Civil Aviation. They are required to carry out any direction of a general character and related to matters of national interest issued to them by the Minister. The Minister does not, however, interfere with day-to-day management, and the Corporations are accorded the maximum freedom in conducting their internal affairs consistent with Government policy and with the Minister's responsibility to Parliament. Their annual reports and statements of accounts are laid before Parliament by the Minister.

The Corporations obtain the capital they need by the issue of stock or, pending this, by raising temporary loans. Their borrowings are guaranteed by the Treasury. To assist the Corporations in the task of developing and bringing up to date their services in the post-war period and to help them to run certain commercially unattractive services desirable in the public interest, the Civil Aviation Act provided for grants to them from public funds during the first ten years (until 1956). The maximum for such grants was fixed at £10 million for the year 1947-48 and £8 million for subsequent years. The grants for each year are determined by the Minister of Transport and Civil Aviation and the Treasury after consideration of a programme of services and financial estimates submitted by the Cor-

porations. The combined results of the Corporations show deficits in recent financial years, ended 31st March, as follows: £10.6 million in 1949; £9.2 million in 1950; £5.5 million in 1951; £1.1 million in 1952; and £2.3 million in 1953. At 31st March 1953 grants paid to BOAC and BEA since 1946 totalled £36.8 million.

The Corporations' fares and rates for the carriage of freight are fixed in common with those of all other scheduled airlines (outside the Russian orbit) by international agreement secured through the International Air Transport Association (IATA). The fares so agreed are subject to the approval of the Governments concerned.

British Overseas Airways Corporation

British Overseas Airways Corporation (BOAC) operates routes eastwards from the United Kingdom across Europe and the Mediterranean serving the Middle East, North, West, Central, South and East Africa, the Persian Gulf, Pakistan, India, Ceylon, Burma, Thailand, Malaya, Hong Kong, Japan, Indonesia and Australia. The routes to Central and South Africa are operated in partnership with Central African Airways and South African Airways, and to Australia in partnership with Qantas Empire Airways. Westwards, BOAC operates services to Canada and the United States, to the Caribbean and to South America. In May 1952 it introduced the world's first jet airliner passenger service with the de Havilland *Comet*, between London and Johannesburg, South Africa, followed by services between London and Colombo, Ceylon, in August, and between London and Singapore in October. In April 1953 a fourth jet airliner service was introduced between London and Japan (Tokyo), a 10,000-mile journey, with a flying time of 28½ hours (36 hours total journey time). Unduplicated BOAC route mileage is 84,875 (31st March 1953), over which it operates between 65 and 70 services a week, with an average stage length of over 1,000 miles. BOAC plans to start a *Comet II* service to South America early in 1954.

BOAC's operationally effective fleet in August 1953 consisted of seven *Comets* (four jet-engines), and the following piston-engined airliners: 9 *Hermes*, 22 *Argonauts*, 6 *Yorks* (on freighter service), 12 Lockheed *Constellations* (United States) and 10 Boeing *Stratocruisers* (United States). Twelve Series II *Comets* and 26 Bristol 175s were on order, with options on 10 Series III *Comets* and a further 10 Bristol 175s.

BOAC's *Comet*, *Argonaut*, *Hermes* and *York* fleets are based on London airport, which is the operating terminal for all BOAC services to and from the United Kingdom; the *Stratocruiser* and *Constellation* fleets are based on Filton (Bristol).

BOAC's issued capital, in 2½ per cent and 3 per cent stock guaranteed by the Treasury, was £33.2 million net at 31st March 1953. The Corporation's wholly-owned subsidiaries include Aden Airways Ltd., Bahamas Airways Ltd., and British West Indian Airways, and its partly-owned subsidiaries, in which it has over 50 per cent interest, include Gulf Aviation (Bahrein) Ltd. and International Aeradio Ltd.

BOAC is also associated with British Commonwealth Pacific Airlines (formed by the Governments of Australia, New Zealand and the United Kingdom¹ to operate a Commonwealth trans-Pacific service linking Australia and New Zealand with the United States and Canada), with Tasman Empire Airways (formed by the Governments of New Zealand, Australia and the United Kingdom primarily to operate services across the Tasman Sea)², and with Cyprus Airways, East African Airways Corporation, West

¹Holdings of the Company are: 50 per cent Australia, 30 per cent New Zealand, 20 per cent United Kingdom.

²Holdings of the Company are: 50 per cent New Zealand, 30 per cent Australia, 20 per cent United Kingdom.

African Airways Corporation, Egyptian Aircraft Engineering Company, Iraqi Airways, and Malayan Airways.

For the first time in any financial year BOAC made in the year ended 31st March 1952 a clear overall surplus (£275,000) in the year's operations, an improvement of over £4.75 million on the results in 1951. Before charging fixed interest on Airways stock (amounting to nearly £1 million) the profit amounted to £1.2 million.

In 1952-53 this profit fell to £103,875 and, after providing for interest, there was a deficiency of £838,664. This was due mainly to rising costs, operating costs in pence per capacity-ton-mile rising to 40.1 from 38.8 the previous year, and the break-even load factor (the proportion of aircraft space it is necessary to sell in order to cover all costs) rising from 65 to 66 per cent compared with load factors achieved of 65.7 and 64.5 per cent. Revenue for 1952-53 was £36.1 million compared with £33.5 million in 1951-52: the number of passengers increased from 250,173 to 290,629, freight revenue increased from £2.7 million to £2.9 million, mail revenue fell from £8.7 million to £8.4 million, and the volume of traffic in ton-miles increased from over 122 million to over 133 million.

The safety record of BOAC has been well maintained; during the three years from 1st January 1950 to 31st December 1952 just over 2,000 million passenger-miles were operated without a single accident involving serious injury to passengers. In the following year, immediately after the Corporation had completed the first year of commercial jet aircraft passenger service, a BOAC *Comet*, westbound from Singapore, crashed during a storm in India, on 2nd May 1953, with a loss of 43 lives. The Corporation's *Comet* services had then flown more than 100 million passenger-miles and had carried 28,000 fare-paying passengers without a previous fatal accident.

BOAC envisages the maintenance of its round-the-world routes, in close co-operation with Commonwealth airlines, by operating high-speed first-class services with the de Havilland *Comet*, and slower tourist services with the Bristol *Britannia*. The expansion of tourist services which has been a feature of recent civil aviation development has been extended to a number of BOAC's services. In May 1952 BOAC was one of eleven airline operators which, following an agreement reached through the IATA, introduced tourist services at reduced fares over the North Atlantic routes, with *Constellations*, operating at first four services a week, increased within a year to eleven a week. These tourist services are now available to all points served by BOAC in North America, Africa, the Middle East, India, Pakistan, Ceylon, to many points in the Caribbean and to Hong Kong and Singapore, representing more than 60 per cent of all points served by standard services.

Headquarters of BOAC are at Airways House, Brentford, Middlesex. The London terminal for passengers is at Airways Terminal, London, S.W.1.

British European Airways

British European Airways (BEA) is the seventh largest airline in the world in terms of passengers carried, and has the largest route network in Europe. BEA carries the main responsibility for providing internal services, which are to a certain extent supplemented by the services of independent companies under associate agreement. BEA has one subsidiary—Gibraltar Airways, in which it has a 51 per cent holding—and is associated with Aer Lingus and Cyprus Airways. It is also associated with Aerolinee Italiane Internazionali (Alitalia) and the Malta Airlines.

During the year ended 31st March 1953 BEA operated a network of 16,398 unduplicated route miles serving 26 airports in the United Kingdom and 37 airports in Europe and the Mediterranean. Its services in the British Isles include 'social' air services, i.e. those necessary to provide essential communications with remote parts such as the Western Isles of Scotland, and to meet the heavy demands of holiday traffic to such centres as the Channel

Islands and the Isle of Man. Reduced tourist fares are available on some 97 per cent of the international services and on all domestic services. BEA is engaged in a helicopter development flying programme, based on Gatwick Airport, which has included scheduled passenger services first between Liverpool and Cardiff and then between London and Birmingham. The latter has now been replaced by a daily return freight service between the two places.

BEA's services are based mainly on Northolt (10 miles from London in Middlesex) and London airports. In August 1953 the operational fleet comprised 10 *Viscounts*, 20 *Elizabethans*, 5 *Vikings* and 20 *Admirals* (modified, or tourist *Vikings*), 52 *Pionairs* (including *Pionair* and *Leopard* freighters), 1 *Dart Dakota*, 9 *Islanders*, 1 Bristol freighter (leased to Silver City Airways), 5 helicopters (3 Bristol 171s, one of which belonged to the Ministry of Supply, and 2 Bell 47Bs). There were on order 16 *Viscount 701s* and 12 *Viscount 800s*, and the Corporation had an option on a further 8 *Viscount 800s*.

A wider use is being made of the *Viscount* and *Elizabethan* airliners since the beginning of the 1953/54 winter schedules on 4th October 1953, when both types were introduced on new Continental and domestic routes, with considerable reductions in journey times.

BEA is associated with two international companies concerned with the provision of navigational aids and telecommunications services. It holds 42 per cent of the shares of International Aeradio Limited, and has a small holding (3.5 per cent) of the shares of Société Internationale de Télécommunications Aéronautiques (SITA).

Issued capital to 31st March 1953, in 3 and 4½ per cent stock guaranteed by the Treasury, was £16 million.

In the year ended 31st March 1953 the net loss was £1.4 million, a little higher than the year before. This loss was due mainly to adverse events outside the Corporation's control, e.g., the restriction in currency allowance for overseas travel, a fuel strike in the United States which caused the cancellation of some services, higher fuel tax, and rising wages and materials costs. So far as revenue and traffic were concerned, steady gains were made. Compared with 1951-52, revenue increased to £13.1 million from £10.8 million, the number of passengers carried increased to 1,400,122 from 1,135,579, cost for capacity-ton-mile was reduced from 51.8 pence to 50.5 pence, and the break-even load factor fell from 73.2 per cent to 69.9 per cent.

An important factor in the economic working of BEA is its task as a short-haul operator. The average fare is low—£7 7s. in 1952-53—and there is a great amount of individual passenger handling to be done in carrying a heavy and markedly seasonal traffic over relatively short distances. The average passenger journey in 1952-53 was 266 statute miles.

In the summer of 1953, BEA was the first airline in the world to use propeller-turbine airliners, with *Viscount* Discovery class turbo-prop aircraft, which it put into service on seven major routes to continental Europe.

BEA operates an automatic airline booking system for its vast London booking requirements which comprises a modern electrical unit, the Flightmaster, with an ultimate booking capacity of 6 million passengers a year.

Headquarters of BEA are at Ruislip, Middlesex. The London passenger station is the Waterloo Air Terminal, opened in May 1953.

Independent Airline Companies

The agreements by which independent companies operate scheduled services as 'associates' of the Corporations are made on the recommendations of the Air Transport Advisory Council (see page 202). In 1949 associate agreements had a maximum validity of two years. This period was extended to five years in September 1950. Associate agreements for new routes, applying to both freight and passenger services, are now normally granted

for seven-year periods with extension to ten years in special cases. This arrangement is designed to give independent companies sufficient long-term security to justify capital outlay and expansion. When, in 1952, the Government decided to give greater opportunity to private airlines, the Air Transport Advisory Council was strengthened in order to consider applications for new scheduled services and to make recommendations concerning them to the Minister. As at 1st June 1953, 50 applications from independent operators for associate agreements had been approved under the new policy, 26 had been conditionally approved, 20 withdrawn, and 46 had been unsuccessful.

Charter operations are mainly the sphere of the independent companies. Although the Corporations engage in them, they do not maintain aircraft specially for this work. There are a number of British air charter companies which have established successful lines of business since the war, carrying both freight and passengers. They also carry large numbers of troops and their families to and from overseas stations throughout the world for the Service Departments. Much of the charter business is transacted through the Baltic Exchange in the City of London in the same way as shipping business (see p. 184).

In 1946 a number of the independent air line operators formed a representative body, the British Air Charter Association. In 1951 the name was changed to the British Independent Air Transport Association Ltd.

The fleet strength of the BIATA members at 31st December 1952 consisted of the following aircraft: four-engined, 43; twin-engined, 87; single-engined, 26; total, 156.

Individual member companies are: Air Charter Ltd., Air Enterprises Ltd., Airways Union Ltd., Birkett Air Services Ltd., Cambrian Air Services Ltd., Eagle Aviation Ltd., Hunting Air Transport Ltd., Jersey Airlines, Lexhams Flying Services Ltd., Morton Air Services Ltd., Oldstead Aircraft, Olley Air Service Ltd., Scottish Aviation Ltd., Skyways Ltd. & Lancashire Aircraft Corporation, Silver City Airways Ltd., Transair Ltd.

There are, in addition, a number of independent operators who are not members of BIATA. The largest of these is Airwork Ltd., with a fleet of two four-engined and nine twin-engined aircraft.

Traffic totals on the scheduled services operated by all independent operators as associates of one of the Corporations in 1952 were as follows:

| | |
|--------------------------------------|------------|
| Passengers carried | 94,065 |
| Passenger-miles flown | 25,157,813 |
| Freight carried (short tons) | 15,172 |
| Freight ton-miles flown | 858,790 |

Passengers travelling on car ferry services are not included in these passenger figures; the freight figures include the weight of cars and passengers carried on these ferries.

Charter operations by the member operators of the BIATA in 1952 were:

| | |
|--|-------------|
| Civil passengers carried | 50,471 |
| Troops carried | 72,959 |
| Passenger-miles flown for both | 200,825,072 |
| Freight carried (short tons) | 21,503 |
| Freight ton-miles flown | 7,576,165 |

Troop-carrying by air has been carried out recently almost entirely by the independent companies. RAF Transport Command has handled only a very small proportion.

Private Flying and Gliding

There are a number of private flying clubs and groups. At the end of 1952 there were 80 operational clubs in the United Kingdom which had in use 222 club and training aircraft

with current Certificates of Airworthiness. Those clubs that have an approved course are given an Air Ministry contract to train selected ATC (Air Training Corps) cadets to private pilot's licence standard. In 1952, 500 scholarships were awarded by the Air Ministry to cadets for training in the clubs.

A representative body was founded in 1926, the General Council of Associated Light Aeroplane Clubs, and was reconstructed in 1946 as the Association of British Aero Clubs and Centres.

There are 32 gliding clubs in the United Kingdom affiliated to the British Gliding Association. About 26,000 gliding certificates of all grades are in force. In July 1952 the world Gliding Championship was won by a British pilot flying a British machine when this biennial event was held in Madrid with 60 pilots from 19 countries participating.

Technical and Administrative Services

Functions of the Ministry

The regulatory functions of the Ministry of Civil Aviation (now the Ministry of Transport and Civil Aviation) under the Civil Aviation Act, 1949, include such matters as the registration and certification of civil aircraft and the licensing of civil crews, personnel, etc. The Ministry issues Certificates of Airworthiness on the recommendation of the Air Registration Board (see p. 56), which investigates civil aircraft for this purpose. Foreign aircraft flying over the United Kingdom are similarly required to be registered and to have a Certificate of Airworthiness issued by the State in which the aircraft is registered. The continuing airworthiness of British aircraft engaged in public transport operations is further ensured by requiring that they should be maintained in accordance with schedules approved by the Board. Persons engaged in the maintenance of these aircraft must be holders of appropriate licences or be approved for the purpose. Operating crews of civil aircraft, other than private gliders, are equally required to hold licences. The subdivision of the licences is intended to grade crew members according to their qualifications and to match their privileges to these qualifications.

A standing advisory body of experts, the Air Safety Board, is responsible under the Minister for keeping under continuous review the safety needs in British civil aviation and for recommending measures calculated to promote safety, in respect of both the operation of British civil aircraft throughout the world and the provision of an efficient system of ground facilities for all civil aircraft operating over the United Kingdom.

The Minister is authorized to establish, equip and maintain aerodromes and to make provision for the licensing, inspection and safety aspects of other civil aerodromes.

Technical, financial and material assistance is provided by the United Kingdom for equipping aerodromes in the British dependencies to international standards.

A series of bilateral air transport agreements for scheduled services is in force between the Government of the United Kingdom and the Governments of most of the countries to and through which British airline services operate. These agreements provide for the reciprocal exchange of traffic rights and usually also provide for, *inter alia*, reciprocal treatment in respect of customs duty on fuel and oil, etc., agreement on fares and for the settlement of disputes. As the diplomatic channel is frequently used for consultation on civil aviation matters a number of officers have been attached to missions in Commonwealth and foreign countries since the end of the war as Civil Air Advisers or Attaches to assist the missions in dealing with work which requires specialized knowledge. There were in 1953 six such appointments covering the following countries:

- (1) United States and Mexico.
- (2) France.

- (3) Egypt, Ethiopia, Iraq, Jordan, the Lebanon, Persia, the Persian Gulf, Saudi Arabia, Syria and Turkey.
- (4) India and Pakistan.
- (5) The Philippine Republic, Thailand, and the Associated States of Viet Nam, Cambodia and Laos.
- (6) Australia.

In addition, the Ministry of Transport and Civil Aviation has a part-time representative covering Belgium, Greece, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Portugal, Spain and Switzerland.

Air Traffic Control

A highly developed system of air traffic control governs the routing of aircraft over the United Kingdom, and their approaches to and departures from its aerodromes. There are control zones in which in bad weather all civil aircraft are under the orders of controllers. There is also a system of 'airways' for aircraft flying on the main trunk routes over the United Kingdom. These airways are sky tunnels or corridors of specified widths and heights in which aircraft are separated from each other both horizontally and vertically. The Ministry's main air traffic control centre is at Uxbridge, in Middlesex, 15 miles from London. There is a United Kingdom communications centre at Croydon, established in February 1953 as part of a world-wide network of circuits to permit the efficient exchange of operational messages between air stations. This centre is designed to handle a dense traffic of operational messages between airports and air traffic control centres. The provision of meteorological information for civil as well as military aircraft is the responsibility of the Meteorological Office at the Air Ministry. There are 'met' offices, staffed by the Air Ministry, at civil aerodromes and air traffic control centres.

Air Navigation Aids

The installation of radar aids for landing and take-offs at major airports and for air traffic control purposes is becoming of increasing importance, particularly with the new jet airliners coming into use. A recent development is the Decca Navigator, which was used first for shipping but is now being used increasingly by aircraft. A series of ground stations has been set up from which signals are sent out to enable the aircraft pilot to trace his route and fix his position.

BOAC and BEA have sponsored a non-profit-making company, International Aeradio Limited, established in 1947, to promote the safety and regularity of international air services by helping to provide navigational and landing aids in countries where local governments are not able to supply them to the required standards.

The Air-Sea Search and Rescue Service operated by the Royal Navy and the Royal Air Force is available to civil air operators within the United Kingdom area and along the oversea routes wherever there are Royal Navy and RAF stations. The four British ocean weather-ships stationed in the North Atlantic under arrangements promoted by the International Civil Aviation Organization have navigational aids which are regularly used both by civil and Service aircraft flying over the North Atlantic; the aircraft of RAF Coastal Command carry out search duties for missing aircraft.

Aerodromes

There are some 100 civil aerodromes in the United Kingdom, and 34 of these are directly administered by the Ministry. There are also 50 military aerodromes available for civil use. There are 25 Customs airports.

Of the Ministry's vote for civil aviation purposes—£14½ million for 1953-54—just over a third is attributed to construction, maintenance and equipment of aerodromes.

The main airports used by international schedules services are:

for European services: London, Northolt, Glasgow (Renfrew), Birmingham (Elmdon), Liverpool (Speke), Manchester (Ringway);

for North Atlantic services: London, Prestwick;

for South Atlantic, Middle East, Africa and Far East services: London.

Substantial increases in aircraft and passenger movements at the principal airports have continued through 1945 to 1952. In the latter year, all United Kingdom airports handled just under 3 million passengers. Of this total, London Airport, formerly known as Heathrow, dealt with 861,000 and Northolt 773,000. Outside the London area provincial airports handled 1·2 million passengers; Prestwick handled the largest number, 168,000, followed by Manchester (Ringway) 161,000, Glasgow 157,000, Belfast (Nutts Corner) 148,000, and Isle of Man (Ronaldsway) 127,000. In the Channel Islands, Jersey Airport handled over 250,000, and Guernsey 116,000. The number of movements of aircraft engaged on commercial transport operations in 1952 was 195,400, for all United Kingdom airports.

Prestwick, in Scotland, is being developed as the second international airport in the United Kingdom. Airport activity in the London region has been expanding at so rapid a rate that even with the maximum development being carried out at London Airport it will be unable to meet future demands, and the Government has put forward proposals for an alternative airport at Gatwick, 25 miles from London.

London, Northolt, Prestwick and Belfast are equipped with GCA (Ground Controlled Approach) landing aids. All United Kingdom airports used by international services are being equipped with the basic bad weather landing aid, ILS (Instrument Landing System), recommended by the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO). Several airports have installed the new very-high-frequency all-directional radio range known as VOR, recommended by ICAO, and used by some United States airline operators.

Public health provisions at all aerodromes are jointly the responsibility of the Minister of Health and the Minister of Transport and Civil Aviation, or of a local authority to which the Minister of Health has delegated the functions.

THE POST OFFICE

The Post Office with its staff of over 347,000 is a Government Department. It is also a great State enterprise and the oldest of Britain's nationalized undertakings. In 1649 a resolution in the House of Commons declared that 'the office of Postmaster is and ought to be in the sole power and disposal of Parliament'.

The ministerial head of the Post Office is the Postmaster-General, who, with the Assistant Postmaster-General, is responsible to Parliament for his Department. He is subject to the overriding authority of Parliament and the Cabinet, and, on many questions, of the Treasury. Under the Postmaster-General, the permanent head of the Post Office is the Director-General supported by two Deputies and an Engineer-in-Chief. At the next level there are six Directors responsible respectively for Posts; Inland Telecommunications; Oversea Telecommunications; External Telecommunications Executive; Establishments and Organization; Personnel and Accommodation. These six divisions of work are carried down into the regional organizations, each of which is under the control of a Regional Director. Under the Regional Directors are Head Postmasters and Telephone Managers. The Comptroller and Accountant-General is responsible for giving financial advice and for the whole accounting system. The staff at headquarters and in the 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.

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 delivery. In 1657 under the protectorate of Cromwell an Act 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'. The eighteenth century saw a great expansion of the postal services with the introduction of mail-coaches in 1784. Road surfaces were improved and the guards on mail-coaches were postal servants with full responsibilities. 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 charge made up to this time for the conveyance of letters was one of the factors which inspired Rowland Hill in his great work of postal reform which led to the establishment of the penny post. 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 in every civilized country in the world. In 1918 the basic penny rate for inland letters in Britain was raised to 1½d., in 1920 to 2d., and in 1940 to 2½d. where it now stands.

The inauguration of the penny post 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 1854 Rowland Hill became the permanent head 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. Letter-boxes 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.

The guiding principles of the postal services, speed, reliability and economy, have motivated all developments in the history of the Post Office. Improvements include the provision of motor mail services linking rural 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. During the second world war many of these facilities had to be curtailed and some were suspended, manpower shortage created a serious problem and oversea mails were disrupted.

Since 1945 the Post Office has restored and developed pre-war services, and to the heavy task of reconstruction has been added a marked increase in the volume of mail. In the 14 years from 1938-39 to 1952-53 the parcel post increased from 185 million items to 243 million, registered postal traffic from 62 million to 138 million and posted correspondence from 8,240 million to 8,800 million. During 1952-53 some 150,000 items of correspondence were handled without charge in connection with the King George VI memorial

appeal, while free postage concession was granted for some 560,000 parcels handed in for the relief of victims of the Lynmouth and East Coast floods.

Airmail Services

Railways and motors as a means of transport for mails are supplemented by steamers and aeroplanes. The figures for the year ended March 1953 show that total overseas civilian correspondence amounted to 370 million items and Forces' mail to 56 million, and that nearly 50 per cent of this traffic now travels by air. First class mail to all European countries except Iceland and Poland is sent by air without payment of any special air fee. The Post Office dispatches nearly 30 tons of letter mail a week to European destinations by this 'all-up' service in aircraft of the British European Airways Corporation, whose network of services enables many of the letters posted in London for Europe to be delivered the following day. The air parcel service to Europe, introduced on 2nd April 1949, was operating to 25¹ destinations by the autumn of that year, and now about five tons of parcel mail are dispatched weekly to Europe by air.

First class mail and second class mail (unsealed packets containing printed matter, newspapers, periodicals, samples and small consignments of merchandise) are dispatched by air to countries outside Europe upon payment of special air mail rates of postage. Also available to more than 80 countries outside Europe are air parcel services. Light weight air letters, originally designed for Forces' mail and made available in 1943 for civilian use, are popular and some 40 million were posted in the year ended March 1953.

Telecommunications

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 by mid-1953 the change-over from the present manual switching system to a more extensive automatic system was substantially complete. This will be one of the most up-to-date systems in the world and will give direct connection between any of the 450 larger telegraph offices. The Post Office transmitted 36 million inland and 22 million overseas telegrams in 1952-53, and the average time between handing in an inland telegram and its receipt at the delivery office was 23 minutes compared with 48 minutes in 1946.

Telephones

In the year ended 31st March 1953, over 500,000 new telephones were provided, bringing the total number of telephones to 5,927,000, of which 73 per cent were connected to automatic exchanges. In August 1953 the six millionth telephone was installed, and at that date there were more than 6,000 telephone exchanges. Allowing for cessations, the actual net increase in the number of telephones since the war has been about 2 million, although during that period over 4 million new telephones were installed. This post-war installation work has been achieved in spite of the priority given to the export of telecommunication equipment. The level of telephone traffic continues high. In the year ended 31st March 1939 the total of trunk and toll calls was 112 million, while in the year ended 31st March 1953 the Post Office handled a total of 264 million; 66 million of these were at the cheap night rate. To meet this increasing traffic, about 9,000 trunk circuits over 25 miles (40 km.) in radial length have been provided since the end of the war, making a total of nearly 19,000 circuits. In the year ended 31st March 1953, 3,165 million local calls were handled, an increase of 49 per cent compared with the year 1938-39. About 400 exchanges now

¹Spain and the Balearic Islands are considered as a single destination.

operate the automatic time service, first introduced in 1936, by which callers in a number of cities are able to obtain the correct time automatically by dialling the 3-letter code TIM or a figure code which connects to the speaking clock. The 999 emergency dialling service is available on over 2,000 of the 4,300 automatic exchanges now in service. Callers using this service are given immediate connection to the police, ambulance or fire brigade, and in certain coastal districts to lifeboat and coastguard stations.

Oversea Telecommunications

All the oversea radio-telephone services from the United Kingdom are handled by the Post Office, which now operates direct services to 31 countries as well as to ships at sea. Direct radio services are further extended by land-line or further radio-telephone links and, in all, service is available to more than 90 countries through the International Radio Telephone Exchange. Outgoing calls have increased from 17,658 in 1938-39 to some 84,000 in 1952-53. The Anglo-Continental telephone circuits are also used for the transmission of pictures for newspapers and for the relaying of broadcast programmes. There are now nearly 400 circuits to 42 European towns and each day about 6,000 calls are made to the continent of Europe.

Cable and Wireless Services

In 1850 the first undersea telegraph cable between Britain and Europe was laid; and on 1st April 1950 the Post Office took over nearly all the staff and services of Cable and Wireless Limited in Britain. In 1945 a Commonwealth Communications Council was held to consider the future of the services which in 1929 had been unified under the United Kingdom company later known as Cable and Wireless Limited. As a result of that conference it was decided that there should be public ownership of the oversea telecommunications of all the Commonwealth Governments. Although integrated within the Post Office service, the majority of the staff of Cable and Wireless Limited continues to operate at Electra House, London, the largest telegraph office in the world. By means of 11 cables and 59 telegraph circuits direct service is provided with all self-governing members of the British Commonwealth, and with many Colonies, with the United States and South America, with the Mediterranean countries and, indirectly, with all the other countries in the world.

In the year ended 31st March 1953, the Post Office handled 21,829,000 oversea telegrams.

The Post Office Counter: Agency and Direct Services

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 considerably compared with the total for 1938-39. In the 14 years to 1952-53 the cash turnover trebled from just over £1,000 million to over £3,740 million.

At the post office counter the citizen can draw his pension and his family allowance, bank his savings, buy a licence for his gun, dog or wireless set, renew his car licence, and buy stamps for National Insurance (see p. 230) or for National Savings certificates (see p. 105). In many of these and similar transactions, in the collection of revenue, in the disbursement of allowances and the distribution of notices and posters, the Post Office acts as an agent for other Government Departments and for the BBC. Of the 51 million postal drafts paid out by the Post Office in 1952-53, 38 million were in payment of sickness benefits under the National Insurance Scheme; at the end of July 1953 current broadcast receiving licences in the United Kingdom issued by the Post Office totalled 13,010,856, of which 2,479,454 were for television sets (see also p. 282).

Counter sales include also an increasing volume of direct Post Office business: during the year ended 31st March 1953 about 566 million postal orders were issued by post offices, an increase of 53 million on the previous year's record figure.

For over ninety years the Post Office Savings Bank (see pp.105-6) has supported the financial stability of Britain and the well-being of its citizens. Approximately one out of every two persons in Britain has a savings account or other holding with the Post Office, and active savings bank accounts at the end of 1952 numbered over 22 million.

IX. LABOUR AND MANAGEMENT

MANPOWER

The total working population of the United Kingdom at the end of June 1953 was about 24 million, some 47 per cent of the total population, and included about 70 per cent of persons of normal working age (15-59 for women, 15-64 for men). In fact, about 95 per cent of British men of working age are today in or seeking gainful work. The remaining 5 per cent consist mainly of those continuing their education, of the severely disabled and of a few persons of private means. The proportion of women of working age in or seeking gainful work is much lower, about 45 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 about a million older men and women still at work. The great majority of the working population work for a wage or salary, but about $1\frac{3}{4}$ million are employers or self-employed.

The total working population is now higher than before the war, but probably lower than during the middle of hostilities 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 rose from mid-1949 to the end of 1951, if allowance is made for seasonal variations. Among the reasons for this rise were the continued increase in the number of men in the working age groups and the return of a number of women to part-time or whole-time work. The working population at the end of 1952 was slightly smaller than at the end of 1951, but rose by more than the normal seasonal variation in the first half of 1953.

The broad changes in the manpower position in Great Britain between mid-1948 and the end of June 1953 are shown in Table 26.

Deployment of Labour

Over 40 per cent of those in civil employment are employed in mining and manufacturing and only about 5 per cent in agriculture and fishing. Over half of those in manufacturing are in the metals, engineering, vehicles and chemicals groups of industries, whose total labour force has nearly 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 manufacture of textiles, clothing, and food, drink and tobacco, 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 27.

In June 1953 the unemployed constituted 1.4 per cent of insured employees in Great Britain. Unemployment was mainly short-term. The total number of persons unemployed for more than six months in Great Britain was about 0.3 per cent of the number of insured employees. About one-third of these long-term unemployed were men and

TABLE 26

GENERAL MANPOWER POSITION (Great Britain)

(Thousands)

| | End June 1948 | End June 1952 | End June 1953 |
|--|------------------|------------------|------------------|
| Total Working Population:* | | | |
| Men | 15,657 | 15,864 | 15,862 |
| Women | 7,123 | 7,430 | 7,463 |
| Total | 22,780 | 23,294 | 23,325 |
| HM Forces (including Women's Services): | | | |
| Men | 807 | 848 | 841 |
| Women | 39 | 24 | 24 |
| Total | 846 | 872 | 865 |
| Ex-Service men and women on release leave who have not yet taken up employment | 92 | 8 | 5 |
| Registered unemployed: | | | |
| Wholly unemployed | 273 | 295 | 265 |
| Temporarily stopped | 9 | 120 | 17 |
| Number in civil employment: | | | |
| Men | 14,549 | 14,836 | 14,841 |
| Women | 7,020 | 7,283 | 7,349 |
| Total | 21,569 | 22,119 | 22,190 |

Source: Ministry of Labour and National Service

*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 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. The figures on the 'temporarily stopped' line have been excluded from the computation of the total working population, as they are already included in civil employment. Part-time workers are counted as full units.

women over 40 years of age in certain areas where unemployment had been especially severe between 1921 and 1939 (see p. 91).

Unemployment in all areas has been very greatly reduced since the pre-war years both because of changes in the general economic situation and because of specific measures taken by the Government to promote a balanced distribution of industry in order to prevent the recurrence of severe unemployment in the areas previously most seriously affected (see p. 130).

TABLE 27
ANALYSIS OF CIVIL EMPLOYMENT (Great Britain)

(Thousands)

| Industry or Service | End June 1948 | End June 1952 | End June 1953 |
|---|------------------|------------------|------------------|
| <i>Basic Industries</i> | | | |
| Coalmining (total manpower) .. | 794 | 793 | 794 |
| Other mining and quarrying | 82 | 82 | 82 |
| Gas, electricity and water | 321 | 372 | 373 |
| Transport and communications | 1,787 | 1,759 | 1,726 |
| Agriculture and fishing | 1,178 | 1,112 | 1,092 |
| Total, basic industries | 4,162 | 4,118 | 4,067 |
| <i>Manufacturing Industries</i> | | | |
| Chemical and allied trades | 441 | 487 | 489 |
| Metals, engineering and vehicles .. | 3,944 | 4,234 | 4,187 |
| Textiles | 931 | 901 | 979* |
| Clothing | 649 | 660 | 701 |
| Food, drink and tobacco | 750 | 862 | 872 |
| Other manufactures | 1,422 | 1,482 | 1,495 |
| Total, manufacturing industries .. | 8,137 | 8,626 | 8,723 |
| Building and contracting | 1,450 | 1,435 | 1,448 |
| Distributive trades | 2,484 | 2,616 | 2,641 |
| Professional, financial and miscellaneous services | 3,954 | 3,988 | 3,991 |
| Public administration: | | | |
| National Government Service .. | 682 | 606 | 595 |
| Local Government Service | 700 | 730 | 725 |
| Total in civil employment | 21,569 | 22,119 | 22,190 |

Source: Ministry of Labour and National Service

* Cotton 283,000, wool 219,000, other textiles 477,000.

GOVERNMENT EMPLOYMENT AND TRAINING SERVICES

The provision of employment services has been one of the principal functions of the Ministry of Labour and National Service since its inception in 1916. Their scope has gradually been extended to include the provision of vocational guidance, 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 1,200 local Employment and Branch Employment Offices. A small number of special offices deal wholly or mainly with particular types of workers, e.g., dockers and persons employed in the catering trades. Local Employment Com-

mittees, 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 work-people. In addition, an Appointments Service, 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, is operated by the following offices in Great Britain staffed by officials of the Ministry of Labour and National Service:

1. The Technical and Scientific Register, kept centrally in London, which deals with professionally qualified scientists, engineers, architects and surveyors.
2. Regional Nursing Appointments Offices (11) and Nursing Appointments Offices (140), which deal with recruitment for training and employment in nursing, midwifery, radiography, physiotherapy, occupational therapy and medical laboratory technical work.
3. Appointments Offices (3) which deal with all other persons qualified for professional and higher technical posts; senior executives; ex-regular officers of the armed forces; and young men suitable for training for management in industry and commerce.

In normal times there is no compulsion on any job-seeker or on any employer requiring labour to use these Government services. Since 25th February 1952, however, a Statutory Order, the Notification of Vacancies Order, 1952, has obliged employers to recruit most types of ordinary labour through local offices of the Ministry of Labour and National Service or through employment agencies registered with the Ministry. The main object of this Order, which is flexible in its application and permits many personal and occupational exceptions, is to give employment officers every chance to persuade job-seekers to undertake work of national importance, e.g., in defence or in the basic industries. This Order does not give the Ministry any power to direct labour.

General Services for Adults

Local offices and offices of the Appointments Service 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 appointments offices also operate a scheme for financing short business courses for suitable ex-regular Service men and women, and provide a Careers Advice Service for suitably qualified men and women of 18 and over on the choice of a career. This service is particularly valuable to young graduates and other suitable young men and women who have just finished their National Service.

A special responsibility of the local 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 voluntary period of 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 servicing to clerical work. Unemployed men and women have also been recruited for this wide range of 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 is recruited under this scheme, which includes 20 to 30 skilled courses including agriculture, engineering and draughtsmanship.

Training under all these schemes is given mainly at Government Training Centres, of which there are 16 in different parts of the country, and for some trades in technical colleges or in an employer's establishment. Courses last normally 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 22nd June 1953 the number of trainees placed in employment was 109,203.

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).

Other Services

The Ministry of Labour and National Service is also responsible for two specialized employment services: the Youth Employment Service and the Disablement Resettlement Service.

Youth Employment Service

The purpose of the Youth Employment Service is to help young people leaving school and young workers under 18 to get a good start in 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 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 careers information, provide talks in schools, give vocational guidance, help to find suitable employment and keep contact with young workers to assist them in settling down. Local Youth Employment Committees, made up of teachers, employers, workers and other appropriate interests, assist the service in an advisory capacity.

Disablement Resettlement Service

The Disabled Persons (Employment) Act, 1944, on which all the Ministry's work for disabled persons is based, declares its purpose to be '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 1,200 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 hospitals in his area and visits any patient who wishes to discuss the question of his future employment. His work involves close co-operation with doctors, local authorities and voluntary welfare agencies.

There is also a Disablement Resettlement Officer with similar functions at each of the three appointments offices.

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 or 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 work most suitable for the individual, either directly 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 more than 20 persons are bound by law to employ a quota (at present 3 per cent for almost all industries) of registered disabled persons. Registration is voluntary. The number of disabled persons registered was 851,690 at 20th July 1953 and of these 44,411 were considered to be capable of ordinary employment but were unemployed. This figure is estimated as about 5.6 per cent of the total number of registered disabled persons capable of ordinary competitive employment.

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.

As indicated on page 217-8 there are vocational training facilities for the disabled at Government Training Centres, educational institutions and employers' establishments. For the more seriously disabled, however, there are special residential training colleges run by voluntary organizations 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. (see p. 53), a non-profit-making company set up and financed by the Ministry of Labour and National Service, operated 90 factories employing over 6,175 severely disabled persons on 23rd June 1953.

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 the end of June 1953 there were 69 workshops for the blind in which there were 4,262 blind persons in training or employment. In addition, where necessary, the Ministry helped to finance the provision of training or employment for about 915 severely disabled sighted persons in 39 workshops provided by 31 voluntary undertakings.

TERMS OF EMPLOYMENT AND WORKING CONDITIONS

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 fixing of terms and conditions of employment, however, involves quite different principles, methods and machinery from the determination of working conditions. Terms and conditions of employment of the majority of

workers are determined by collective agreements between employers' associations and trade unions, and the fixing by statute of minimum wages and terms of employment is confined to those trades or industries where the organization of employers or workers or both is inadequate to negotiate collective agreements and ensure their observance.

Minimum 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 to enforce the statutory regulations. These Acts of Parliament and statutory regulations prescribe minimum standards of safety, health and welfare for most classes of workers, and regulate hours of work for women and young persons. In a few exceptional cases additional health, safety or welfare requirements have been the subject of collective agreement.

Many employers provide working conditions superior to those prescribed by statute or agreement. Certain Government Departments and various voluntary bodies advise and assist in maintaining these standards.

Labour Relations

The structure of labour relations in Britain is established mainly on a voluntary basis, and rests on the organization of employers and workers into employers' associations and trade unions. These organizations¹ discuss and negotiate terms and conditions of employment and other matters affecting the workpeople at their work. In some cases these negotiations are conducted simply by *ad hoc* meetings, which are held when necessary; in other cases voluntary joint machinery has been established on a permanent basis. Normally these arrangements 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. In certain trades where the voluntary organization of employers and workers is not adequate for the effective regulation of the workers' remuneration, provision has also been made by the State for this to be done by machinery set up 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' Organizations

Many employers in Great Britain are members of employers' associations, some of which have their origins in the nineteenth century. They are generally organized 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 organized 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 organized employers in their relations with their workpeople, and is recognized by the Government as the principal channel of consultation between Government Departments and representatives of organized employers as a whole on all such matters.

Trade Unions

A large number of workers in industry, in agriculture and in public services such as transport are organized into trade unions. These have grown up gradually and independently over a great many years, and consequently their form and organization vary considerably. Organization started more than two hundred years ago among the skilled craftsmen and spread later to the general labouring and unskilled classes. More recently

¹The few monopolist employers—the central Government and the public corporations operating the nationalized industries—negotiate with the trade unions representing their different types of employees.

there has been a growth of organization among clerical, supervisory, technical and administrative workers.

At the end of 1951 the total membership of British trade unions was 9,480,000. There were 704 separate trade unions, but 67 per cent of all trade unionists were in 17 big unions.

Some of the unions cover a single craft or group of crafts, although their members may be employed in a variety of industries; others cover the workpeople in a particular industry or range of industries. In the case of the large general workers' unions the range of industries covered is very wide. Each union is an autonomous body with its own organization, the basis of which is the local branch or lodge. The branch elects officers and committees and deals with all matters which can be dealt with locally.¹ Matters of wider interest are dealt with by the union's district or national bodies, which decide the policy of the union and may engage in joint discussions with the employers' associations in the industries in which its members are employed.

The central organ of the trade union movement is the *Trades Union Congress* and the great majority of trade unionists belong to unions affiliated to it. An annual congress of delegates from affiliated unions settles its general policy. The General Council elected annually by the Congress conducts its business between congresses.

The Trades Union Congress is recognized by the Government as the principal channel of consultation between the Government Departments and representatives of organized workers over the country as a whole on matters affecting their interests. There is a separate Scottish Trades Union Congress.

Voluntary Joint Negotiating Machinery

At National Level. While in some cases all matters affecting terms and conditions of employment are discussed on an *ad hoc* basis between the employers' organizations 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 about 130.² Their functions vary considerably, some being merely wage-negotiating bodies, while others deal with a wide range of subjects affecting the interests of the industry concerned. Provision is usually 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 arbitration, including the methods provided under the Conciliation Act, 1896, or the Industrial Courts Act, 1919 (see p. 222).

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 organization 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

¹Branches of various trade unions in a locality often voluntarily affiliate to a local trades council.

²The corresponding bodies in national and local Government service are known as Whitley Councils (see pp. 49 and 61), named after Mr. J. H. Whitley, former Speaker of the House of Commons and chairman of a committee which investigated industrial unrest in 1916 to 1919.

voluntary methods throughout the industry, statutory bodies known as Wages Councils, Catering Wages Boards 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 and Catering Wages Boards are empowered to submit proposals for the fixing of minimum remuneration and 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) and are effective only in the County Agricultural Wages Committee area in respect of which such Orders have been made.

State Provision for Conciliation, Arbitration and Investigation

Under authority derived from the Conciliation Act, 1896, and the Industrial Courts Act, 1919, the Minister of Labour and National Service 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. Their duties 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. At present, provision is also made by an order under emergency legislation for disputes and 'issues'¹ about wages, hours, etc., 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 is legally binding. 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.

If a dispute occurs, or is expected, which is not susceptible of settlement by any of the above methods, the Minister may also appoint a Court of Inquiry or Committee of Investigation. These are primarily means of informing public opinion of the facts of a dispute: 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.

Liaison between the Government and Industry

As will be seen from the foregoing paragraphs, 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

¹A dispute concerns the terms of employment or conditions of labour of workmen. An issue concerns the duty of an employer to observe the terms of an agreement or other 'recognized terms and conditions' in his trade or industry.

Councils as liaison officers. Standing arrangements also exist for consultation between the Government and the British Employers' Confederation and Trades Union Congress through machinery provided by the *National Joint Advisory Council* on which both bodies are represented under the chairmanship of the Minister of Labour and National Service.

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 provide for the establishment, in firms of sufficient size, of machinery for joint consultation between management and workers on problems of common interest. In some industries the constitution and functions of Joint Advisory Consultative Committees or, in some cases, of Joint Production Committees are laid down in the agreement. In other industries 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 Joint Committees can fruitfully discuss is wide and includes hours of work (within the framework of agreements), safety, efficiency of production, absenteeism, labour turnover, training, education, recreation and employees' services generally. The constitution and functions of these committees vary widely from one industry to another. It is the practice, however, to exclude from their scope all questions relating to wages and conditions of employment, and other matters covered by negotiation between organizations of employers and workers. It is the policy of the Government to foster the development of voluntary joint consultation throughout 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 Joint Committees or on ways in which their activities can be made more effective.

Working Conditions: the Legislative Background

Protective legislation in mines, factories and industrial work-places generally is detailed and comprehensive and its enforcement strict, and a certain amount of protective legislation exists in non-industrial occupations.

Local authorities have power to regulate the provision of suitable sanitary conveniences in houses and at places of work and to treat work-places which are dirty or dangerously ill-ventilated or overcrowded as nuisances whose abatement can be enforced. They have also wide powers to regulate hours and conditions of employment of children in their areas within the limits laid down by national legislation. The general effect of the national legislation is to forbid the employment of children under 13, to forbid the employment of children between the ages of 13 and 15 during school hours on school days, or between 8 p.m. and 6 a.m. on any day, or for more than two hours on school days or Sundays.

The Shops Act, 1950, empowers local authorities to ensure that all shops in their area have proper ventilation, temperature, lighting, sanitary and washing facilities, and that they observe the requirements of the Act with regard to closing hours, meal intervals and holidays.

Certain industrial premises (factories, shipyards, docks, etc.) come under the Factories Acts, 1937 and 1948, which are administered by the Ministry of Labour and National Service and enforced by the Factory Inspectorate, which is part of the Ministry.

The Acts lay down general requirements with regard to safety, such as the fencing and proper maintenance of machinery, lifting appliances and steam boilers and other pressure vessels; sound construction and proper maintenance of floors, passages and stairs and safe means of access to working-places; and the prevention of escape of dangerous fumes and dust into the workroom. They also lay down general requirements with regard to health

and welfare, e.g., with regard to cleanliness, the provision of sanitary accommodation, cubic space per worker, temperature, ventilation, lighting, washing facilities, accommodation for outdoor clothing, drinking water and provision of seats.

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. All young persons under 18 years of age must be medically examined by doctors appointed by the Chief Inspector of Factories on entry to employment in factories, docks, or at building operations, and must be re-examined annually. The hours permissible 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 for not more than 100 hours a year). Young persons under 16 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 by night is, in general, prohibited.

These general requirements for safety, health and welfare may be supplemented or modified by regulations dealing with special risks or conditions in particular industries, processes, establishments or machines.

In mines and quarries there are elaborate safety codes dealing with underground ventilation, support of underground workings, windings and haulage, alternative exits, explosive risks, rescue squads and first aid, competency examinations for managers, surveyors and inspectors, and the detailed conduct of operations. The employment of women and children underground has been forbidden since 1842.

These codes are laid down in the Mines and Quarries Acts, for the administration of which the Ministry of Fuel and Power is generally responsible, while the Mines and Quarries Inspectorate, which is part of that Ministry, is directly responsible for their enforcement.

Working Conditions in Practice

Earnings

Standard minimum time rates for British manual workers vary mainly between 2s. 6d. and 3s. 6d. per hour for men, and between 1s. 9d. and 2s. 6d. for women. These basic time rates are not, however, an accurate guide to average earnings. Higher time 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 in some of the principal British industries. The survey for April 1953 covered about six and a half million workers and showed the average hourly earnings in all the industries covered to be as follows:

| | |
|--|------------|
| Men 21 years and over | 3s. 10·7d. |
| Youths and boys under 21 years | 1s. 8·9d. |
| Women 18 years and over | 2s. 4·6d. |
| Girls under 18 years | 1s. 5·6d. |
| All workers | 3s. 4·9d. |
| Average weekly earnings were: | |
| Men | 185s. 11d. |
| Youths | 77s. 7d. |
| Women | 100s. 3d. |
| Girls | 62s. 6d. |
| All workers | 157s. 7d. |

The principal industries not covered by this survey were agriculture, where the average weekly earnings for regular adult male workers were 133s. 2d. in the year April 1952 to March 1953; coalmining, where, according to information collected by the National Coal

Board, the average weekly cash earnings for men were 246s. 1d. plus 11s. 9d. in kind, in April 1953; railway services, in which average weekly earnings in April 1952 of men in the wages grades were 165s. 4d. (men's wage rates have since been increased by 7s. per week up to September 1953); and dock labour, in which average weekly earnings of dock workers employed by the National Dock Labour Board for April to June 1953 were 209s. 5d.

Hours of Work

While, as already stated, the hours of work of women and young persons between the ages of 16 and 18 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 either as a five- 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 April 1953 into earnings and hours showed that average weekly hours actually worked were as follows:

| | | | | | | | | | |
|-----------------|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|------------|
| Men | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 47·8 hours |
| Youths and boys | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 44·5 " |
| Women | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 42·0 " |
| Girls | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 42·7 " |
| All workers | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 46·2 " |

Holidays with Pay

In addition to six statutory public holidays nearly all employees have at least one week's holiday with pay each year, and the majority have at least two weeks.

Safety

Safety depends in practice at least as much on the education of the worker as upon safety regulations. The Accident Prevention Movement, a voluntary educational campaign, is strongly supported by the Factory, and the Mines and Quarries, Inspectorates. Inspectors inquire into safety problems, including the 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 Accident Prevention Committees. A Safety, Health and Welfare Museum in London is maintained by the Ministry of Labour and National Service.

In road, rail and air transport most of the work is outside the jurisdiction of the Factory Inspectorate, but elaborate safety codes are laid down by the various transport authorities. The Royal Society for the Prevention of Accidents helps the Accident Prevention Movement by providing posters and pamphlets and by organizing training courses for safety officers.

Fatal industrial accidents have tended to diminish during the twentieth century in spite of the increase in the number of persons employed. Such accidents rose somewhat in factories during the early years of the second world war. Since then, however, there has been a further decline. Fatal industrial accidents in 1952 number 1,617; of these 472 were in mines and quarries, 804 in establishments under the Factories Acts, 196 in railway service, and 145 on ships registered in the United Kingdom.

Health and Welfare

Many employers achieve health and welfare standards higher than those prescribed by law. 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, and operate retirement and sickness insurance schemes supplementing National Insurance benefits. Some have their own rehabilitation centres or support convalescent homes.

Health and welfare standards vary from one factory to another. Between a third and a half of the factory workers of the country are employed by small firms employing less than 250 workers, and many of these find it hard to spare the management time and the funds needed to improve employee services.

The amenities provided by large factories depend partly on the employees' needs and desires. The requirements of a factory where the work is safe and easy, and many employees are women or young persons, are different from those of engineering or steel works, where work is arduous, dirty and dangerous, and undertaken mainly 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.

In the coalmining industry, the National Coal Board has begun to strengthen the medical services which existed before nationalization. Chief Divisional and Area Medical Officers have been appointed, and doctors are being appointed to the larger collieries and to groups of collieries. Medical centres with proper accommodation and the services of doctors and registered nurses are being set up at the pithead.

A number of official and voluntary bodies help to supply the research, advice and assistance necessary for developing higher standards of industrial health and welfare. These bodies include, besides the Factory and the Mines and Quarries Inspectorates, such Government agencies as the Medical Research Council (see p. 267-8) (with its subsidiary, the Industrial Health Research Board), the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research (including the National Physical Laboratory) (see p. 267), and the Government Chemist; the Departments of Industrial Health and Social Medicine of the Universities; such voluntary bodies as the Central Council for Health Education, and the Industrial Welfare Society; and the research and personnel departments of various large industrial concerns. Co-ordination is provided by a number of general and special committees.

Personnel Management

Growing realization of the important part played by social and psychological factors in industrial relations has recently led to more widespread interest in all aspects of personnel management and to the establishment of more personnel departments. Between 1939 and 1944 the number of whole-time personnel managers and welfare officers increased from about 1,500 to 6,000, and this increase seems to have continued since, though perhaps more slowly. While the form of organization of personnel departments varies, the personnel officer is generally responsible for advising all levels of management on the development of good industrial 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.

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 skilled and experienced Personnel Management Advisers.

X. SOCIAL WELFARE

STATE AND VOLUNTARY SERVICES

In Britain the State is now directly 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 the aged and the handicapped, and the nutrition of mothers and children, besides sickness and industrial injury benefits, widows' and retirement pensions and children's allowances. Public authorities in Great Britain are spending some £2,000 million a year on social services; and Exchequer expenditure on social services amounts to over a quarter of total central Government expenditure.

Voluntary organizations were the pioneers of nearly all of 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 good, 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 still surround and supplement the State services. The two types are not competitive but complementary and merge into each other. The State services often work through voluntary agencies specially adapted to serve individual or special needs. For example, 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 State institutional provision for the chronic sick and aged is supplemented by voluntary homes of various types for the care of the sick and elderly, most of whom receive State pensions or benefit, or are directly maintained by public authorities.

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 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 and the Family Welfare Association. The National Council of Social Service was established in 1919 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 Organization Society, founded in 1869, works on personal lines to help any individual or family in need or difficulty. It has a number of District Committees in London, and, affiliated to it, about 60 family casework agencies in the provinces.

There is a Central Council for the Care of Cripples, and the major societies caring for homeless children, such as Doctor Barnardo's Homes and the Church of England Children's Society, are represented on the National Council of Associated Children's Homes. Other examples of co-ordination in a specialized 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 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 organizations such as the Women's Voluntary Services and the Citizens' Advice Bureaux (there are still about 480 of these bureaux) are finding scope, with official support, for their activities in post-war Britain. The Citizens' Advice Bureaux act as interpreters between the Government Departments and the ordinary citizen, and though the inquiries are somewhat fewer now than during the war more skill and time are often needed for their solution. WVS activities are many and various. They include welfare work for children, the aged and the sick, and for certain foreign workers.

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.

Old People's Welfare

Voluntary bodies also take a large share in the work for old people that has been steadily expanding since the war brought into prominence the problems of old people's welfare that social and population changes had already begun to accentuate.

Hostels for bombed-out or evacuated old people have been followed by permanent homes where old people can live together in happiness and comfort however small their means. Voluntary homes of this kind now number over 700. More than 2,500 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 State support.

Local Old People's Welfare Committees are formed by those concerned in this work, and are aided by the National Old People's Welfare Committee, an associated group of the National Council of Social Service, widely representative of voluntary and statutory bodies having direct contact with old people. A National Corporation for the Care of Old People was established in 1947 by the Nuffield Foundation and the Lord Mayor's Air Raid Distress Fund to stimulate and to give financial support to schemes for the welfare of the aged, to establish and demand desirable standards for old people's homes, to maintain an expert technical advisory service, and to encourage and to undertake research and experiment for the welfare of old people.

The Social Worker

While the voluntary worker giving full- 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 specialized training for a particular service. The latter is usually organized by the profession concerned.

Voluntary organizations have been pioneers in the employment and training of social workers, but it is a significant fact that central Government Departments and local authorities are employing trained social workers in greater numbers and in more services. Such workers include regional and local welfare officers, children's care organizers, children's officers for work under the Children Act, 1948, family case workers, neighbourhood workers, youth leaders, almoners, mental health workers, psychiatric social workers, tuberculosis care workers, housing managers, personnel managers, probation officers, and moral welfare workers; in fact, representatives of all branches of social work.

NATIONAL INSURANCE AND ASSISTANCE

National Insurance, together with Industrial Injuries Insurance, Family Allowances and National Assistance constitute a system of social security in the United Kingdom which ensures that in no circumstances need anyone fall below a minimum standard of life. The Ministry of Pensions and National Insurance administers the first three of these measures as well as administering pensions and welfare services for war pensioners and their dependants (see p. 40).

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 reported in 1909, there was a strong movement against the form and spirit of the poor law, which was finally superseded by the National Assistance Act, 1948. At the same time there was a development of compulsory insurance administered on a national basis. 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 began a limited scheme of unemployment insurance, which 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. A comprehensive, co-ordinated and unified plan for social security was needed.

Under the stimulus of war, when plans for post-war reconstruction were being formulated, Lord (then Sir William) Beveridge was invited by the National Government to investigate the country's existing social insurance system. In 1942 the Beveridge Report was published and 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.

Family Allowances Acts, 1945 and 1952

The Family Allowances scheme was the first part of the new system to be introduced. It started on 6th August 1946 and provided an allowance of 5s. a week for every child in the family, after the elder or eldest, below school-leaving age, now usually 15 years. The rate was raised to 8s. a week in September 1952, under the Family Allowances and National Insurance Act, 1952. The allowance may be paid up to 31st July following the 16th birthday where the child continues in full-time education or becomes an apprentice. Family allowances are paid from the Exchequer and their object is to benefit the family as a whole.

At the beginning of 1953 some 4,800,000 family allowances were being paid to more than three million families in Great Britain. In Northern Ireland over 100,000 families were receiving between them more than 210,000 allowances.

National Insurance Acts, 1946 to 1953

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 Act, 1952, and the National Insurance Act, 1953. 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 21½ 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—about 1½ million.

Class 3—Non-employed persons. All insured persons 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 at the 5th July 1948, or have since taken up paid work. Students undergoing 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 £104 a year can claim exception from liability to pay contributions under the scheme.

Contributions

The main weekly rates of contribution from October 1952 are shown in Table 28.

TABLE 28

| | Men over 18 | Boys under 18 | Women over 18 | Girls under 18 |
|---------------------------------|----------------|------------------|------------------|-------------------|
| CLASS 1 (Employed persons) * | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. |
| Paid by employee | 5 9 | 3 5 | 4 6 | 2 9 |
| Paid by employer | 5 0 | 3 0 | 3 11 | 2 4 |
| <i>Total</i> | 10 9 | 6 5 | 8 5 | 5 1 |
| CLASS 2 (Self-employed persons) | 7 5 | 4 4 | 6 2 | 3 9 |
| CLASS 3 (Non-employed persons) | 5 7 | 3 3 | 4 5 | 2 8 |

* Includes Industrial Injuries Insurance contributions.

These contributions, which the Exchequer supplements from general taxation, are 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.

Benefits

The scheme provides sickness, unemployment, maternity and widow's benefit, guardian's allowance, retirement pension and death grant. Industrial injuries benefits are paid under the National Insurance (Industrial Injuries) Acts, 1946 to 1953 (see p. 232).

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.

Sickness Benefit. The standard weekly rate for a man or woman over 18 (except a married woman) is 32s. 6d., with an increase of 21s. 6d. for an adult dependant and 10s. 6d. a week for the first or only child under school-leaving age, with 2s. 6d., in addition to any family allowance payable, for each subsequent child. The weekly rate for a married woman is 22s., but she is paid at the 32s. 6d. 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 2 contributions have been paid at some time, 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 except that the standard rate for insured married women is 26s. instead of 22s.

Unemployment benefit is paid in the first place for 180 working days, but it may be continued for up to a maximum of 19 months in all if the insured person has a good record of contributions paid as against unemployment benefit drawn in recent years.

Maternity Benefit. The National Insurance Act, 1953, amended the provisions of the 1946 Act for maternity benefits. A maternity grant of £9 is now payable for all confinements, and where more than one child is born at any confinement additional grants may be payable. A home confinement grant of £3 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 32s. 6d. a week, beginning with 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 during the year ending 13 weeks before the expected week of her confinement, the claimant must have paid 26 contributions as an employed or self-employed person and, for the full rate of the allowance, have a total of at least 50 contributions paid or credited. The maternity allowance provided under the 1946 Act of 36s. weekly for 13 weeks is retained for a limited transitional period by the 1953 Act; for this allowance, a married woman need not have paid contributions, although she must show that she is ordinarily at work.

Widow's Benefit. There are three kinds of widow's benefit, paid only on the deceased husband's insurance. A Widow's Allowance of 42s. 6d. a week plus 10s. 6d. a week for the first or only child under school-leaving age and 2s. 6d. a week for second and subsequent children (in addition to family allowances) is paid for 13 weeks. A Widowed Mother's Allowance of 43s. a week is paid following widow's allowance to a widow who has a child within the meaning of the Family Allowances Act; she also receives 2s. 6d. a week, in addition to any family allowance, for each child after the first. A Widow's Pension of 32s. 6d. a week is paid to a widow (a) who is 50 or over at the time of the husband's death and has been married ten years, or (b) who is 40 or over when her widowed mother's allowance ends provided ten years have elapsed since the marriage, or (c) who, when her

widow's allowance or widowed mother's allowance ends, is incapable of self-support because of infirmity and is likely to remain so for a long time.

Guardian's Allowance. A Guardian's Allowance of 15s. a week may be paid to a person having care of a child whose parents (or step-parents) have died and one of whom was insured under the National Insurance Act. 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 they have retired 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 32s. 6d. a week. A married woman ordinarily qualifies for pension on her husband's insurance at the standard rate of 21s. 6d. a week. If after retirement a pensioner below the age of 70 (65 for a woman) has any earnings, then, for every 1s. earned over £2 a week, 1s. is deducted from the pension.

Men and women are encouraged not to retire at minimum pension age and are able to earn a larger retirement pension by continuing in their jobs. For every six months they stay at work between the ages of 65 and 70 (men) or 60 and 65 (women) their pension is increased by 1s. 6d. a week (before July 1951 the increment was 1s. a week). The increment on his wife's pension due to a man's contribution is 1s. a week during his lifetime; if his wife survives him her pension is re-calculated at the 1s. 6d. rate. A man who reached 65 after July 1951 and continues at work for a further five years can therefore receive a pension of 45s. on attaining the age of 70. If he has a wife who has reached 65 the combined pensions can be 75s.; if the wife survives her husband her pension can be 45s.

A retirement pensioner may be entitled to an increase of 21s. 6d. a week for his wife while she is under 60 and also to an increase of 10s. 6d. for the first child under school-leaving age and 2s. 6d. for each succeeding child, in addition to any family allowance payable.

Death Grant. A Death Grant of up to £20 is paid towards the funeral expenses of an adult, and a smaller sum on the death of a child. Grants are not paid for persons already over pension age on 5th July 1948, or for children born before 5th July 1948 if they die before they are ten years old. Reduced grants are paid on the deaths of people who on 5th July 1948 were over 55 (men) or over 50 (women).

National Insurance (Industrial Injuries) Acts, 1946 to 1953

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. Benefits were increased in July 1952 under the Family Allowances and National Insurance Act, 1952.

Benefits

Injury Benefit. Injury Benefit for an adult is 55s. a week plus 21s. 6d. for an adult dependant and 10s. 6d. for the first or only child under school-leaving age and 2s. 6d. 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 prescribed 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 55s. for 100 per cent disablement to 11s. a week for 20 per cent disablement. For disablement of less than 20 per cent a gratuity is paid, ranging up to £185.

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 will be paid.
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 25s. a week (50s. in certain cases) may be paid.
3. If the insured person is permanently unfit for work an unemployability supplement of 32s. 6d. 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 55s.) by a special hardship allowance of up to 20s. a week.

Death Benefit. If the accident or disease results in the insured person's death, Death Benefit is paid to the dependants. The amount varies according to the degree of relationship and the extent of maintenance during lifetime.

A widow receives a pension of 42s. 6d. a week for the first 13 weeks. Thereafter she gets a pension of 37s. a week if she is over 50 or permanently incapable of self-support or has the care of a child of the dead man. In other cases the pension is 20s. a week. In addition, an allowance of 10s. 6d. can be paid for the first or only child, and 2s. 6d. for each other child under school-leaving age.

Certain other dependants, such as parents, are entitled to pensions, allowances or gratuities. The amounts vary with the closeness of the relationship and the extent to which they were maintained by the deceased during his lifetime.

Adjudication

Claims to benefit under the National Insurance and National Insurance (Industrial Injuries) Acts are decided by independent statutory authorities appointed under the 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 Guernsey and New Zealand. An agreement with Australia to cover sickness and unemployment benefits, widow's and retirement pensions and family allowances was signed in June 1953 and is expected to come into operation early in 1954. An agreement with the Republic of Ireland covers sickness, unemployment and maternity benefits and the insurance of seamen. There are also agreements covering various aspects of social security in force with France (since November 1949) and with Italy (since June 1953), while an agreement with Switzerland was signed in February 1953 and will come into operation after it has been ratified. Similar agreements with other Commonwealth and European countries are under negotiation.

A multilateral agreement on social security, signed by the five Brussels Treaty Powers, was ratified by the United Kingdom in May 1950, and came into operation a year later for limited purposes. It will come into full operation when the complete network of bilateral agreements between the five participating countries has been completed.

National Assistance and Care of Children

The National Assistance Act, 1948, also came into operation on 5th July 1948. It provides a unified State service of financial assistance for those in need, replacing the various 'needs' services 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; the administration of hostels provided under the Polish Resettlement Act, 1947, for Poles in Britain who are not yet absorbed into the normal life of the community; and the assessment under the Legal Aid and Advice Act, 1949, and Legal Aid and Solicitors (Scotland) Act, 1949, of the disposable income and disposable capital of persons seeking aid under the Acts.¹

The Board is responsible for influencing 'persons without a settled way of living' (formerly known as 'casuals') to lead a more settled life, and provides temporary accommodation for such persons, usually through the agency of local authorities.

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 not the responsibility of the National Assistance Board but of county and county borough councils, and, in Scotland, of councils of large burghs.

The Children Act, 1948, provides that all local authorities shall have special children's committees to be responsible for the care of all children deprived of a normal home life, and in other ways makes improved provision for their care.

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 the 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 and are responsible under the Children's Act (Northern Ireland), 1950, for the care of all children deprived of normal home life.

HEALTH

The concern of the State with public health is chiefly a development of the last 100 years. The second half of the nineteenth century saw the growth of the environmental health services, such as provision of pure water, sewerage, disposal of refuse, cleaning of streets, building byelaws and other measures designed to promote healthy living conditions in Britain. Public provision for the care of the sick, apart from smallpox and other infectious-disease hospitals, followed later, and the main development of the personal health services, as distinct from the environmental, took place in the twentieth century. 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. There was progressive development in the hospital services provided by local authorities, and the period before the first world war is notable for the development of maternity and child welfare and of measures for the prevention and treatment of tuberculosis.

Since the first world war there has been progress 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 emphasize the importance of a sound diet and as a result the Welfare Foods Service for expectant mothers was introduced (see p. 240) and the School Meals Service (see p. 244) and industrial canteens were expanded. War also stimulated developments in industrial health services (see pp. 225-6) and in the rehabilitation of the disabled (see pp. 218-9).

¹For further information on legal aid, see p. 69.

The National Health Service

The latest stage in this progress was reached in 1948 with the establishment of the National Health Service. 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, the National Health Service Act, 1951, and the National Health Service Act, 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, with very few exceptions, free of charge, and which is available to all.

Health Service Administration in Great Britain

In England and Wales the Minister of Health has assumed direct responsibility for (1) the provision on a national basis of all hospital and specialist services, (2) the former mental health functions of the Board of Control and local authorities, except for the quasi-judicial functions of the Board designed to safeguard the liberty of the patient, (3) the conduct of research work into any matters relating to the 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 establishment and maintenance of general practitioner services and all other 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. It is the Minister's 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 Services (see p. 237) 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. Councils of counties and county boroughs are the 146 local health authorities in charge of local health services (see p. 238).

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 85 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 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 Service is described separately on page 241.

Health Service Finance

The health services are financed mostly from the Exchequer, but also partly from local rates and partly from a contribution made from the National Insurance Fund. The rights and liabilities attached to hospitals taken over by the Service, including their premises, property and assets, were transferred to the Minister of Health in England and Wales, and in Scotland to the Secretary of State.

Under the terms of the amending Act of 1949, the Minister was empowered to introduce a charge for prescriptions, and under the National Health Service Act, 1951, charges were made as from 21st May 1951 for dentures and spectacles supplied through the Service. Further charges were introduced in June 1952 under the Acts of 1949 and 1952. These include a charge of 1s. on each prescription form, and charges for elastic hosiery supplied in the family doctor service or hospital out-patients' department, for certain appliances supplied to out-patients, and for treatment (not examination only) in the Dental Service. 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 certain 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. In some cases doctors may receive an Initial Practices allowance which is limited to a three-year period: £600 in the first year; £450 in the second; and £200 in the third. There is a right of appeal if the Executive Council refuses its consent. (In England and Wales the appeal is to the Minister.)

Dentists providing treatment in their own surgeries are paid on a prescribed scale of fees according to the items of 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 on the basis of the number of sight tests made; opticians who dispense glasses are paid according to the number of pairs of glasses supplied.

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, rehabilitation centres, and all forms of specialized treatment.

At the end of 1952 there were in the Service in England and Wales 2,688 hospitals (including teaching hospitals) with 468,255 available beds and a nursing and midwifery

staff of 140,964 full-time and 26,642 part-time nurses. A small number of hospitals remain outside the Service for special reasons. Most of these are run by religious orders. In Scotland there were 412 hospitals with 64,920 beds.

Teaching Hospitals. There are in all about 140 hospitals in Great Britain with medical teaching facilities. The 26 London teaching hospitals are in fact groups of hospitals, and include 65 hospitals and 30 convalescent homes, branches, annexes or treatment centres. The 10 teaching hospitals in Wales and in the provinces cover 55 hospitals and 12 other establishments. 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.

Rehabilitation. Rehabilitation departments are established at the main hospital centres. 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. The aim is to prevent undue disability and to restore fitness after all forms of sickness and injury. 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 (see p. 218). Rehabilitation methods have been applied with advantage in the management of the chronic sick and have enabled many patients 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 of the 12 regions is centred on a university town, where an organization is maintained for collecting blood within the region. The blood is kept in the Regional Blood Bank, or issued to Area Blood Banks which are maintained at general hospitals in each county. Each of the principal hospitals holds a supply of blood sufficient not only for its own needs but also for the smaller hospitals, nursing homes and general practitioners in its district. In Scotland, the Scottish National Blood Transfusion Association organizes the service on behalf of the Secretary of State. The blood is provided free by voluntary donors recruited from the public.

Medico-Social Work. There are about 1,000 trained almoners working in Britain; the majority work in hospitals, others in local health 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 education services. They are an invaluable complement to doctors not only in mental and mental deficiency hospitals but in the local health and educational services, in assessing the environmental factors in mental abnormalities and in helping to adjust patients to their environment, or to change the circumstances of their lives.

The General Medical 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 may work either at the new Health Centres (when these have been established) or at their own surgeries.

Doctors previously in practice were entitled to join the Service at its start in the place where they were practising. Those now wishing to start 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 permitted maxi-

num number of patients' names to be on one principal's list has been reduced from 4,000 to 3,500. The average number in England and Wales is about 2,400.

Between 18,000 and 19,000 general medical practitioners (principals and assistants) out of a total of about 21,000 in England and Wales, and over 2,400, or almost all, general practitioners in Scotland, are in the Service.

Of about 10,000 dentists in England and Wales available for general practice, about 9,500 are in the Service, and of about 1,250 dentists in Scotland practically all are in the Scottish Service.

About 960 ophthalmic medical practitioners and about 7,000 ophthalmic and dispensing opticians in England and Wales and 72 ophthalmic medical practitioners and 933 ophthalmic and dispensing opticians in Scotland are engaged in the Supplementary Ophthalmic Service. This service provides for the testing of sight and provision of glasses. Cases requiring treatment are dealt with through the hospital eye service.

Almost all chemists (15,000 in England and Wales and 1,750 in Scotland) are taking part in the Service.

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, health visiting, vaccination and immunization, home nursing, the after-care of the sick, the provision of domestic help in time of sickness or confinement, etc., 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. In England and Wales there are about 5,000 child welfare, 1,800 ante-natal and 270 post-natal clinics. In Scotland there are 400 child welfare, 90 ante-natal and 80 post-natal clinics. 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 clinics for test feeding and remedial exercises may also be arranged at a number of centres and a feature of the service is the education of the mothers by means of talks, demonstrations and special classes, particularly in mothercraft. Some centres are also the distribution points for the national dried milk and vitamin preparations provided for expectant mothers and young children under the Welfare Foods Service (see p. 240). In England and Wales about two out of three babies attend 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 if sufficient hospital beds are available over and above those required for priority cases, i.e. 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. 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 generally. In addition, the expectant mother may attend the ante-natal clinic for instruction in the 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.

Health Visiting. Health visitors, who are qualified nurses with special additional training, give expert advice to mothers in their own homes on such matters as breast feeding, the general care of the baby, and the nurture of children up to five years old. They are also responsible for giving advice on the care of the sick and the measures necessary to prevent the spread of infection.

Vaccination and Immunization. Arrangements are made with doctors for a service providing free vaccination against smallpox, and immunization against diphtheria. Parents cannot be compelled to make use of this service but they are given every encouragement to do so; and the success of the diphtheria immunization campaign is a very hopeful sign. In 1952 there were only 31 deaths from diphtheria in England and Wales as against 2,641 in 1941; in Scotland, only 8 deaths as against 518 in 1941.

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 nearly 1,000 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 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.

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 organizations 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 to the presence of children, old people or mental defectives. This is not one of the free services and authorities are authorized to recover from those assisted such charges as the authorities consider reasonable having regard to the person's means.

Ambulance Services. Free conveyance between home and hospital or clinic is provided where necessary either directly by local health authorities or by arrangement with voluntary organizations. The Hospital Car Service (organized by the British Red Cross Society, the St. John Ambulance Brigade, and the Women's Voluntary Services) provides transport in many areas for patients who do not require an ambulance; 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. Persons of unsound mind who are in need of care and treatment which cannot be provided in their homes may be admitted to mental hospitals as voluntary, temporary or certified patients. If such persons, 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 authorized officer of the local health authority to do so.

Local health authorities have a duty to ascertain mental defectives in the community, to supervise them and to provide suitable training or occupation. This is done by pro-

viding 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.

Control of Infectious Disease. Control of infectious disease is based on four main principles: notification, isolation, supervision of contacts, and immunization. The investigation of outbreaks of infectious disease is the concern of local Medical Officers of Health and of the Public Health Laboratory Service associated with the Medical Research Council (see pp. 267-8).

There are arrangements to deal with certain conditions and diseases which require specialized treatment both to alleviate the sufferings of the patients and to protect the community as a whole, such as the provision of sanatoria and chest clinics for the specialist treatment of tuberculosis, or the provision of treatment centres for venereal disease. Considerable attention is also paid to the prevention of tuberculosis, and of infectious diseases generally. The public is offered free examination by mass miniature radiography for the early detection of chest disease. At the end of 1952, 63 units were operating in England and Wales.

Health Centres. Local health authorities are also responsible for the provision of health centres—buildings in which facilities may be made available for all or any of the main health services, other than hospital beds. A few health centres have already been established, but only a small number can be built until more resources are available for capital construction. In Scotland the provision of health centres is the direct responsibility of the Secretary of State.

The Medical, Dental and Auxiliary 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 minimum period of hospital training required to qualify for registration as a general trained nurse is three years. Training is available also in sick children's, mental, and mental deficiency nursing. The assistant nurse undergoes an essentially practical training for one year, followed by a year's work under supervision before enrolment.

Only registered pharmacists may describe themselves as such, and qualifications requiring four to five years' vocational training are necessary for registration.

Other medical auxiliaries include almoners, chiropodists, dietitians, medical laboratory technicians, occupational therapists, psychiatric social workers, physiotherapists, radiographers and speech therapists. For all these professions a good general education is required followed by a professional training. The length and nature of the training varies according to the profession.

Welfare Foods Service

The Welfare Foods Service, administered by the Ministry of Food, helps to satisfy the special nutritional needs of the 'vulnerable groups' of the population—expectant and nursing mothers and young children—by providing milk and vitamin supplements at a low cost or free of charge. The service began in the early days of the second world war, with the National Milk Scheme which was started in 1940. In 1946 the extended scheme was put on a permanent basis as the Welfare Foods Service and associated with the Family Allowances scheme (see p. 229).

The foods, which are provided at subsidized prices, are: milk, 1 pint a day at 1½d. a pint for expectant mothers, children under five, and children between five and sixteen who are physically or mentally disabled and are unable to attend school where they would

receive milk; National Dried Milk for children under two years as an alternative to liquid milk and at an equivalent price; orange juice, at 5d. a six-fluid-ounce bottle, and 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. Milk and orange juice are supplied free to expectant mothers and to children under school age if the families cannot afford to pay. A free additional allowance of two-thirds of a pint of milk a day is given to children under five in non-residential nurseries. Older children receive milk in school (see p. 244).

Voluntary Aid for the Sick and Handicapped

A number of voluntary organizations 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. A number of convalescent homes, for instance, of a type which is outside the scope of the hospital service are administered by such bodies. Invalid children and others needing care in their own homes are visited and supervised by voluntary organizations. Special organizations also serve the welfare of the blind, the deaf and other special classes. Though the need for material aid from private sources becomes less as public provision extends, many special 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.

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 Service established under the Health Services Act (Northern Ireland), 1948, corresponds 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 service shall be available to citizens in Northern Ireland as in England, Wales and Scotland. The Service in Northern Ireland is 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 but in a public board, the Northern Ireland Hospitals Authority. The Hospitals Authority has under its control 63 hospitals with about 14,000 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 under its control eight hospitals.

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.

EDUCATION

There are over seven million children and young people in full-time attendance at schools or universities in the United Kingdom. Over 90 per cent of school children attend publicly provided or aided schools. In England and Wales, the main development of publicly provided primary education dates from 1870, and that of secondary education from the beginning of this century. The universities are independent, self-governing institutions but they derive an increasing proportion (now over two-thirds) of their funds from public sources. Many schools and colleges continue to benefit from the endowments provided by benefactors in past centuries.

School attendance is compulsory between the ages of 5 and 15 in Great Britain (temporarily 14 in Northern Ireland). In England and Wales over 6,000,000 children, including about 198,500 under and 212,000 over compulsory school age, are attending publicly maintained schools, besides 97,000 others (1,500 under and 26,000 over school age) who are at schools receiving direct grants from the Ministry of Education. There are also about half a million children (some 51,000 of them over 15) at independent schools. In Scotland, 794,000 children are attending publicly maintained or aided schools and about 21,000 are at independent schools. In Northern Ireland, 235,000 children (including 6,000 under and 19,000 over compulsory school age) are attending publicly maintained or aided schools; independent schools are few.

The National System

The national system provides education in three stages; primary, secondary, and (for those who have left school) further education. Local authorities are responsible for ensuring that adequate facilities are available in their areas throughout these stages.

The relation of the central authority (the Ministry of Education in England and Wales, the Scottish Education Department, and the Ministry of Education for Northern Ireland) to local education authorities is based on consultation and co-operation by direct contact with the Minister and the Department and through Her Majesty's Inspectors who act as liaison officers.

The Scottish educational system has a long history independent of that of education in England, but the same general policy is now being implemented throughout the United Kingdom, with some national variations in Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland.

Responsibility for educational services in Northern Ireland lies with the Government of Northern Ireland acting through the Ministry of Education for Northern Ireland.

Schools

In England it is usual for boys and girls to be taught together in primary schools, but more often than not they attend separate secondary schools. Mixed schools are more common in Wales; and in Scotland all but a few city schools take both boys and girls.

Of the publicly provided or aided schools, county schools are provided by the local education authorities; voluntary schools are those which have been provided by a voluntary body (usually of a religious denomination) but are wholly or partly maintained by the local authorities; direct grant schools are independent of the local authorities but receive a grant-in-aid from the Ministry of Education.

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

England, Wales and Northern Ireland. Public provision of secondary education is being greatly extended with the aim of providing for all children an education suited to their particular abilities. The *grammar school* takes children who hope to reach a university and others with an academic bias. Most grammar schools are now either maintained or aided from public funds although many are of ancient foundation. *Secondary modern schools* (intermediate schools in Northern Ireland) are the largest group and give a more general education with a practical bias, closely related to the interests and environment of their pupils; the *secondary technical schools* (technical intermediate schools in Northern Ireland) are the smallest group and offer an education largely related to one or other of the main branches of industry, including commerce, or agriculture. These different types of educa-

tion may be provided in separate schools or combined in one school. Some authorities are experimenting with the large comprehensive school providing all types of secondary education.

Most grammar school pupils remain until they are 16 years old, some till they are 17, 18 or 19. Most secondary modern school pupils at present leave at the age of 15.

The examination system for secondary schools in England and Wales has recently been revised and in 1951 an examination, conducted at three levels, for a General Certificate of Education replaced the former School and Higher School Certificate examinations. Most candidates should be at least 16 years old on 1st September of the year of their examination. In Northern Ireland the Junior Certificate Examination is taken at about the age of 15 and the Senior Certificate Examination at about 17.

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.

The courses, extending to five or six years, normally provided in senior secondary schools lead to presentation for the Scottish Leaving Certificate which is awarded and issued by the Scottish Education Department.

Independent and Public Schools

All independent schools, 'public' or private, are subject to official inspection. The majority of these schools are for boys or for girls only, except in classes for small children. There are, however, a few schools which are co-educational.

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, 1382, and Eton, 1440). The public school is controlled by its Board of Governors, although it may nowadays receive aid from public funds, usually by way of direct grant from the Ministry of Education. Public schools have emphasized the importance of character-building, and in these schools were developed the prefect system, whereby day-to-day discipline is largely controlled by the pupils themselves, and the house system, whereby a school is divided into groups of about 50 each under the care of a housemaster. A public school is often, although not necessarily, a boarding school. The usual age of entry 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.

Private schools are independent schools owned by individuals or groups of individuals. They comprise a variety of day and boarding schools, but are usually comparatively small. They include preparatory schools, usually boarding schools, for boys aged about 8 to 13 who are intending to enter public schools.

Teachers

Teachers are servants of the local education authorities or of the governing bodies or managers of their schools.

In 1952 there was one full-time teacher to 27 pupils in publicly maintained schools in England and Wales; the figure was 24.4 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 some 130 teachers' training colleges in England and Wales giving a training

usually lasting two years to students aged 18 or over, and 23 university training departments providing a one-year course for graduates. In Scotland there are four general training centres, two denominational training 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 teacher training colleges and one university training department. The basic course in the 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 oversea countries each year under interchange schemes or schemes for temporary oversea posts.

Broadcasting and Visual Aids

School broadcasting does not attempt to cover the whole school curriculum, or to replace the teacher, but to add something to what the teacher can give. The School Broadcasting Department of the British Broadcasting Corporation sends out over 50 transmissions a week which reach more than 25,000 schools in the United Kingdom, over 60 per cent of the possible total.

Visual aids to education—films, film strips, wall charts, pictures, and models—are being increasingly used in Britain's schools.

Religion in Schools

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 the voluntary school there is opportunity for denominational religious instruction and in the county school religious instruction of an undenominational character is given. 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.

Health and Welfare of School Children

Special educational treatment, either in special schools or otherwise, is provided for children between 5 and 16 who require it on account of any physical or mental handicap, including maladjustment. There are over 700 special schools in the United Kingdom, including hospital schools, day and boarding schools, and boarding homes for handicapped children attending ordinary schools.

The School Health Service provides regular medical examination and certain free treatment for all children attending schools maintained by local education authorities. Treatment provision includes 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 as part of the National Health Service.

Milk (one-third of a pint a day) is given free to all children in schools who wish to have it, and the School Meals Service provides a daily dinner at a subsidized price (remitted where there is need) to nearly half the pupils in schools maintained by local education authorities. Free transport is provided for children attending these schools who live more than a reasonable walking distance from their schools (two miles for those under eight years and three miles for those over eight years).

Universities

In 1952 there were about 86,000 university students in the United Kingdom. Their number increased by over two-thirds in the years 1939-1949. Nearly three out of four students are being aided from public funds or from scholastic endowments (see p. 246).

The Education Departments have no jurisdiction over the universities, and their relations with them are concerned mainly with the training of teachers, the provision of adult education, and the award of scholarships from public funds. The universities, though self-governing institutions, receive aid from the State in the form of direct grants from the Treasury made on the advice of the University Grants Committee, a committee of individuals, most of whom have academic affiliations, appointed by the Chancellor of the Exchequer.

There are 14 degree-giving, self-governing universities in England and Wales: Oxford, Cambridge, London, Birmingham, Bristol, Durham, Leeds, Liverpool, Manchester, Nottingham, Reading, Sheffield, Southampton and Wales; and four university colleges of lesser status. Oxford and Cambridge, each with a number of colleges, are very old foundations and are residential. Most of the other universities, three of which—London, Durham and Wales—also comprise groups of largely autonomous colleges, are mainly non-residential. The tutorial system of individual tuition, a traditional and valued feature of Oxford and Cambridge universities, is now being developed in the other universities and colleges of Britain.

There are four Scottish universities, all dating from the fifteenth or sixteenth centuries: St. Andrews, Glasgow, Aberdeen and Edinburgh. Northern Ireland has the Queen's University of Belfast and the Magee University College, Londonderry (associated with the Universities of Dublin and Belfast).

Degree courses generally extend over three or four years, though in medicine five or six years are required. All the universities provide for post-graduate work and research.

Further Education

Outside the universities there is a great variety of further education, full-time and part-time, for men and women, and for boys and girls 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 colleges,¹ in evening institutes and in adult education classes. Increasing numbers of young persons are being released by their employers during working hours for part-time education, both vocational and general.

Technical education is related closely both to the needs of the individual industry and of the individual student. There has been a particularly notable post-war increase in art education. A steady programme of development in technical education is being carried out so far as resources permit.

Evening classes for adults are organized by the universities, local education authorities and voluntary bodies, chiefly the Workers' Educational Association, and aided by Government grants. There are six grant-aided residential colleges which provide one-year courses for adult students, and since the end of the war more than 20 residential colleges have been established where adult students can take short courses lasting from a few days to a few weeks.

Technological Education

Technological education is provided, in close co-operation with industry, in both the universities and the technical colleges of Britain. In the technical colleges most of the students are taking part-time national courses while serving an industrial apprenticeship. There has been a great expansion of facilities for technological education since the second world war, and the Government is promoting a further expansion by increased grants for selected technical colleges and courses and the planned expansion of at least one institution of university rank (see p. 263).

¹For further information on art colleges see p. 276.

Educational Building

The requirements of the Education Acts, war damage, population movements and the higher birth-rate have combined to call forth an exceptionally large programme of educational building. In England and Wales the value of all such work approved between 1945 and the end of May 1953 amounted to £312.7 million. This included some 2,571 new schools and about £26.1 million worth of major building for technical education. In Scotland, work to the value of £24 million was approved between 1945 and the end of 1952, during which period about 3,400 rooms were built.

The Exchequer grant-in-aid for universities in Great Britain for the year 1953-54 included £6.5 million for capital developments.

In Northern Ireland, expenditure on school building and improvements between the coming into force of the 1947 Act and 1953 is expected to approach £9 million.

Finance

The bulk of expenditure on education in the United Kingdom comes from public funds: of this public expenditure about 60 per cent comes from taxes and about 40 per cent from local rates. It is estimated for 1953-54 that total Exchequer expenditure from taxes, which is increasing, will be about £262 million for Great Britain, and that local education authorities will spend from rates £147 million on education. Northern Ireland Exchequer expenditure on education is estimated at over £7½ million for 1953-54.

The proportion of university income provided by the Exchequer is increasing and in 1951-52 had reached two-thirds for Great Britain. Another four per cent was contributed by local authorities, 15 per cent by fees, and the balance by endowments and other sources.

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. Local education authorities pay for free places in direct-grant schools and, to a lesser extent, for free and assisted places in independent schools. A number of 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 and 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.

Grants and Scholarships

England and Wales. 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, 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 must be placed at the disposal of the local education authorities if they require them. 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.

Over the past five years the number of scholarships and awards for university students has been greatly increased with the aim of ensuring that no able candidate shall be debarred from a university education for lack of means. The Ministry of Education offered 1,850 State scholarships to young students in 1952 for university honours degree courses, besides 120 technical State scholarships and 30 mature scholarships for students over 25 from adult education classes. In 1952 local education authorities in England and Wales awarded over 9,000 university scholarships with maintenance grants. Numerous exhibitions and scholarships are also awarded from endowments by universities and colleges and private

benefactions. The Ministry supplements university open scholarships and exhibitions as may be necessary.

Scotland. 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.

Northern Ireland. University scholarships in Northern Ireland are awarded either by the local education authorities or from endowment funds. The Ministry of Education awards State exhibitions. Supplementary awards are made by the local education authorities and not, as in England and Wales, by the Ministry.

The Youth Service

The object of the Youth Service 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 of body and spirit, so that they may be better equipped to be responsible members of a free and civilized society. There is no regimentation of young people; they are free to join any of the youth organizations, or none, and the facilities for recreation, educational pursuits and social contacts offered are sufficiently varied to appeal to every type of boy and girl.

Responsibility for the Youth Service is shared by the Education Departments, local education authorities and numerous voluntary organizations. There is no attempt to impose a system of uniformity or to create anything in the nature of a national youth movement. The voluntary organizations, though strengthened financially by State support, retain their independence of action. The practice of democratic self-government has an established place in most youth organizations and service to the community is encouraged. The major voluntary youth organizations have memberships totalling over two million young people under 21 years of age.

Finance is provided by voluntary subscriptions, by contributions from the rates, by grants from the great charitable trusts (such as the King George V Jubilee Trust), and by direct grants from the Education Departments. It is estimated that in the year 1953-54 the Ministry of Education will give £220,000 in direct grants to voluntary youth organizations in England and Wales, while local education authorities will probably spend several times this amount on the Youth Service. In Scotland, in 1951-52 £92,200 was paid in direct grants and £159,500 by education authorities for youth and community services. The Ministry of Education for Northern Ireland estimates that its expenditure on youth work in 1953-54 will exceed £90,000 and local education authorities expect to spend more than £33,000.

Before 1939 youth groups were developed mainly by voluntary organizations. The oldest of these were formed during the nineteenth century and most of them, for example, the *Young Men's Christian Association*, the *Young Women's Christian Association*, the *Boys' Brigade* and the *Church Lads' Brigade*, were religious in origin and purpose. Later organizations, such as the *Boy Scouts' and Girl Guides' Associations*, which, as movements, have no definite affiliation with a religious body although local groups are often attached to a church or chapel, also recognize 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 in the Youth Service since 1918, and in 1939 the then Board of Education decided to take direct responsibility for 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 the Youth Service as an essential part of the educational system, thus recognized in 1939, was confirmed by the Education Act of 1944, and the Education (Scotland) Act of 1945; and, today, 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 organizations are well established, local education authorities are expected to co-operate with them, and where existing services are inadequate, to make provision themselves (usually in the form of Youth Centres which offer varied activities to large groups of young people). Most local education authorities now employ full-time paid youth organizers and have appointed local youth committees or councils, on which official and voluntary bodies are represented.

Besides the voluntary organizations, most of which are members or associates of the Standing Conference of National Voluntary Youth Organizations,¹ there are the pre-Service organizations and the youth organizations of the political parties. In addition, there are a number of bodies which, though not specifically youth organizations, cater for the welfare of young people by providing them with opportunities for physical training, holidays, camping and travel.

Some Youth Organizations

The following examples are selected to illustrate the variety and wide scope of the services and activities provided by voluntary organizations in Britain concerned with the welfare of young people in their leisure hours.

The *Boy Scouts' Association* and the *Girl Guides' Association*, which were founded by Lord Baden-Powell in 1908 and 1910 respectively, are based on the principle of the development of character and good citizenship in boys and girls by training them in habits of observation, self-reliance, self-discipline, loyalty and thoughtfulness 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 1953 the active membership of the Boy Scouts' Association in the United Kingdom reached a record total, including Sea Scouts, of 488,197.

Total membership of the Girl Guides' Association in the United Kingdom at the end of 1952 was 464,318.

The *Boys' Brigade*, which was founded in 1883, is essentially a Protestant religious organization. Every company must be affiliated to a church, and regular attendance at church is a vital principle. Companies have regular drill parades, there are club rooms for games and other pastimes, and organized camping during the summer months is a feature of the movement.

The *Church Lads' Brigade*, which is a similar organization, is attached to the Anglican Church. Companies are formed in parishes under the direct control of the incumbent.

The *National Association of Boys' Clubs* and the *National Association of Mixed Clubs and Girls' Clubs*, which are non-sectarian, provide educative 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 Organizations, which comprise the *Sea Cadet Corps*, the *Army Cadet Force Association* and the *Air Training Corps* (see pp. 83, 86 and 88), 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 organizations, is linked with training to promote their social, educational and physical development.

¹The Standing Conference of National Voluntary Youth Organizations was founded in 1936 as a consultative body that takes action only in the name of its constituent members and with their consent. Its member organizations have a common aim in the development of character through educational and recreational interests, and the promotion of the physical, mental and spiritual training of their members.

Similarly, the *Girls' Training Corps*, the *Girls' Nautical Training Corps* and the *Women's Junior Air Corps* prepare girls for entry into the *Women's Services*.

The *National Federation of Young Farmers' Clubs* (see p. 152) 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.

The *Outward Bound Trust*, which maintains a mountain school at Eskdale, in Cumberland, and sea schools at Aberdovey, in North Wales, and at Moray, in Scotland, provides four-week character-building courses for boys from all walks of life but mainly for young employes in 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, in camping expeditions and through various physical tests. Similar, but modified, courses for girls are held from time to time, chiefly at Bisham Abbey, in Berkshire.

The *Youth Hostels Association*, 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 one or two shillings a night when on walking or cycling tours or canoe trips. The movement has a membership of over 200,000, and maintains 300 hostels in England and Wales. There is a membership in Scotland of some 40,000 with 90 hostels, and of almost 5,000 in Northern Ireland where there are 23 hostels. The Association is linked closely with similar organizations in other countries, and, through its International Travel Bureau, encourages and facilitates the exchange of visits.

Political Party Youth Groups, which are junior branches of the political parties in the United Kingdom, are maintained by each of the leading parties to spread party doctrine 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.

Youth Sections. There are several other adult voluntary organizations having a particular function which maintain youth sections; for example, the *British Red Cross Society* and the *St. John Ambulance Brigade* train their young members in first aid and home-nursing.

The *Central Council of Physical Recreation*, on which the leading voluntary youth organizations are represented, is grant-aided by the Ministry of Education and by the corresponding Departments in Scotland and Northern Ireland. It was founded in 1935 to improve the physical and mental health of the community through physical recreation. The Central Council arranges training courses, provides instructors in games and athletics, plans and judges athletic competitions and organizes demonstrations of sport and physical training. It also arranges training holidays for young people in its three National Recreation Centres.

The *National Playing Fields Association* is another central organization which provides amenities for the Youth Service. It was founded in 1925 to secure adequate playing fields and playgrounds for young people, either directly or in co-operation with local authorities and youth associations.

HOUSING AND PLANNING

The problems of housing and of planning the use of land in Britain have their origins mainly in the sevenfold expansion of the population in the last two and a half centuries and its concentration in industrial urban areas (see pp. 6 and 10). This gave rise to overcrowding in the older houses in the centres of cities and to the unplanned spread of outer suburbs. Overcrowding persisted in spite of a high rate of building in the nineteen-thirties and was aggravated by the second world war which left behind increased needs and new

opportunities for planning and housing. New building had virtually ceased for six years, while the United Kingdom population had risen by nearly 1½ million; meanwhile, approximately one house in every three had been destroyed or damaged by enemy action.

From 1919 to 1951 responsibility for housing rested with the Minister of Health (for England and Wales) and with the Secretary of State for Scotland. In 1943 a Ministry of Town and Country Planning was set up to formulate and supervise the execution of a national policy for the use and development of land in England and Wales; similar powers were vested in the Secretary of State for Scotland. In January 1951 the housing and local government functions of the Ministry of Health were combined with those of town and country planning in the new Ministry of Local Government and Planning. In October 1951 this ministry became the Ministry of Housing and Local Government.

Ministerial Responsibility for Housing and Planning

The Ministry of Housing and Local Government is responsible for formulating housing policy, for housing standards, for general supervision of the housing programme and for the administration of general planning policy. In planning, the Ministry 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 Ministry of Works acts as production authority for certain building materials and equipment; it is also responsible for general building efficiency, for relations with the building industry and for the operation of the licensing system, partly through local authorities. The Ministry of Labour and National Service regulates the supply of labour to the building industry and its ancillary trades; and the Building Apprenticeship and Training Council keeps under review the industry's long-term labour needs and the measures necessary to maintain the skilled labour force. The Ministry of Agriculture is responsible for advising on the agricultural value of land proposed for housing or other development. The Ministry of Materials is the distribution authority for timber, and the Board of Trade is responsible for regulating the distribution of industrial development (see p. 130). An Inter-Departmental Committee on Services' Land Requirements meets to harmonize service and civilian needs and proposals for land use.

In Scotland local housing and planning authorities are supervised by the Department of Health, and a statutory body, the Scottish Special Housing Association, assists local authorities in their housing programmes. It is financed entirely from Government funds and is under the general direction of the Secretary of State for Scotland.

In Northern Ireland the Ministry of Health and Local Government is responsible for housing and planning. The Northern Ireland Housing Trust was set up in 1945 as a public authority to build and manage houses for workers.

Housing

The one per cent sample of the 1951 Census of Great Britain showed the number of occupied structurally separate dwellings in Great Britain as 13,312,000, the number of private households as 14,481,000 (of which 2,079,000 were in shared dwellings), and the excess of households over dwellings as 1,169,000 (see pp. 11-12). The average number of persons per room was 0.76.

National Housing Policy

In January 1952 the Government decided that there should be no fixed limit to the housing programme. House production would be expanded over the next three years as rapidly as the resources of materials and labour that could be made available would allow. Local authorities' programmes might be increased at any time if they could show that more houses could be built in their districts with local resources.

The three main objectives would be: the maintenance of an adequate supply of houses available for letting to families in need of houses; a greater discretion to individual local authorities to meet the varied needs of different districts; and the encouragement of house ownership for those who wished to acquire their own homes.

While the main emphasis is on new construction, every other possible method of re-housing is employed, including repair and reconditioning of damaged or dilapidated property, conversion, and the use of requisitioned properties and adapted Service camps.

The urgent need for additional dwellings has necessarily delayed resumption of the attack on obsolete and slum houses which, immediately before the second world war, were being replaced at the rate of over 60,000 a year. In September 1952 the Minister of Housing and Local Government called on local authorities to turn their attention to this problem as soon as possible, and a start is being made. (See also Appendix.)

Housing Powers and Duties of Local Authorities

While responsibility for housing policy and for the general execution of the housing programme rests with the Minister of Housing and Local Government (the Secretary of State in Scotland), local authorities have executive responsibility for housing in their areas (including building by Housing Associations and Self-Help Groups building in their spare time for the benefit of members). Local authorities are also responsible to the Ministry of Works for the local operation of the licensing system for private building. In England and Wales these authorities are the councils of county boroughs, 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.

These authorities must ensure as far as possible that housing conditions in their areas are satisfactory. To this end they must draw up and submit plans for the provision of new houses in their districts, and ensure that other dwellings in their areas comply with certain standards of fitness, design, construction, equipment, etc. They may themselves provide houses for letting by new building or by the conversion of existing buildings. The Minister has given a general consent to the sale on certain conditions of their houses to occupying tenants or to persons in need of a house for themselves.

Private Building

Private house-building without subsidy or grant can be carried on only under a building licence issued by the local authority as agent for the Ministry of Works, and is normally restricted to houses having a superficial floor area of not more than 1,500 square feet (139.3 square metres). The licence is subject till December 1953 to a condition fixing the maximum selling price and rental, as determined by the local authority and varying according to size and type of house, local building costs, etc. To maintain continuity of building on sites owned by builders, and so increase efficiency, local authorities are being encouraged to issue blocks of licences for the erection of a suitable number of houses.

A licence from the local authority is required for all building work in excess of £500 in any year on an existing house. This limit is to be raised to £1,000 in January 1954.

Use of Resources

Apart from softwood, most materials and components are found from home production. As softwood has to be imported, mostly from dollar countries, its use is strictly controlled.¹ A general control over the use of materials is otherwise exercised by the scrutiny of plans and specifications and by the licensing system.

Early in 1952 the Minister of Housing and Local Government set up eleven Regional Housing Production Boards to advise upon and assist the progress of local housing programmes and the overcoming of shortages.

¹Control of the use of softwood was discontinued in November 1953.

Much research has been and is being done on design, construction and equipment. Components have been standardized and new methods and materials have been evolved to ease the strain on skilled workers and traditional materials.

To help to meet the immediate post-war need, the Government provided over 157,000 temporary factory-built houses for erection on sites provided by local authorities. Within four years from April 1945 the programme had been completed at a cost of £216 million for the houses and their erection.

A number of non-traditional forms of construction for permanent houses were also developed with practical encouragement from the Government during the experimental period. Some types were steel-framed, some of pre-cast concrete, some concrete poured *in situ*, and some timber-framed. A number of proved new systems have been able to compete successfully with traditional house-building methods, and are making an increasing contribution to the housing programme.

Standards of Accommodation

Despite shortages, local authorities are now building better houses than before the second world war.

The central Departments have issued manuals of guidance for local authorities setting standards of space, structure, design and equipment for different types of houses.

Housing Costs and Subsidies

The cost of building for a local authority the average three-bedroom traditional house (with a superficial area of 1,050 square feet, 97·8 square metres) was about £1,450 for houses completed in October 1951, with another £240 for land, roads and services and professional fees. Since 1951 new designs have been introduced to achieve economies in space and to keep down the cost per house.

To enable local authorities, notwithstanding the high cost of building, to let their houses at reasonable rents, subsidies are provided under the Housing (Financial and Miscellaneous Provisions) Act, 1946, and the Housing Act, 1952. Housing subsidies have existed since 1919, but they are now on a more generous scale than ever before. The standard rate is £26 14s. per house per year for 60 years from the Exchequer and £8 18s. from the local authority.

Special rates of subsidy are provided for special types of housing, including houses for agricultural workers, houses in poor areas, and flats and houses on expensive sites, also where expensive works are necessary in order to minimize the risk of subsidence due to mining operations. All subsidy rates are reviewed annually.

The Housing Act, 1949, provides Exchequer assistance for the improvement of existing housing or adaptation of buildings for housing, by public authorities or private owners. Grants can be made by local authorities, with Exchequer assistance, to persons converting or improving existing buildings for housing at a cost of between £150 and £800 per dwelling. The grants, to which certain conditions are attached, may amount to as much as half the cost. A subsidy for residential hostels built by local authorities or by certain other bodies is also granted under the Act.

Subsidies are similarly provided in Scotland, though the amounts are generally higher owing to the different rating system.

House Purchase Schemes

Loans to enable persons to buy their houses by a system of instalment purchase extending over several years are provided by some local authorities as well as by building societies, certain insurance companies and other financial institutions. The total amount advanced by building societies in 1952 for mortgage purchases was £268 million.

Control of Rents and Prices

The great majority of the privately owned houses in Great Britain which are let are subject to rent control. Houses owned by local authorities are, in general, free from control.

The first Rent Restrictions Act was passed in 1915. The Acts now in force, either wholly or in part, are the Rent and Mortgage Interest Restrictions Acts, 1920 to 1939, and the Landlord and Tenant (Rent Control) Act, 1949. These Rent Restrictions Acts, which apply, with few exceptions, to all unfurnished dwellings below a certain rateable value, achieve their purpose of preventing undue rises in rent, liable to result from housing shortages, by limiting 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. This protection applies to anyone buying a controlled house on mortgage. The standard rent (i.e. the maximum the landlord can recover) is fixed by reference to the rent payable on a certain date (for 'old control' houses 3rd August 1914; for 'new control' houses 1st September 1939). The standard rent of a house let for the first time since 1st September 1939 is the rent at which it was first let except where the standard rent has been reduced by a rent tribunal. (For proposed new legislation see Appendix.)

The rents paid for furnished accommodation in England and Wales are controlled by the Furnished Houses (Rent Control) Act, 1946. The Act provides for the control of rents of houses or parts of houses let furnished or with services, without limitation by rent or rateable value. 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, and the standard rent of houses let for the first time since 1st September 1939 on the application of either party. Similar legislation for controlling rents of furnished lettings was passed for Scotland in 1943.

Post-war Housing Progress

By 30th June 1953, 1½ million new houses, permanent and temporary, had been built in Great Britain since early 1945, and about 314,000 more were under construction. The total number of families rehoused in this period (by new buildings, repair of uninhabitable houses and conversion) was 1,654,019. Of the 1,401,575 permanent houses built, 263,081 were of non-traditional types. One in seven of the 164,279 permanent houses completed in Scotland have been built by the Scottish Special Housing Association.

The Northern Ireland Housing Trust was responsible for 10,911 of the 41,015 houses built in Northern Ireland between January 1945 and the end of June 1953.

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 industrialization 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 also decades of expansion in industry, engineering and housebuilding; the population was still increasing; and there was a general movement towards better standards of living which required more space for individual members of the community. 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, and 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 during the course of the war. Between 1939 and 1943 three expert committees were appointed to study and report upon (a) the unregulated growth and spread of industry, (b) the hampering of planning by difficulties of compensation and betterment, and (c) the encroachment of urban development upon the countryside. After the war, two other committees studied the question of New Towns and National Parks, respectively.

Almost all the principal planning recommendations of these five 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, and the National Parks and Access to the Countryside Act, 1949.

The Town and Country Planning Acts, 1947

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 the United Kingdom (except Northern Ireland to which the Acts do not apply). Their main purposes are:

1. To co-ordinate planning throughout the country by means of development plans against which day-to-day development can be considered.
2. To bring all development, with certain exceptions, under control by making it subject to the permission of a local planning authority or of central Government.
3. To deal with certain specific problems of amenity, e.g., the preservation of trees and woodlands and of buildings of special architectural and historic interest.
4. 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 redevelopment of land.

The Acts also dealt with compensation and development charges,¹ but the experience of four years revealed serious practical difficulties in the working of the financial provisions relating to these matters. Some changes were therefore made by the Town and Country Planning Act, 1953, and more far-reaching amendments are proposed.

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 the Secretary of State for Scotland, respectively, development plans covering the whole of their areas, based on a careful survey of physical and other resources. The local authorities for the purpose are: in England and Wales, the county councils, the county borough councils, or, where necessary, joint planning boards; and in Scotland, the county councils, the large burghs or joint planning committees. Smaller units of local government may assist in the work in areas of interest to them, and provision is made for public inquiry before any plan receives ministerial approval, so that persons whose land is affected may have an opportunity to state their case.

¹Charges payable under the 1947 Acts in certain cases where the grant of planning permission to develop land increased the value of the land. Development charges were abolished by the Town and Country Planning Act, 1953.

By the end of March 1953, 130 local planning authorities in England and Wales had submitted completed plans to the Minister of Housing and Local Government. In Scotland, 17 authorities had submitted plans to the Secretary of State for Scotland.

Planning Control

The powers of control over development granted to planning authorities by the Acts enable them to prevent building over good agricultural land or over land containing valuable mineral deposits, to restrain the outward sprawl of the great towns, to improve living conditions and industrial efficiency, and to preserve the countryside and coastline from further disfigurement and destruction.

Planning Progress

Few results of large-scale replanning can as yet be recorded, since the labour force, raw materials and financial reserves required are not available in sufficient strength or quantity. Nevertheless by the end of March 1953 many of the essential preliminary measures had been taken, e.g., 63 declaratory orders¹ covering 4,714 acres (1,908 ha.) in England and Wales had been obtained from the Minister of Housing and Local Government, while in Scotland one order covering approximately 70 acres (28 ha.) had been obtained from the Secretary of State for Scotland. Moreover special provision had been made for the reconstruction of the centres of the more badly war-damaged cities. Rebuilding valued at about £10.5 million had been completed, further work of reconstruction costing £8 million had been started in provincial cities, and £10 million had been made available for this purpose in the City of London.

The Distribution of Industry

The Distribution of Industry Act, 1945, makes provision for a proper balance of industry throughout the country. Under the terms of the Act, the Board of Trade, as the responsible Department, has wide powers to promote industrial development in what are called Development Areas, i.e. areas in Britain which, in the past, have been peculiarly liable to severe unemployment in times of depression owing to their dependence for employment and prosperity on a few basic industries.² Problems of industrial development outside the Development Areas are dealt with jointly by a number of Government Departments, but the main responsibility for advising on the selection of sites rests with the 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.

The New Towns

The New Towns Act, 1946, gives the Government powers to create New Towns in order to decentralize and disperse industry and industrial population from congested areas. Under the terms of the Act, the Minister of Housing and Local Government and the Secretary of State for Scotland, who are the responsible ministers, may, after consultation with the local authorities concerned, make an order designating any area of land as the site of a proposed New Town. An existing town may be included within the area. Once the site has been designated, a Development Corporation is established with the function of preparing a master plan, which, when it has received the approval of the Minister, or the Secretary of State for Scotland, becomes the basis for detailed proposals. These proposals must be submitted to the Minister, or to the Secretary of State for Scotland, before any action may be taken.

¹A declaratory order is an order which decrees that all land to which it refers will be subject to compulsory purchase whenever it is needed for planning purposes.

²See also p. 130.

The Development Corporations have powers, subject to the consent of the Minister, or the Secretary of State for Scotland, to acquire (by agreement or by compulsory purchase) any land or property necessary for their purposes. They may also take over the provision of public services in designated areas, if this should be considered desirable; and they may provide any housing accommodation which local authorities are empowered to provide. The capital cost of developing each New Town will be advanced to the corporations from public funds;¹ the corporations will then be responsible for repayment on terms approved by the Treasury. The corporations must submit their accounts and reports to Parliament annually.

When the purposes for which Development Corporations are established have been substantially achieved, the corporations are to be dissolved and the towns taken over by the appropriate local authorities.

Achievements in New Towns

Although the New Towns have shared in the handicaps imposed by the various short-ages previously mentioned, they represent a notable achievement in the translation of planning into action. By 1953, 12 New Towns in England and Wales and two in Scotland had been designated and their Development Corporations set up. Eight of these towns—Basilston and Harlow in Essex, Hemel Hempstead, Stevenage, Hatfield and Welwyn in Hertfordshire, Crawley in Sussex, and Bracknell in Berkshire—are designed to help in absorbing excess industry and population from the London area; the remaining six—Corby in Northamptonshire, Aycliffe and Peterlee in Durham, Cwmbran in Monmouthshire, and the Scottish New Towns of East Kilbride, in Lanarkshire, and Glenrothes, in Fife—are to serve the needs of growing industrial and mining areas.

In England and Wales the total population planned for these New Towns when completed is 480,000. By January 1953 it had already increased from the original 122,330 by between 38,000 and 39,000 persons, and it is estimated that if the present rate of progress can be kept up, all the remaining people will be provided for in another nine to ten years. In all 14 New Towns satisfactory results have been achieved in the provision of basic public services, e.g., water supplies, drainage, roads, gas, electricity, etc.; good progress has been made in housing and in industrial development—by the end of June 1953, 12,790 new houses had been completed and 1,248,580 square feet of factory space had been provided—and advances are being made in the provision of such communal services and amenities as schools, churches, shopping centres, recreation grounds, community centres, and licensed premises.

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 and relatively wild country in England and Wales as National Parks. The characteristic landscape of these areas is to be carefully preserved, and facilities for open-air recreation are to be improved or provided.

A National Parks Commission for England and Wales was set up by the Act of 1949, and by 1953 the first six of the 12 National Parks recommended by the Hobhouse Committee² had been established. These are: the Peak District, the Lake District, Snowdonia in North Wales, Dartmoor in Devonshire, the Pembrokeshire Coast in South Wales, and the North Yorkshire Moors. An administrative system is now in operation for the first five of these parks. The Peak and Lake District National Parks are administered by Joint Planning Boards. For Dartmoor and the Pembrokeshire Coast a special

¹The Parliamentary Secretary to the Ministry of Housing and Local Government stated in the House of Commons, in June 1953, that the total cost in the 14 New Towns will be about £250 million. Of this sum, £150 million has already been sanctioned.

²The National Parks (England and Wales) Committee, which reported in 1947.

Park Planning Committee of the county council has been set up, while in Snowdonia a Joint Advisory Committee will advise the three county councils who will continue to be responsible for planning.

The Nature Conservancy, established by Royal Charter in 1949, was given additional powers under the National Parks Act to arrange for the setting up of Nature Reserves suitable for the preservation and study of Britain's flora and fauna. Four of these reserves were declared in July 1953: Kingley Vale, Sussex; Blean Woods and Ham Street Woods, both in Kent; and Monk's Wood, in Huntingdonshire.

The National Parks Act also provides for a complete survey of all footpaths and bridleways. This will be the first comprehensive national record of public rights of way, establishing them once and for all. This is being done with the assistance of parish and district councils; the surveys will be collated and published by county councils. The maintenance of footpaths and other rights of way and the creation of new ones, where desirable, will also be the responsibility of local authorities.

There is also provision in the Act for long-distance routes, i.e. connecting footpaths and bridleways with continuous rights of way. The National Parks Commission makes proposals for the provision of such routes and their maintenance; once the proposals are approved by the Minister of Housing and Local Government, it falls to the local authorities to give effect to them. The Pennine Way, which runs from Edale in the Peak District to the Scottish Border, a distance of some 250 miles (400 km.), was approved in 1951. A route along the north coast of Cornwall from Devon around Land's End to Penzance was approved in 1952. Further routes under consideration are Offa's Dyke, running from the coast of Flintshire down the Welsh Marches to Chepstow; a path round the Pembrokeshire coast; and an extension of the Cornwall north coast path from Penzance along the south coast.

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 and beach, and empowers them to improve such access where necessary by means of agreements with owners, or by access orders.

The Scottish National Parks Working Party has considered all five areas recommended as National Parks in Scotland with a view to their possible development under the existing statutory powers, and has submitted to the Secretary of State for Scotland a report on each of these areas. The Scottish Committee of the Nature Conservancy established its first national Nature Reserve on the slopes of Beinn Eighe in the deer forest of Kinlochewe in Ross and Cromarty. It has also established a second national nature reserve at Morton Lochs, Fife, and a third at Tentsmuir, Fife.

Planning in Northern Ireland

Planning legislation in Northern Ireland provides for the preparation by local authorities of planning schemes for the development or redevelopment of their areas with the object of securing proper sanitary conditions, amenities and the most suitable laying out and use of land. Since the passing of the Planning (Interim Development) Act (Northern Ireland), 1944, the authorities concerned have made appreciable progress in the preparation of outline advisory plans, which indicate broadly the proposals for their areas. The outline advisory plans provide a foundation for the preparation of more detailed plans at a later stage and facilitate the control of development pending the completion of the final schemes.

XI. RELIGION, SCIENCE, AND THE ARTS

RELIGION

Every person living in Britain possesses the rights of religious freedom as they are described in article 18 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights; that is, he may change his religion at will and may manifest his religion in teaching, practice, worship and observance. Churches and religious societies of any faith may own property, conduct schools and propagate their faith in speech and writing. Freedom of conscience for minority religious groups and for non-religious groups has been achieved gradually and not without a struggle.

The Church of England and the Anglican Communion

The Church of England 'by law established' occupies a middle position between the Roman Catholic Church and Continental Protestantism. At the Reformation it repudiated the supremacy of the Pope and certain religious doctrines but retained the creeds, the historic episcopate and liturgical worship, the last being embodied in the Book of Common Prayer. Religious Orders were restored a hundred years ago. No single law defines the establishment of the Church of England in any such way as, for example, the Act of Union, 1707, defines the position of the Church of Scotland. The relation of Church and State in England is one of mutual obligations, of privileges accorded to the Church but balanced by certain duties. The Church of England is uniquely related to the Crown. 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. Prayers for the Sovereign are said in all the statutory services of the Church and the clergy take the oath of allegiance to the Crown.

The second link of Church and State is through the House of Lords, in which the two archbishops of Canterbury and York and 24 bishops have seats. This makes it possible for the mind of the Church to be freely expressed on any great moral issue raised in connection with the corporate conduct of the State, as well as on more narrowly ecclesiastical issues. Clergy of the Church of England are legally disqualified from sitting in the House of Commons. All bishops and deans are appointed by the Sovereign on the advice of the Prime Minister. The State upholds sentences passed in ecclesiastical courts (see p. 67). The highest court of appeal from an ecclesiastical court is the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council.

The State recognizes and protects church property. It makes no payments to the Church except for services rendered (e.g., chaplaincies to the armed forces and to prisons). 'Church property' belongs to parishes, dioceses or church societies. Half the Church's income comes from present giving and half from past giving, in the form of endowments. Endowments produce an income of £8 $\frac{3}{4}$ million a year and, of this total, property representing an annual income of £7 million is administered by the Church Commissioners, most of it for specific purposes from which it cannot be transferred. The State is represented on this body and it reports annually to Parliament.

The Established Church is not free to change its forms of worship, as laid down in the Book of Common Prayer, without the consent of Parliament. A proposed revision (1928) was accepted by the Church Assembly and the Convocations of Canterbury and York (see p. 259), though with substantial minority opposition in some of the Houses, but was rejected by the House of Commons. A Church-appointed commission on Church-State

relations reported in January 1952 and suggested certain changes in the relations between Church and State, but it was opposed to disestablishment; its report was unanimously accepted by the Church Assembly.

The Church is organized by geographical areas (parishes and dioceses), and not by congregations. Every Englishman is born in a parish—about two-thirds being baptized by the Established Church—and he tends to look to the Church for personal services (baptism of children, marriage and burial) and to expect it to play a part in local life. Only those who are baptized and confirmed may receive the Holy Communion but anyone who is baptized and not a member of another Church may apply for membership of the electoral roll in the parish. The total number on the roll is just under 3 million, but about two-thirds of the population of the country fulfil the two necessary qualifications.

Spiritual authority in the Church of England rests in the bishops. There are 43 dioceses, 29 in the province of Canterbury and 14 in that of York. The most ancient authoritative bodies in the Church in matters of doctrine and discipline are the Convocations of Canterbury and York. Each is presided over by its archbishop and consists of an upper house of bishops and a lower house of deans, archdeacons and elected clergy. The Houses of Convocation meet separately or together in May and October.

In 1919 by Act of Parliament the Church of England was given a National Assembly, commonly called the Church Assembly. This consists of three houses, Bishops, Clergy and Laity. The Laity (345 in number, including about 80 women) are elected on the basis of the electoral roll to represent their dioceses. The Church Assembly may pass regulations and measures. Regulations affect matters which do not require parliamentary consent, thus, for example, the Diocesan Conferences were set up in 1935 by regulation. Measures, when passed through successive stages, are presented to the Ecclesiastical Committee (15 members from the House of Commons and 15 from the House of Lords). This committee reports on the expediency and possible legal results of the measure. On its advice the measure is either laid before Parliament and forwarded on resolution for the Royal Assent or, more rarely, is the subject of debate like any other Bill. The advantages to the State are the removal of the greater part of church business from its overcrowded debating time, and to the Church the initiation, discussion and framing of necessary matters by a fully representative church body and their speedy passing into operation.

The Assembly co-ordinates the vast scattered labours of the Church through Councils which report to it annually. The Training Colleges Council maintains 24 colleges for the training of teachers—an indication of the part played by the Church in the country's educational system. The Schools Council, in co-operation with the National Society, deals with matters affecting the Church Schools. Other councils include the Central Advisory Council of Training for the Ministry. Selection of ordination candidates lies in the power of the bishops, but they have recently agreed that candidates under 40 shall attend one of the Council's 'selection centres' where a group of assessors spend several days with the men, advise them which of the 22 theological colleges would best suit their needs, and discuss with those who are rejected the possibility of serving the Church as laymen.

At the time when the Church Assembly was set up the laity were associated in the government of the local churches through new elected bodies, the Parochial Church Councils.

There are Anglican Churches in Ireland, Scotland and Wales, but these are not established. The Church of Ireland has 14 dioceses and united dioceses, and some 400,000 members; the Episcopal Church in Scotland, seven dioceses and some 108,500 members; and the Church in Wales, six dioceses and some 200,000 members.

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, and West Africa are all autonomous members of the Anglican Com-

munion, while there are 21 oversea dioceses, mainly in Africa and Asia, which are under the jurisdiction of the Archbishop of Canterbury.

Since 1867, except for the war years, the Lambeth Conference has met every tenth year as an unofficial consultation between all Anglican bishops. It has no authority but enjoys great moral prestige, and its findings on doctrine, discipline, relations with other communions, and on the attitude of the Churches to political and social questions are widely read. In August 1954 the first of a series of Anglican Congresses, including clergy not in episcopal orders and laymen as well as bishops, will be held in Minneapolis, Minnesota, U.S.A. The Congresses will take place between the Lambeth Conferences.

The Church of Scotland and other Presbyterian Churches

The Church of Scotland, which in government is Presbyterian, has been described as 'the supreme example of a Church which is established and yet is free'. Whereas Episcopacy in church government is a hierarchy of persons, in Presbyterianism there is a hierarchy of courts. All ministers are of equal status, and the Church is governed locally by the Kirk Session, consisting of the minister and elected elders: above this is the court of the Presbytery, then that 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 complete independence of the Church of Scotland to appoint its own officers and decide all matters of doctrine and discipline has been fought for by the Church with the utmost vigour down the years. The freedom of the Church is recognized by Parliament without being the subject of 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 the country. The communicant membership of the Church is a million and a quarter.

Next in size among Presbyterian Churches is the Presbyterian Church in Ireland. The Presbyterian Church of England is organized in 14 Presbyteries and its highest court is the General Assembly. It admits women to the eldership.

The Free Churches

The largest of the Free Churches is the Methodist Church, the product of a union of Methodist Churches in 1932. It has three-quarters of a million full members. The supreme authority in the Church 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. It is not, however, the form of government that distinguishes Methodists from other Churches. Starting as a powerful evangelistic movement within the Church of England under the leadership of the brothers John and Charles Wesley, the Methodists had no idea of founding a Church until forbidden to preach by ecclesiastical authority. One of the Church's characteristics is its strong emphasis on lay leadership. There are more than 25,000 trained lay preachers sharing the ministers' work and preaching in thousands of local churches.

The Congregational and Baptist Churches both regard the Church as a covenanted fellowship of believers, ministers being called to special service and set aside, trained and recognized by the Church. Local churches have formed county and national unions, whose secretariat and assemblies, however, have no compulsive authority over them, though much influence.

The Congregationalists in Britain number 227,000 and the Baptists 335,600. They are the two oldest dissenting bodies, and the importance they attach to the autonomy of the local church meeting has been an influential factor in the development of British democratic methods. They are the only Churches in Britain which admit women to the Ministry. Baptists differ from Congregationalists in not practising infant baptism.

The Society of Friends, or Quakers, have no ordained ministry, and do not observe the Sacraments. They have borne a consistent witness to pacifism, and their influence, especially in social reform and the relief of suffering, has been out of all proportion to their number (20,000). The Unitarian and Free Christian Churches deny the necessity of Trinitarian belief. The Salvation Army, founded in 1878 by William Booth, a Methodist, replaces ecclesiastical by military terminology. William Booth's mission to the poorest attracted first the scorn and then the respect of a large public. The movement is now world-wide and its social work is well supported.

The Christian Scientists have over 340 branch churches and societies in Britain.

The Roman Catholic Church

The Roman Catholic Church in the United Kingdom claims nearly four million adherents. The head of the Church in England is the Archbishop of Westminster. There are 18 dioceses and nearly 2,000 parishes. The insistence of the Church on the education of children in its own schools has led to the building of elementary schools in the parishes at great sacrifice. The Church resists any attempt by the State to take over these schools. Schools, social work and many institutions are staffed by the great Roman Catholic Orders for men and women.

Jewry

The virtual destruction of whole Jewish communities on the Continent has left English Jewry as the largest group of Jews in Europe. These same events have caused religious organizations among Jews to gain in numbers and influence. The two main divisions are between Orthodox and Progressive Jews and each has within it several groups of congregations and synagogues. The Chief Rabbi is the head of the largest group within the Orthodox Jews.

Muslim Community

Among other non-Christian communities in Britain, the Muslims 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.

Co-operation between Churches

An outstanding feature of the past decade has been the growth of co-operation between the Churches. The British Council of Churches was founded in 1942 and includes official representatives from all the Churches of the British Isles with the 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. The Church of England, the Church of Scotland and the Free Churches in England, Scotland, Ireland and Wales also participate in the World Council of Churches which was constituted at Amsterdam, Holland, in 1948, and now links together 160 Churches in 45 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 continued 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.

THE PROMOTION OF THE SCIENCES

While the promotion of the sciences 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.

In medical research, apart from that undertaken by Government institutions, important work is done by such independent organizations as the British Empire Cancer Campaign, the Imperial Cancer Research Fund, and the Nuffield Foundation, and by some large pharmaceutical firms.

The Learned Societies

The learned societies have had a profound and lasting influence upon the development and organization 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 forgather 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 among these are the Institution of Civil Engineers, the Institution of Mechanical Engineers, the Institution of Electrical Engineers, the Institution of Metallurgists, the Royal Institute of Chemistry and the Institute of Physics.

The Royal Society, 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, archæology 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, if not all, of the Advisory Councils of Government Departments.

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. 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, issues a large number of publications, including the *Philosophical Transactions* and the *Proceedings*, and convenes conferences which are attended by scientists from all countries.

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 specialized 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 recognized 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.

The British Association for the Advancement of Science was founded in 1831 to promote general interest in science and its applications. At the present day one of its chief activities is the Annual Meeting. 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. Collaboration with other scientific organizations has always been an important function of the British Association, and it has an organized 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.

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 (applied science, engineering, metallurgy, industrial fermentation, etc.). Early in 1953 it was decided that the Imperial College of Science and Technology (part of London University) should undergo a major expansion with the aim of increasing the number of scientists and technologists under full-time training from the present figure of 1,650 to 3,000 by the end of 1962.

The 19 universities and the four university colleges in the United Kingdom (see p. 245) all have laboratories or research departments. About two-thirds of the income of the universities comes from Government sources. There is no direct departmental control and the method of administering the grant—through the University Grants Committee (see p. 245)—ensures 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. By these means the universities are closely associated with the Government research departments and with the most important industries in the country.

Research in Industry

Industrial research in Great Britain is conducted by individual industrial firms and organizations independently of Government aid, by co-operative Research Associations which make use of facilities afforded by the Government, by sponsored research institutes, and by universities and a number of the major technical colleges.

Industrial Organizations

The Industrial Research Secretariat of the Federation of British Industries has conducted a comprehensive survey (1945-46) of the research work done in private organizations (*Scientific and Technical Research in British Industry*, FBI, July 1947). This showed that about 1,000 British firms were conducting research: 420 spent at least £1,000 a year on research, and the total sum spent by industry on research and development was approximately £30 million. The number of workers engaged in industrial research was estimated at 45,000; about 10,000 were qualified staff with a university degree or equivalent, and nearly one-half of these were chemists. About 100 firms had first-class research facilities and extensive research programmes which embraced both pure and applied research. The survey showed that about 300 firms were in touch with universities and technical colleges on research questions, and 60 firms had a very close connection, through endowing scholarships and research fellowships, with appropriate universities. It also revealed that more than 300 of the firms surveyed were members of a Research Association and that more than half of these were members of more than one Research Association.

A later report (*Research and Development in British Industry*, FBI, July 1952) suggested that, in the year 1950-51, the total expenditure on research and development had increased by between 50 and 100 per cent since 1945-46, and the number of qualified staff by about 50 per cent. The other figures remained substantially the same.

Research Associations

One of the first acts of the Advisory Council for Scientific and Industrial Research (see pp. 265 and 267), when it was established in 1915, was to recommend a scheme by which the Government associated itself with groups of firms having similar interests to form Research Associations. Today there are 43 such Research Associations,¹ with a combined income of more than £3 million, of which two-fifths is contributed by the Government through the Industrial Grants Committee of the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research (see p. 267). 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 on which the large majority are representatives of industry. The councils are advised by research committees in the preparation of research programmes.

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. They are establishments where research can be carried out confidentially so that the results and any patents which may arise from it are retained as the property of the sponsoring body. Examples of such institutes are the *Fulmer Research Institute* and the *Sondes Place Research Institute*.

National Research Development Corporation. The National Research Development Corporation was set up by the Board of Trade in 1948. Its function is primarily to develop and exploit, in the public interest, inventions resulting from research carried out by Government Departments and other public bodies. It is an independent body, subject only to general direction by the Board of Trade, with powers to borrow from Government funds

¹For a complete list of these Research Associations see the Annual Report of the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research, 1951-52, pp. 3-4.

up to £5 million in the first five years of its life. Projects selected for development include electronic digital computers, Merton diffraction gratings and the production of hecogenin for the manufacture of cortisone.

Government Research Organization

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 Greenwich¹—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 'for the safeguarding of seamen' the Meteorological Office was established by the Board of Trade. All these Government Departments were using scientific knowledge but there was little organized effort towards the application of the discoveries made in pure science. Government scientific organization, 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 comprehensive 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 organizations 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.

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 (see pp. 41 and 267). The Advisory Council for Scientific and Industrial Research (to which all proposals for new work are referred by the DSIR in the first instance) was given responsibility for (1) instituting specific researches; (2) establishing or developing special institutions or departments of existing institutions for the specific study of problems affecting particular industries or trades; (3) the establishment and award of research studentships and fellowships.

In 1918 the Royal Society relinquished financial responsibility for the National Physical Laboratory 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.

¹Now in process of removal to Herstmonceux, Sussex.

In 1920 the Government established the Medical Research Council with a grant in aid provided directly by Parliament.

The third of the Councils created by the Government for the promotion of research, 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.

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 three 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 organization.

Post-war Developments

At the end of the second world war, 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 Advisory Council, appointed by the Lord President in January 1947, has 15 members—12 eminent scientists from the universities, industry and Government service, and three senior Government administrators.

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

The Committee on Overseas Scientific Relations.

Government Machinery for Civil Scientific Research

The principles underlying Government scientific organization 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 Department of Scientific and Industrial Research, the Medical Research Council, the Agricultural Research Council, and the Nature Conservancy, and is chairman of the three Privy Council Committees to which they report—the committees for Scientific and Industrial Research, Medical Research, and Agricultural Research and Nature Conservation. (For proposed new arrangements for the organization of atomic energy development see Appendix.)
3. Other Ministers are responsible for the scientific establishments within their own Departments.
4. The advice of the Research Councils is at the disposal of the Executive Departments and there is close liaison between them, but the Research Councils are not subject to departmental control.

Department of Scientific and Industrial Research

The DSIR¹ is responsible to the Committee of the Privy Council for Scientific and Industrial Research of which the Lord President is chairman. This Committee is advised by the Advisory Council for Scientific and Industrial Research (see pp. 264 and 265), which includes in its membership eminent scientists and leading industrialists, two members closely connected with organized labour and assessors appointed by Government Departments.

With the exception of medicine and agriculture, the DSIR includes in its scope all branches of natural science and their application to industrial processes. Its activities fall into three main groups:

1. Scientific research in the national interest, and to meet the needs of Government Departments.
2. The encouragement of research and the application of scientific knowledge in industry.
3. The encouragement of fundamental research at universities and elsewhere, and the maintenance of an adequate supply of trained research workers for laboratories of all kinds.

The first of these functions is discharged through 14 national research organizations (of which the National Physical Laboratory at Teddington, Middlesex, is the largest) under the Department's own control and direction, and financed from its own vote.² The NPL, in addition to its work on precise measurement and the maintenance of standards, carries out fundamental and applied research under the following main heads: aerodynamics, electricity, electronics, engineering, mathematics (including statistics), metallurgy, physics, radio, ship design, light and metrology.

The second of the DSIR's functions is discharged mainly through the co-operative Research Associations (see p. 264); while its third function is carried out by means of limited grants to individual workers or institutions for special investigations.

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.

Medical Research Council

The Medical Research Council (MRC) is the successor of the Medical Research Committee established in 1913 under the National Health Insurance Act. The Council was incorporated under its present title by Royal Charter in 1920.

¹See also p. 41.

²National Physical Laboratory
 Building Research Station
 Chemical Research Laboratory
 Fire Research Station
 Food Investigation Organization including:
 Low Temperature Research Station
 Torry Research Station and Humber
 Laboratory
 Ditton Laboratory
 Smithfield and Covent Garden
 Laboratories

Forest Products Research Laboratory
 Fuel Research Station
 Geological Survey and Museum of Practical
 Geology
 Hydraulics Research Station
 Mechanical Engineering Research Laboratory
 Pest Infestation Laboratory
 Radio Research Station
 Road Research Laboratory
 Water Pollution Research Laboratory

The MRC is responsible to the Committee of the Privy Council for Medical Research of which the Lord President is chairman, the Minister of Health is vice-chairman, and the Secretaries of State for the Home Department, Scotland, Commonwealth Relations, and the Colonies are members.

The MRC has 12 members. Nine of these members are appointed for their scientific qualifications; and of the other three, one must be a member of the House of Lords and one a member of the House of Commons. The scientific members are appointed by the Privy Council Committee after consultation with the Medical Research Council and the President of the Royal Society.

The Council's chief function is to undertake or promote scientific investigations to obtain new knowledge likely to be of value in the field of curative and preventive medicine. In promoting investigations on particular subjects it has the advice of a large number of expert technical committees which it appoints for the purpose. In general, the arrangements for the support of research fall under three 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.
3. Research studentships and travelling fellowships.

The Council's principal research establishment is the National Institute for Medical Research, at Mill Hill, London. In addition, the Council maintains more than 40 research units, departments or groups attached to university or hospital institutions; some of these are concerned with clinical research and others with laboratory studies.

The *Public Health Laboratory Service* is directed by the MRC on behalf of the Ministry of Health. It consists of a chain of public health laboratories throughout England and Wales, the largest establishment of the Service being the *Central Public Health Laboratory*, Colindale (London), which includes the National Collection of Type Cultures, the Standards Laboratory for Serological Reagents, and reference laboratories specializing in the identification of particular groups of infective micro-organisms.

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 and Nature Conservation, of which the Lord President of the Council is chairman, and the Minister of Agriculture and Fisheries is vice-chairman. The other members of the Committee are the Secretaries of State for the Home Department, Scotland, and the Colonies, and the Ministers of Education and Housing and Local Government.

The ARC consists of 15 members, of whom five are appointed for their general experience of, and interest in, agriculture, and the remainder for their scientific qualifications. The Privy Council Committee, after consulting the ARC itself and (as regards the scientific members) the President of the Royal Society, makes the appointments.

The Council plans and co-ordinates work over the entire field of agricultural research and is assisted in this task by standing committees and a number of technical committees and conferences.

The Council advises both the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries and the Department of Agriculture for Scotland on the programmes, estimates and staffing of the Agricultural

Research Institutes¹ which, with certain exceptions, have their own governing bodies, but are almost wholly financed from State funds by means of annual block grants from the Agricultural Departments.

The Council has 14 research stations and units under its direct control in Great Britain.²

In addition the ARC devotes part of its funds to encouraging research by means of special research grants which are allocated to one or other of the research institutes, to university departments or to advisory centres. It also awards scholarships and training grants.

Nature Conservancy

The Nature Conservancy was established by Royal Charter in 1949 and is responsible to the Committee of the Privy Council for Agricultural Research and Nature Conservation. Its functions, as summarized 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 organize and develop the research and scientific services related thereto'.

Other Government-Sponsored Scientific Research Work

All Departments rely to some extent 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 organizations of their own.

Defence Research with Civil Applications

Research and development undertaken by the Admiralty is almost exclusively directed to meeting the requirements of the Royal Navy, but a substantial amount of this work

¹Rothamsted Experimental Station, Harpenden, Herts

Plant Breeding Institute, Cambridge

John Innes Horticultural Institution, Bayfordbury, Herts

Horticultural Research Station, East Malling, Kent

Agricultural and Horticultural Research Station, Long Ashton, Bristol

Experimental and Research Station, Cheshunt, Herts (which is being replaced by a new Glasshouse Crops Research Station at Toddington, Sussex)

Welsh Plant Breeding Station, Aberystwyth

Institute for Research in Plant Physiology,

Imperial College of Science and Technology, London

National Institute for Research in Dairying, Reading

Foot and Mouth Disease Research Institute, Pirbright, Surrey

National Vegetable Research Station, Wellesbourne, Warwickshire

Grassland Research Station, Drayton, Warwickshire, and Hurley, Berks

National Institute of Agricultural Engineering, Silsoe, Bedfordshire

Poultry Genetics Station, Cambridge

Hops Research Centre, Wye College, Kent

Macaulay Institute for Soil Research, Aberdeen
Scottish Society for Research in Plant Breeding, Edinburgh

Animal Diseases Research Association, Moredun Institute, Edinburgh

Rowett Research Institute, Aberdeen

Hannah Dairy Research Institute, Ayr

Scottish Horticultural Research Station, Mylnefield, Aberdeen

Scottish Agricultural Machinery Testing Station, Howden, Midlothian

²Experimental Field Station, Compton, Berks
Animal Breeding and Genetics Research Organization, Edinburgh

Institute of Animal Physiology, Babraham, Cambridgeshire

Poultry Research Centre, Edinburgh

Plant Virus Research Unit, Cambridge

Unit of Insect Physiology, Cambridge

Unit of Animal Reproduction, Cambridge

Unit of Experimental Agronomy, Oxford

Unit of Biometrical Genetics, Birmingham

Unit of Microbiology, Sheffield

Unit of Soil Physics, Cambridge

Potato Genetics Station, Cambridge

Potato Storage Investigation Team,

Sutton Bonington, Leicestershire

Unit of Plant Nutrition, Bristol

has important civil applications. The Royal Observatory and the National Institute of Oceanography, whose research activities are mainly in the civil field, are administered by the Admiralty.

The Ministry of Supply has the largest Government scientific organization in Great Britain. It carries out research needed to meet the technical requirements of defence and is also responsible for research in some civilian fields, e.g., the Royal Aircraft Establishment and the National Gas Turbine Establishment at Farnborough. Some fundamental research is also carried out for the Ministry by universities and industrial organizations.

The Air Ministry is responsible for the Meteorological Office, where the research carried out has many applications on the civil side.

Atomic Energy

Since the second world war responsibility for atomic energy research and development has broadly rested with the Ministry of Supply. With the formation of the new government in November 1951, however, the Paymaster-General was specially charged with the supervision of atomic energy research and production, with a seat in the Cabinet. In April 1953 the Prime Minister announced that a committee had been appointed to devise a plan for transferring responsibility for atomic energy from the Ministry of Supply to a non-departmental organization. (For proposed new arrangements see Appendix.)

The respective functions of the various atomic energy establishments in Britain at present are as follows.

The Atomic Energy Research Establishment at Harwell, in Berkshire, is responsible for fundamental research into nuclear physics and atomic energy, and provides basic scientific information to the other establishments.

The Radio-Chemical Centre at Amersham, in Buckinghamshire, is a dependency of the Harwell Establishment. It is concerned with preparing radioactive substances such as radium, radon and radioactive isotopes produced in the atomic piles. These are used for medical, scientific and industrial purposes (see p. 180).

The production of fissile material is directed from headquarters at Risley, near Warrington. Production factories are situated at Springfields, near Preston, where pure uranium is produced from uranium concentrates; at Windscale, in Cumberland, where plutonium is produced from uranium by means of atomic piles; at Capenhurst, in Cheshire, where there is a gaseous diffusion plant for separating the uranium isotope U.235 from the more abundant isotope U.238, thus providing a fissile material which can be used as an alternative to plutonium. An experimental atomic power station is associated with Windscale.

Research work on atomic weapons is carried on at the Establishment at Aldermaston, in Berkshire, and its out-stations at Woolwich and Fort Halstead.

Agriculture

Apart from research at the grant-aided Institutes and the centres financed by the ARC, the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries conducts research in its own Veterinary Laboratory at Weybridge, Surrey, and also at its Plant Pathology Laboratory at Harpenden, Herts; and its Infestation 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. The Department of Agriculture for Scotland maintains a plant pathology laboratory in Edinburgh (carrying out research in entomology and helminthology). 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 and Fisheries, which maintains a laboratory for marine research, a number of research vessels,

and an experimental station for shellfish investigation; the Scottish Home Department, which maintains a research laboratory at Aberdeen and four research ships; and the Development Commissioners.

The Development Commissioners, through their Advisory Committee on Fishery Research, co-ordinate all fishery research, not only that which is aided by the Development Fund (see p. 265). The latter bears a large part of the cost of fishery investigation by the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries and fishery research in Scotland. From it a number of independent institutions receive grants for marine and freshwater research.¹

Food

The Ministry of Food, under the direction of its Chief Scientific Adviser, conducts research in nutrition and food technology. It has experimental laboratories and kitchens in London and Grimsby and has recently established an experimental factory at Aberdeen to facilitate the commercial development and application of the results of research.

Forestry

The Forestry Commission² is responsible for forestry in Great Britain and undertakes experimental work relating to silvicultural and allied problems. By means of grants, it also aids forest research work undertaken by various universities and by the Imperial Forestry Institute, Oxford.

Fuel and Power

The Ministry of Fuel and Power has responsibility for research on safety in mines, and plays a direct part in research such as the development of coal-consuming gas turbines, underground gasification and total gasification. There is close collaboration between the Ministry and the Scientific Departments of the National Coal Board, the British Electricity Authority and the Gas Council, all of whom are responsible for research in their own fields.

Transport

The Ministry of Transport and Civil Aviation is concerned with two main fields of scientific research: research on radio aids to marine navigation, conducted by the Admiralty Signal and Radar Establishment, the cost being borne by the Ministry of Transport and Civil Aviation; and road research, in co-operation with the DSIR, including soil mechanics, materials, construction and road safety.

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 matters. 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 building research and the technical development of the building industry and for securing the results of research for the use of 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)

²See pp. 35 and 156.

Radio and Telecommunications

The Post Office undertakes scientific research on a wide range of subjects relating to telephones, telegraph and radio systems which is carried out by the Research Branch of the Engineering Department. It also undertakes the experimental development of radio transmitters and receivers for Post Office services and other Government Departments.

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

The Ministry of Health is responsible for conducting and promoting research into the cause, prevention and treatment of illness. It controls the Public Health Laboratory Service, which is administered for the Ministry by the Medical Research Council (see pp. 267-8).

The Department of Health for Scotland has similar responsibilities, and an Advisory Committee on Medical Research in Scotland works with the Medical Research Council.

In Northern Ireland, the Hospitals Authority (a statutory body set up by the Minister of Health and Local Government) has permissive powers 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 locally, 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 Colonial Products Research Council was set up by the Colonial Office in 1943 for the organization of research under its own director. It initiates schemes of research in Colonial raw materials, such as sugar, timber, mineral oils, etc.

Anti-Locust Research

In 1931 a small locust research organization at the Imperial Institute of Entomology in London was internationally adopted as the world centre for locust research. This organization, later known as the Anti-Locust Research Centre, has during the past twenty years received and co-ordinated information on locust movements and breeding from 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. A half of the expenditure on control is contributed by the member countries of the Commonwealth (the United Kingdom itself contributing one third).

Other Research Work

Finally 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, the British Museum (Natural History), the Science Museum, the Imperial Institute and the Ordnance Survey Department.

Parliamentary and Scientific Committee

The Parliamentary and Scientific Committee is a non-party body of members of both Houses of Parliament and representatives of certain scientific and technical institutions, formed with the object of providing permanent liaison between scientific bodies and Parliament. Steps are taken by the Committee to enlist the support of numerous scientific societies so that the influence of science can be made as effective as possible in national affairs.

Scientific Liaison Overseas

The history of scientific progress is essentially a story involving many nations, and the organization of a country's scientific research would be incomplete without provision for adequate liaison with other countries.

Before the second world war a vast amount of 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 this country 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 oversea scientific collaboration which reflected the Government's recognition of its responsibility in the whole field of science. The result has been that today there now exist a number of official channels through which scientific liaison can be conducted, the principal being:

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. Immediately after the war a British Commonwealth official Scientific Conference was held in London, and in view of the success of the office in Washington during the war period, it was recommended that this office be continued in peace time, and in addition that a British Scientific Office be set up in London. These recommendations were approved by all Commonwealth Governments. Since 1948 the Scientific Offices in London of the Commonwealth countries 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* of the Advisory Council on Scientific Policy was set up after the war to provide, among other things, for discussion of general policy on oversea scientific representation, scientific relations with Commonwealth and foreign countries, and scientific aspects of the work of the United Nations.

3. *The Overseas Liaison Division of the DSIR* is responsible for the executive work arising from the Standing Committee's activities. This division is regarded as the general inter-departmental body responsible for oversea scientific liaison, and is placed within the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research for convenience of organization.

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 10 Bureaux, specializing 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 oversea specialists by dissemina-

ting 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 equivalent personnel in Britain. In addition to publishing the *British Agricultural Bulletin* and *British Medical Bulletin*, both intended primarily to keep overseas specialists informed of progress in Britain, the Council maintains a considerable and much used specialist information service. In the 60 countries in which the British Council has representations, 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 agriculture, medicine, science 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 specialist panels for the different subjects.

Government Expenditure on Research

Central government funds to a total of over £216 million for scientific research and development were voted for the financial year 1953-54. Besides civil estimates of £197 million, this sum included¹ £17.7 million in respect of Navy Estimates and £510,000 in respect of Air Estimates. Included in the Civil Estimates were: Ministry of Supply, £180.6 million; DSIR, £5.7 million; Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries, £2.3 million; Medical Research Council, £1.8 million; Development and Welfare (Colonies, etc.), £1.5 million; Agricultural Research Council and Nature Conservancy, £1.2 million.

Science Centre

An important decision to bring together learned scientific societies and Government research agencies in a 'Science Centre' was announced by the last Government in 1950, and confirmed by the present Government in June 1952. The Centre is to be built on the South Bank of the Thames immediately below Waterloo Bridge on a site purchased by the London County Council for the purpose. It is intended to improve facilities and contacts between scientists and users of science, both nationally and internationally.

THE PROMOTION OF THE ARTS

Various institutions are concerned either wholly or in part with the preservation of Britain's cultural heritage and the promotion of literature and the arts. Government interest in this sphere is limited to financial support of certain of these institutions. There is no Ministry of Fine Arts or equivalent organization 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 Arts Commission (appointed 1924) act in an advisory capacity. Local authorities, under section 132 of the Local Government Act, 1948, may now use part of the revenue from the rates for the encouragement of the arts.

The Arts Council (see p. 56) is the organization mainly responsible for the encouragement of the arts in Britain, while the British Film Institute encourages the development of, and experiment in, the art of the film. The British Council (see p. 56) is responsible for promoting a wider knowledge of British arts overseas.

Music festivals have for many years been a part of Britain's artistic life; but since the war there has been a marked increase in the number of festivals celebrating all the arts. These

¹ Full particulars will be found in *Civil Estimates 1953-54. Class IV, 10. Appendix pp. 55-58. HMSO. 4s. net.*

festivals range from the Edinburgh International Festival of Music and Drama, which lasts three weeks and attracts many tens of thousands of visitors, to small-scale festivals (such as Aldeburgh) lasting a week or less. Many of them are backed by the Arts Council as well as the local authorities concerned.

Drama

There is nothing at present in the nature of a State-owned theatre in Britain, but a site for a national theatre has been acquired in London on the South Bank; the foundation stone was laid by Queen Elizabeth, now the Queen Mother, on 13th July 1951. The Arts Council grants subsidies to some companies and organizations that work on a non-profit-distributing basis (i.e. any profits made are used to finance future productions). The Customs and Excise Department also assists the serious theatre by granting remission of entertainment tax to companies functioning on a non-profit-making basis.

Among the older producing organizations possessing their own theatres are the Shakespeare Memorial Theatre Company at Stratford-upon-Avon, with its seasons of plays in true repertory now running for about nine months a year, and the Old Vic Theatre in London, with a semi-permanent company presenting seasons of the classics, principally Shakespeare, in its original building (in the Waterloo Road) which has been repaired after extensive war damage.

In London some fifty theatres are let to producing managements for every type of theatrical entertainment, for limited or long runs, and during the summer months for many years plays have also been given in the Open Air Theatre in Regent's Park.

The provinces are served by (a) productions toured before or after London presentation, (b) companies specially formed for touring, and (c) local repertory theatres. Some of the last named are assisted financially and otherwise by the Arts Council, and though of necessity the quality of the work of the companies varies greatly, the repertory movement is vital and inspiring, and from these small theatres many of the country's most important dramatists, producers, actors and plays have emerged.

Owing to restrictions no new theatres have been built in Britain since the war, although several damaged buildings have been reconstructed, and some converted from other uses.

Professional theatre organizations include the London Theatre Council and 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. Theatre staffs are protected by the National Association of Theatrical and Kinematograph Employees.

The amateur theatre is widespread throughout the United Kingdom—over 33,000 amateur societies are known to exist. This movement is sponsored and fostered by the British Drama League, the Scottish Community Drama Association, local education authorities and other public bodies. The British Drama League organizes lectures, courses and competitions, and generally advises and assists. It also possesses the largest play library in the country, to which all its members have access.

In schools and universities the high place of drama in the field of national culture has been accorded increasing recognition in recent years. For instance, Bristol University has created a Chair of Drama and an experimental theatre.

The Royal Academy of Dramatic Art, founded in 1904 and now grant-aided by the Government, gives a two-year course of training in all branches of theatre art, and there are several other important dramatic schools, including the Central School of Speech Training and Dramatic Art, and the Webber-Douglas School; the Old Vic has a School in Bristol.

The British Council is responsible for making the British theatre better known abroad by organizing and sponsoring international tours by important companies, including the

Old Vic and the Shakespeare Memorial Company, and by sending overseas exhibitions of theatrical design and lecturers on drama.

Films

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 and increasing American competition. Legislation, first introduced in 1927 and culminating in the Cinematograph Films Act, 1948, and its subsequent amendments, has given some assistance by means of the quota system, under which a certain proportion (varying from 5 to 40 per cent) of British films must be shown in British cinemas each year.

It was not until the second world war that 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 organizations. 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 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 feature production unit in Britain, but the National Film Finance Corporation (see p. 55) is empowered to lend part of feature production costs. These loans are repayable from box-office receipts. The Corporation is solely concerned with finance and has no brief to influence the content of the film.

The British Film Institute, which promotes the development of the film as an art and is financed by Exchequer grants, administers the National Film Library. It is also responsible for the National Film Theatre, where programmes of experimental, scientific and documentary films, as well as 'classic features', are shown regularly. The Institute arranged for the production of three out of four of the first three-dimensional films to be shown in London during the Festival of Britain.

The number of production companies, studios and cinemas in Britain varies with the financial state of the film industry. In 1953 there were 32 feature production companies belonging to the British Film Producers' Association, 60 short film or specialized film producers belong to the Association of Specialized Film Producers, and 4,597 cinemas.

Fine Arts

To judge by public interest the visual arts are in a flourishing condition, and exhibitions of experimental work are well attended. Britain is fortunate in having at present painters and sculptors with an international reputation and a number of younger artists of great promise.

There are some 20 colleges of art, each serving a region, and schools of art in most towns. In London the most notable are the Royal College of Art (specializing in industrial design), the Slade School (painting, drawing and sculpture), and the Central School of Arts and Crafts. The Courtauld Institute, London University, is the chief academic institution for art history.

Among the exhibiting societies are the Royal Academy (which holds a summer exhibition of work by members and non-members, and in winter exhibits collections of national schools), the Royal Society of British Artists, the Royal Institute of Painters in Oils, the Royal Society of Painters in Watercolour, and the London Group. The Institute

of Contemporary Arts, in whose newly opened rooms exhibitions and lectures are held, surveys the whole field of contemporary art.

Among notable organizations concerned with the arts, the Arts Council operates on a nation-wide scale. It arranges important international exhibitions, circulates exhibitions throughout the country, has its own galleries in London, organizes tours of art films, and makes grants to arts societies. The British Council fosters knowledge of British fine arts overseas by means of exhibitions, the dissemination of reproductions and photographs, and the provision of information and advice to inquirers overseas and to visitors in Britain. The Council of Industrial Design (founded 1946) aims at encouraging well-designed manufactures; the Royal Institute of British Architects grants diplomas of qualification to architects, and guides architectural education; the National Building Record compiles photographic records of all notable buildings; the Royal Commission on Historical Monuments advises on the care of buildings and ancient monuments, and is publishing a series of county surveys designed ultimately to cover the whole country. The National Trust, whose functions include protection of houses of historic or architectural importance, owns many works of art. Amateur art societies also play an important part and are increasing in number.

Museums and Art Galleries

The national collections in London contain probably the most comprehensive existing collection of examples of the world's culture. The British Museum alone covers an enormous field, and illustrates the history of man through the arts, especially the arts of the ancient and medieval world and of peoples in primitive states of civilization; the Department of Prints and Drawings possesses a magnificent collection. 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, with perhaps unique balance and completeness, paintings by almost all the greatest European masters. The Tate Gallery embodies two collections: (a) the British school from the eighteenth century onwards, with a few earlier works, and (b) modern foreign schools since 1800. Both sections include modern sculpture. Special exhibitions of the work of particular artists are a feature of this and other galleries. Other important collections are at the National Portrait Gallery, the Wallace Collection (furniture, *objets d'art* and paintings, mainly French of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries), the Dulwich Gallery (reopened in 1953), the Imperial War Museum (which has a Department of Paintings and Sculpture), the National Maritime Museum at Greenwich and the London Museum (reopened in Kensington Palace during 1951).

The National Gallery of Scotland, in Edinburgh, besides its Scottish paintings has a fine collection of European paintings; there is also a Scottish National Portrait Gallery; and the Royal Scottish Museum, Edinburgh, has an art collection. The National Museum of Wales (Cardiff) includes departments of archaeology and of folk life (chiefly Welsh) and of fine and applied arts.

All large cities have art galleries and museums; among the most notable are the Ashmolean Museum (Oxford), the Fitzwilliam Museum (Cambridge), the York Museum, and the galleries at Birmingham, Glasgow, Belfast, Manchester, Liverpool (reopened in 1951) and Leeds. The permanent collections of these, and of many galleries in smaller towns, are supplemented periodically by travelling exhibitions organized by the Arts Council and the circulation department of the Victoria and Albert Museum.

Literature

There is no direct governmental support of literature, though the Arts Council, supported by Government grant, encourages poetry, but literature is the concern of several semi-official bodies and there are many private literary societies and clubs. English litera-

ture is taught in all schools, colleges and universities, either as part of a general course or as a specialist subject.

Societies and Institutions

The National Book League (14,500 members) encourages the reading of and interest in books. Its exhibitions, notably that held in the Victoria and Albert Museum in 1951 and the annual exhibitions of book design, are widely popular. The English Association (5,000 members) aims to uphold the standards of English writing and speech. The Royal Society of Literature (500 members) is concerned with the advancement of literature. The British Academy, an organization concerned with humanistic studies, has a section dealing with literature and philology. The Arts Council supports poetry readings throughout the country. Interest in poetry is also fostered by the Poetry Society (3,000 members) and the annual Eisteddfod (the bardic festival held in Wales). Specialist societies include the Early English Text Society, the Bibliographical Society, the Edinburgh Bibliographical Society, and a number of those devoted to particular authors of which the largest is the Dickens Fellowship (10,000 members). In addition many towns have their local literary societies. The British Council is active in encouraging a knowledge of English literature abroad.

Books

In Britain the output of new books amounts to over 13,000 separate titles a year. For literary subjects the 1952 annual figures for new titles were: bibliography and literary history 284, biography and memoirs 482, essays and belles-lettres 109, fiction 2,558, poetry and drama 565. There are many periodicals concerned in whole or in part with literature, of which the best known critical weekly is *The Times Literary Supplement*. Some classes of books are produced as Government publications by Her Majesty's Stationery Office, but the great majority of books, including works of literature, are produced by commercial publishers, though some of the outstanding individual works come from the university presses, notably the Clarendon Press (Oxford) and the Cambridge University Press. Leading organizations representing the interests of those concerned with book production are: the Publishers' Association, the Booksellers' Association and the Society of Authors. A number of literary prizes are awarded annually; these include 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, and the Somerset Maugham Award for young writers. In 1953 the Arts Council offered awards for two published books of original English verse.

Libraries

The largest library in Britain is at the British Museum in London (over 5,000,000 printed books); there are also national libraries of Scotland (at Edinburgh) and Wales (at Aberystwyth). Other general libraries of similar size are the Bodleian Library (Oxford) and the Cambridge University Library. These five are 'copyright' libraries; they have the right to a free copy of each book published in Britain. The London Library (600,000 volumes) is the most important private subscription library. Specialist libraries of particular interest in London include the Art Library at the Victoria and Albert Museum, the Public Record Office (which contains the National Archives), the National Library for the Blind (over 301,000 volumes in Braille and Moon types), the Science Library at South Kensington, the Natural History Museum Library, the Central Music Library, the Patents Office Library, and the British Library of Political and Economic Science. The Arts Council has recently founded a reference library of modern English poetry, which is housed at the National Book League.

Public libraries are maintained by local authorities in every county and county borough and by many boroughs and urban district councils. In rural areas there is a travelling

library service. In 1950 these public libraries held between them over 42 million books and had an annual circulation issue of over 311 million. The National Central Library is a centre for inter-library lending (both in Britain and abroad) and has access to over 21 million books.

Music, Opera and Ballet

The pattern of music in Britain today is expressed in many forms; orchestral, choral, opera and ballet dominate the general design and are increasingly popular. Seasons of orchestral concerts are held periodically throughout the country. In London they are associated mainly with the Royal Festival Hall on the South Bank, opened in May 1951 in connection with the Festival of Britain, and the Royal Albert Hall, Kensington. Queen's Hall, destroyed during the second world war, is to be rebuilt. Wigmore Hall is famous as London's premier recital centre.

Despite the growth of new orchestras in the past few years, a number of older orchestras have retained their long-established reputation. Among the leading British orchestras are the London Symphony Orchestra, the BBC Symphony Orchestra, the London Philharmonic, the Royal Philharmonic, the Philharmonia, the Hallé (Manchester), the Liverpool Philharmonic, the City of Birmingham, the Bournemouth Municipal, the Yorkshire Symphony, the Scottish National and the BBC Scottish Orchestras. In addition, there are highly specialized string orchestras such as the Boyd Neel and the Jacques. Many of these orchestras receive financial assistance from the Arts Council, whose aim is to provide not only an opportunity of presenting new works, conductors and soloists, but to improve the standard of performance generally.

Choral singing is a feature in British musical life and the principal choral societies, such as the Royal Choral, BBC Choral, Huddersfield Choral, Hallé Choir, Liverpool Philharmonic Choir, London Philharmonic Choir and the Bach Choir, as well as many others, are associated with famous orchestras in major choral works. Most of these choirs and hundreds of similar choral and orchestral societies and music clubs are affiliated to the National Federation of Music Societies.

Music festivals in Britain, originating with the Three Choirs Festival held annually at Gloucester, Worcester and Hereford in rotation, have been in existence for over 200 years. The festival idea, now a marked feature in the musical life of Britain, has developed considerably and festivals are now held annually in many cities and towns, the most prominent being the Edinburgh International Festival of Music and Drama, the Cheltenham Festival (contemporary British music), the Llangollen International Eisteddfod and the ancient National Eisteddfod of Wales (whose origins date back to the seventh century). The Leeds and Norwich festivals of choral music are held on a triennial basis.

Professional organizations 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.

Regular seasons of opera and ballet are given in London at the Royal Opera House, Covent Garden, at Sadler's Wells, and at Glyndebourne in Sussex. Other companies include the Carl Rosa, one of the oldest opera organizations in Britain, and the English Opera Group (formed in 1947), noted for its performances of chamber opera. In 1944 the Covent Garden Opera Trust was formed to make the famous opera house the home of a national opera and ballet. In 1949 the Government acquired the lease of the building, the Trust receiving its Government grant through the Arts Council. As well as giving seasons of opera in London, the Opera Company, which numbers about 200 and has a permanent orchestra, tours the provinces. London's other permanent home of opera and ballet is the Sadler's Wells Theatre.

The Sadler's Wells Ballet, which is now the resident company at Covent Garden, paid visits to Canada and the United States in 1949, 1950 and 1953 in the course of which it

enhanced its already high international reputation. It has also toured widely in Europe under the British Council's auspices. Training is provided at the Sadler's Wells Ballet School, which has played a large part in raising British ballet to its present high level.

Most prominent among the Colleges of Music are the Royal Academy of Music, the Royal College of Music, the Royal Manchester College and the Royal Scottish Academy, which benefit from Government grants. Added to these are the Trinity College of Music and the Guildhall School of Music and Drama. 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 of the younger musicians, is noted for its high standard of performance.

The British Council has done much to make British music more widely known throughout the world. Tours of British orchestras, soloists and opera are arranged, recordings of works by British composers are sponsored, and libraries of British music, recorded and in printed score, are maintained in 57 countries. At London headquarters a central music reference library of music literature, scores and recorded music is maintained for the use of visitors. Distinguished oversea musicians are invited to Britain as guests of the Council to experience, first-hand, something of British music and musicians, and extensive arrangements are made to cover each individual interest.

XII. BROADCASTING AND THE PRESS

THE BRITISH BROADCASTING CORPORATION

Constitution and Policy

In November 1922 the British Broadcasting Company Limited came into existence, and on 1st January 1927 it was taken over by the British Broadcasting Corporation. The BBC is not a Government Department, nor is it a commercial company working for profit, but a public corporation created by Royal Charter. The policy of the BBC is governed by its Charter, granted for successive limited periods, which establishes the BBC as a corporate body and requires that the broadcasting services should be a means of information, education and entertainment, and should be developed to the best advantage and in the national interest. Under the current charter, which came into force on 1st July 1952 and will be due for renewal in 1962, the Corporation consists of nine Governors appointed by the Queen in Council. The Governors are normally appointed for a period of five years. To them the Director-General, as chief executive officer, is immediately responsible for the efficient working of the organization. He is assisted by six Directors, responsible respectively for Home Sound Broadcasting; Television Broadcasting; External Broadcasting; the Spoken Word; Technical Services; and Administration. The number of staff employed at 30th June 1953 was 12,389 (including 602 part-time).

The BBC derives its legal powers to maintain broadcasting stations from its Licence and Agreement with the Postmaster-General. The Agreement contains financial clauses and also certain general provisions as to the manner in which the broadcasting service should be operated.

Although the Government retains formal responsibility for the BBC, in practice the Corporation operates independently. It has from the first been the agreed policy of Parliament that the BBC should be free from control in the daily conduct of its business, including both the planning of programmes and general administration. The BBC studies the needs and reactions of its listeners through its Audience Research system; it is assisted by 32 advisory bodies and is constantly consulting outside authorities and experts, but its decisions are its own. In its various activities the BBC devolves responsibility at all levels to the greatest extent consistent with agreed policy and with its high standards of quality.

Finance

Broadcasting services today are financed from three main sources: (1) the sale (by the Post Office) of receiving licences; (2) a grant-in-aid from the Exchequer for the External Services; (3) profits from the BBC publications, mainly the *Radio Times* which has a weekly sale of nearly 8 million copies and attracts a large advertising revenue.

The annual licence for the reception of sound broadcasting costs £1 (except in the case of registered blind persons whose licences are free); the licence for 'sound' and television together costs £2. One licence covers all the receiving sets in a household, but a separate licence is required for a set fitted in a motor car. Before the second world war all the BBC's operations were financed out of its proportion of the licence income. During the war it was completely financed by grant-in-aid; but, as from 1st January 1947 the pre-war system of financing out of licence income was restored for all home broadcasting services, including television.

Under the current ten-year Licence and Agreement, which came into force on 1st July 1952, the licence fee system is continued to meet the cost of home broadcasting, and for the first three years of the charter's span the BBC is to receive 85 per cent of the licence

revenue (after the deduction of 7½ per cent by the Postmaster-General to cover collection and other expenses), and thereafter a sum equal to such percentage, or an additional percentage, as may be directed by the Treasury, to meet the needs of the Home Services. In addition, the BBC is authorized to borrow up to £10 million for capital expenditure. The cost of the External Services is borne, as before, by a grant-in-aid from the Exchequer.

The gross revenue from the sale of broadcast receiving licences during the year ended 31st March 1953 amounted to £14,874,191; and the Corporation received a net income of £11,694,833. The number of current receiving licences in the United Kingdom in March 1953 was: sound 10,749,779 (including 61,095 free to blind persons), television 2,142,452, making a total of 12,892,231. By end-August 1953 the total was 13,056,689, of which 2,539,103 licences were for television sets, and 196,161 for sound sets fitted in cars.

Net revenue from publications in the year ended 31st March 1953 amounted to £1,001,618, and grant-in-aid receipts were £4,695,000.

The Beveridge Report and the Monopoly Issue

The constitutional development of the BBC has been assisted by successive independent committees of inquiry appointed by the Government from time to time to make recommendations as to the future of the service. A committee, under Lord Beveridge, appointed by the Lord President of the Council and the Postmaster-General in the autumn of 1949, issued its Report in January 1951 after an exhaustive investigation. The findings of the Report amounted to a strong vote of confidence in the achievements of the BBC—'something of which any country might be proud'. The committee paid a tribute to the 'efficiency of the BBC, to the sense of public spirit which animates it and to its substantial success in maintaining impartiality and high standards of taste and culture. . . . There are some fields, notably music, in which development of public taste and understanding may with justice be attributed to the work of the BBC in the past 25 years'.

While the committee recommended that broadcasting should, subject to possible developments in higher frequency, remain the 'prerogative of a single corporation', it proposed certain safeguards against the dangers of monopoly, and advocated increased regional autonomy, together with a strengthening of the numbers and powers of the Board of Governors, and the setting up of a body within the BBC to report on criticisms and suggestions from the general public.

The Government's comments on the committee's report were issued in July 1951 in a White Paper which accepted the majority of the recommendations and outlined proposals for their implementation. Several points in these proposals were the subject of considerable parliamentary debate and it was emphasized by the Government that they were not final. The Government which took office in the autumn of 1951 renewed the BBC charter (which expired at the end of 1951) for an interim period of six months to afford time to consider the important issues involved in the granting of a new charter for a term of years. This interim period was concluded on 1st July 1952 when the current ten-year charter came into force.

The current charter maintains the former position of the BBC as the only broadcasting organization in the United Kingdom having any claim on the revenue from receiving licences; enlarges the Board of Governors from seven to nine members, of which three are specially charged with responsibility for Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland; and establishes Broadcasting Councils for Scotland and for Wales.

The BBC is required to develop and extend the television services. In this expanding field the possibility of competitive television is not excluded, subject to the consideration by Parliament of the terms and conditions under which any such system would operate. (For the Government's proposals see Appendix.) The current ten-year Licence and Agreement continues the ban on commercial broadcasts by the BBC, except with the permission of the Postmaster-General.

The Sound Services

Since 15th March 1950 the BBC has operated on the wavelengths allocated in the Copenhagen Agreement.

1. For Home Listeners

The BBC provides three main services for home listeners:

(a) *The Home Service*, running continuously from 6.30 a.m. to 11.3 p.m., is a carefully balanced programme designed to appeal to all sections of the community. It is the vehicle for the majority of the BBC's most important talks, for plays, concerts, documentary features and religious broadcasts, and also for all the educational broadcasts to schools (see p. 244). It includes controversial discussions, and time is allotted for political party broadcasts in the ratio of each party's poll at the last General Election. Many national and sporting events are broadcast from the scene of action.

Linked with this basic Home Service are the six Regional Home Services covering Scotland, Wales, and Northern Ireland, and the North, Midlands, and West of England. These services carry many of the major items of the basic Home Service but also include their own programmes produced within the region. Material is freely interchangeable over this network.

(b) *The Light Programme*, running continuously from 9.0 a.m. to midnight, is devoted to entertainment in the widest sense, and includes commentaries on every form of sport. It contains also a more serious element including book reviews, discussions, and some classical music.

(c) *The Third Programme*, running continuously from 6.0 p.m. to midnight, is a cultural programme of especial interest to the serious listener. It broadcasts, without regard to length or difficulty, the masterpieces of music, art and letters which lend themselves to transmission in sound, and it provides series of lectures by eminent speakers. It has been in operation since 29th September 1946.

News. There are eight news broadcasts daily in the Home and Light programmes: Home Service at 7 a.m., 8 a.m., 1 p.m., 6 p.m., 9 p.m., and a summary at 11 p.m. Light Programme at 9 a.m., 7 p.m., 10 p.m., and a summary at 11.56 p.m. For its sources of news the Corporation relies on the leading news agencies, the BBC's correspondents at home and abroad, and the monitoring service.

The BBC's Audience Research organization estimates that, at any one time on a winter evening, about 1 in 4 of the adult population of Britain may be expected to listen to one of the three main programmes. It is calculated that the average winter evening audience for the Light Programme is nearly 5,670,000, for the Home Service 3,240,000, and for the Third Programme in the neighbourhood of 90,000.

2. External Services

The general purpose of the BBC, in all its broadcasts to listeners within the Commonwealth or in other lands, is to form a friendly link of information, culture and entertainment; to give news of world-wide importance as it is known in Britain; to show what the British nation as a whole is thinking about the news; and to reflect the British way of life.

The relevant Government Departments prescribe the extent of the External Services but have entrusted to the BBC the responsibility for their content.

The External Services of the BBC include:

(a) *The General Overseas Service in English* can be described as the descendant of the original 'Empire Service', which began in 1932. This service is designed for British

communities all over the world as well as for English-speaking listeners in foreign countries. It includes many programmes taken from the BBC's home services, and is on the air for 21 hours in every 24.

- (b) *Special Services directed to the Commonwealth* in English and other languages.
- (c) *Services directed to foreign countries*, mainly broadcast in the language of the country addressed. The BBC's news services have established a great reputation for objectivity and integrity. Every day nearly 100 news broadcasts are directed to oversea listeners in some 45 languages.
- (d) *The Transcription Service* provides recorded programmes in English (talks, drama, features, music, etc.) which are distributed principally to radio organizations throughout the Commonwealth and in the United States, and to broadcasting stations of the Armed Forces overseas. It also produces programmes in foreign languages.

Oversea Offices. The BBC maintains oversea offices in Berlin, Cairo, New Delhi, New York, Paris, Singapore, Sydney and Toronto. Their purpose is to meet the programme requirements of the Home and External Services, to encourage local stations to rebroadcast BBC transmissions and transcription recordings and to disseminate information about the BBC External Services.

Apart from the oversea offices, the BBC maintains a high-power short wave relay station for South-East Asia, at Singapore (Tebrau).

Television

Experiments in television broadcasting started in Britain in the autumn of 1929, and in November 1936 the BBC began to give from Alexandra Palace the first public service of high definition television in any part of the world. By September 1939 (when the Alexandra Palace station was closed down for military reasons) the programme technique had made considerable progress and the number of receiving sets was approximately 20,000.

The Television Service from Alexandra Palace was reopened in June 1946 and a second transmitter at Sutton Coldfield, near Birmingham, came into action in December 1949, relaying the Alexandra Palace programmes.

By December 1952 five high-power transmitting stations were in operation: Alexandra Palace covering London and the Home Counties; Sutton Coldfield covering the Midlands; Holme Moss covering the North of England; Kirk o' Shotts covering Central Scotland; and Wenvoe covering South Wales and parts of the West of England.

These stations make television accessible to about four-fifths of the population of the United Kingdom and form the main part of the BBC's plan for a national television coverage.

In June 1953 the Director-General of the BBC, Sir Ian Jacob, announced that during the remaining nine years of the current charter the BBC hoped to complete five medium-power stations; to rebuild the London station with higher power; and to erect a further eight low-power stations in the Channel Islands, the Isle of Man, East Anglia, south-east England, west Wales, Cumberland, Inverness, and Londonderry. This would result in effective television coverage for 97 per cent of the population of the United Kingdom.

In July 1953 the Government announced its agreement to an immediate start on these projects and to the expansion of very high frequency sound services to ensure better sound reception.

By January 1955 it is hoped that new medium-power television stations will have been set up at Aberdeen, Belfast, the Isle of Wight, Plymouth, and Pontop Pike (in the county of Durham), and also low-power stations to serve the Channel Islands and the Isle of Man. These developments will make BBC television available to some 90 per cent of the population.

The BBC is building, on a 13-acre site at Shepherds Bush in London, a set of studios and accompanying accommodation which will, it is hoped, be the 'best television centre in the world'.

Television programmes are broadcast daily between 3.0 p.m. and 10.35 p.m. on weekdays, and between 5 p.m. and 10.45 p.m. on Sundays. There are intervals in each programme, and actual viewing time averages five hours a day. In addition, the Outside Broadcasting Department of the Television Service televises national occasions, public events and sporting fixtures. There is a daily television programme for children, including a morning programme from 11.0 a.m. to 12.00 noon on Saturdays. Television for schools is in the experimental stage.

Research. Constant research during 1952-53 resulted in developments in the design of measuring equipment and television cameras, in the reduction of the effects of interference, and in improvements in the technical quality of the pictures transmitted. Technically Britain is committed for some years to the present 405-line standard, but preliminary experiments are being made on systems using higher standards of definition, and on television in colour. To facilitate work of this kind, a flexible television channel, which can be operated at will on standards of definition from 400 to 1,000 lines, has been designed and constructed for use in the laboratories.

THE PRESS

The British read more newspapers than any other nation in the world. For every 1,000 inhabitants in the United Kingdom, 598 copies of daily papers are sold, compared with 441 in Luxembourg (second on the list), 440 in Australia and 356 in the United States.

The British *News of the World* has the largest circulation of any newspaper in the world. On the other hand, the average number of pages in British newspapers is 8-12, compared with over 24 in the United States; and, also, while circulations have risen, the actual number of publications has dropped by about one-quarter since 1921. In 1953 the Press consisted of 146 daily newspapers, 18 Sunday papers, over 1,300 weekly papers, and nearly 4,000 periodicals. Daily newspaper prices are 1½d. for the popular papers and from 2d. to 4d. for the 'quality' papers (*The Times*, *Manchester Guardian*, *Daily Telegraph*). Some of the most important papers and periodicals are shown in Table 29, but such a table cannot convey the diversity of appeal of the Press. The British Press caters for all political views and many different levels of education and interest; it is free from Government interference or censorship. While a large proportion of weekly newspapers are regional in appeal, the periodical press covers a wide field: religion, education, science, politics, economics, music, literature, drama and art, women's specialized interests, sport, hobbies, country life, fiction and humour. There are also many papers which cover the important fields of finance, trade, industry and technical interests.

In 1947 a Royal Commission on the Press was appointed to inquire into the finance, control, management and ownership of the Press. Its report, which included a number of recommendations, was issued in June 1949 (*Cmd. 7700*) and has been recognized as a comprehensive and authoritative analysis of the British Press.

Ownership

As Table 29 shows, several companies or groups own more than one newspaper. At the beginning of 1953 the largest group, Kemsley Newspapers, owned about 24 per cent of the morning newspapers and 12 per cent of the evening papers, representing 50 per cent of morning circulation and 20 per cent of evening circulation in England and Wales. Other important groups owning provincial papers are Westminster Press Provincial Newspapers Ltd., Provincial Newspapers Ltd., the Northcliffe Newspaper Group Ltd., and the Harmsworth Press.

Press Trusts, which have been described as 'voluntary agreements of owners to limit their sovereignty in the public interest', govern the direction of the *News Chronicle* and *Star*, *Manchester Guardian*, *Observer*, *The Times*, *Economist* and *Spectator*.

TABLE 29

| Title | General Political Tendency | Owner or Controller | Circulation average January-June (inc.) 1953 |
|--------------------------------------|---|--|--|
| National Dailies <i>The Times</i> | Independent | Times Publishing Co. Ltd. Largest shareholder, Col. the Hon. J. J. Astor | 225,213 |
| <i>Daily Telegraph</i> | Conservative | Lord Camrose and members of his family | 1,005,101 |
| <i>Manchester Guardian</i> | Liberal | The Scott Trust | 136,892 |
| <i>Daily Express</i> | Policy conservative though not necessarily that of Conservative Party. Stresses importance of British Empire. | London Express Newspapers Ltd. Controlling shareholder, Lord Beaverbrook | 4,077,835 |
| <i>Daily Mail</i> | Conservative | Associated Newspapers Ltd. Major shareholder, Lord Rothermere | 2,173,917 |
| <i>Daily Herald</i> | Labour | Daily Herald Ltd. 51% of shares owned by Odhams Press Ltd., 49% by Trades Union Congress | 1,872,805 |
| <i>News Chronicle</i> | Liberal | Daily News Trust. Two-thirds of trustees members of Cadbury family. Policy directed by Lord Layton | 1,355,600 |
| <i>Daily Worker</i> | Communist | People's Press Printing Society Ltd. Shares owned by large number of small shareholders. Editorial executives members of Communist Party | 91,355 |
| <i>Daily Mirror</i> | Left-wing | Daily Mirror Newspapers Ltd. Chairman, Mr. Cecil King | 4,535,637 |
| <i>Daily Sketch</i> | Conservative | Associated Newspapers Ltd. | 931,000 |

TABLE 29 (contd.)

| Title | General Political Tendency | Owner or Controller | Circulation average January-June (inc.) 1953 |
|--|---|---|--|
| London Evenings | | | |
| <i>Evening News</i> | As for <i>Daily Mail</i> | As for <i>Daily Mail</i> | 1,503,293 |
| <i>Star</i> | As for <i>News Chronicle</i> | As for <i>News Chronicle</i> | 1,107,538 |
| <i>Evening Standard</i> | As for <i>Daily Express</i> | As for <i>Daily Express</i> | 777,669 |
| Sundays <i>Observer</i> | Independent | The Observer Ltd. All shares owned by The Observer Trust | 475,609 |
| <i>Sunday Times</i> | Conservative | Kemsley Newspapers Ltd. Major shareholder, Lord Kemsley | 531,566 |
| <i>News of the World</i> | General political sympathies conservative | News of the World Ltd. | 8,168,820 |
| <i>People</i> | Independent | Odhams Properties Ltd. Policy controlled by Odhams Press Ltd. | 5,129,137 |
| <i>Sunday Express</i> | As for <i>Daily Express</i> | As for <i>Daily Express</i> | 3,246,845 |
| <i>Sunday Dispatch</i> | As for <i>Daily Mail</i> | As for <i>Daily Mail</i> | 2,743,749 |
| <i>Reynolds News</i> | Supports the Co-operative Movement and the Labour Party | Co-operative Press Ltd. Shareholders, co-operative societies | 689,466 |
| <i>Sunday Chronicle</i> | Conservative | Kemsley Newspapers Ltd. | 897,886 |
| <i>Sunday Empire News</i> | Conservative | Kemsley Newspapers Ltd. | 1,964,000 |
| <i>Sunday Pictorial</i> | As for <i>Daily Mirror</i> | Sunday Pictorial Newspapers Ltd. | 5,262,856 |
| <i>Sunday Graphic</i> | Conservative | Kemsley Newspapers Ltd. | 1,125,554 |
| Weekly Periodicals <i>Economist</i> | Independent | Largest shareholder, Financial News Ltd., chairman of whose board is Lord Layton. Governed by a Trust guaranteeing the independence of the editor | 49,927 |

TABLE 29 (contd.)

| Title | General Political Tendency | Owner or Controller | Circulation average January-June (inc.) 1953 |
|--|--|--|--|
| <i>New Statesman and Nation</i> | Independent Socialist | Private company among whose directors are G. D. H. Cole, David Low, and the editor, B. Kingsley Martin | 71,544 |
| <i>Spectator</i> <i>Time and Tide</i> | Independent Right-wing | Private Trust Public company. Largest shareholder, Viscountess Rhondda | 41,131 not available |
| <i>Tribune</i> | Left-wing Labour but strongly anti-Communist | Private company. Three of its four directors are Labour M.P.s | not available |
| <i>The Listener</i> | Texts of broadcasts | British Broadcasting Corporation | 136,407 |
| Illustrated Weeklies | | | |
| <i>Picture Post</i> | | Hulton Press Ltd. | 1,040,487 |
| <i>Illustrated</i> | | Odhams Press Ltd. | 1,109,162 |
| <i>John Bull</i> | | Odhams Press Ltd. | 1,091,463 |
| <i>Illustrated London News</i> | | Illustrated London News & Sketch Ltd. | not available |
| <i>Sphere</i> | | Illustrated Newspapers Ltd. | not available |

Scotland

Scotland has seven morning, nine evening and two Sunday papers. There are also 164 weeklies. *The Scotsman* (Edinburgh) and the *Glasgow Herald*, published daily, have national reputations, and regular oversea subscribers. The average circulation (January to June 1953) of *The Scotsman* is 55,556, and of the *Glasgow Herald* 76,408. Dundee and Aberdeen papers have more than regional circulation. The largest group owners of papers and periodicals are Thomson, Leng & Co., Ltd., of Dundee.

Northern Ireland

Northern Ireland has three morning papers and one evening, all printed in Belfast; it has 45 weekly newspapers, but no Sunday editions.

Provincial Papers

There are 26 English and Welsh provincial morning papers with a total circulation of over 2½ million copies, and 68 provincial evening papers with a circulation of over 6½ million. The *Yorkshire Post*, *Birmingham Post* and *Liverpool Daily Post* have a national reputation as 'quality' papers although their circulation is mainly provincial. There are also well over 1,000 provincial weeklies in England and Wales.

Channel Islands and Isle of Man

The Channel Islands have three evening papers and four weeklies, and the Isle of Man has one daily and five weeklies.

News Agencies

There are five principal news agencies:

Reuters Ltd. This world-famous agency distributes foreign and Commonwealth news to British newspapers, and foreign and British news to over 3,000 newspapers outside Britain. It is owned by the British Press and three Commonwealth news agencies. All profits are used to develop the service.

Press Association Ltd. This agency distributes home news. It is owned by British provincial newspapers. All profits are used to develop the service.

Exchange Telegraph Company Ltd. This is a public company which distributes home and foreign news, mainly to British papers.

Associated Press. This is a branch of the Associated Press of America. It distributes overseas news.

British United Press. This is a Canadian subsidiary of the United Press of America. It also distributes overseas news.

Training for Journalism

In 1952 agreement was reached on a scheme for the training and education of junior journalists in newspaper offices. A National Advisory Council, on which are representatives of the principal Press organizations and unions, administers the scheme, which is based on the voluntary co-operation of newspaper offices. Previously, journalists were, broadly, of two classes: those who, as boys of 16 to 18, entered newspaper offices and worked their way up, learning by experience; and graduates of universities who held some of the specialized posts, e.g., correspondents abroad or on special subjects, leader-writers and editorial office staff. The second class was considerably smaller than the first.

Press Institutions

Both employers and employees in the industry are well organized and there is a large number of Press institutions. On the employers' side, the most important 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, Wales and Northern Ireland, the Scottish Daily Newspaper Society, and the Periodical Proprietors' Association. On the employees' side there are the National Union of Journalists and the Institute of Journalists. The National Union of Journalists has a membership of about 12,650 working journalists; editors who have powers of dismissal are excluded. The Institute of Journalists, which has a membership of some 2,800, 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 organizations are the improvement of wages and working conditions of journalists and of the status of the Press.

The Guild of British Newspaper Editors aims, *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 Press Council

Following the recommendations of the Royal Commission on the Press, a Press Council representative of the various Press organizations 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;
- 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.

APPENDIX

LEGISLATIVE CHANGES PROPOSED FOR 1954

Among the proposed measures outlined by the Government at the opening of the new Parliamentary session in November 1953 as likely to be introduced during the coming year were:

- legislation to facilitate the repair and improvement of existing houses;
- the ending of food rationing and allocation;
- the introduction of new methods of marketing and of providing price guarantees for agricultural produce, to replace State trading when rationing ends;
- the transfer of responsibility for atomic energy development from the Ministry of Supply to a statutory corporation, with the Lord President of the Council as responsible minister;
- the removal of restrictions on private trading in raw cotton, and the winding up of the Raw Cotton Commission;
- legislation to provide for a competitive television service to operate side by side with the BBC service;
- the establishment of a non-profit-making company to be responsible as from 1955 for the British Industries Fair;
- legislation to revise, consolidate and extend the law on the safety, health and welfare of miners and quarrymen;
- the reorganization of electricity supply in Scotland.

It was also stated that the Government would give consideration to reform of the House of Lords.

Housing. The Government's policy for promoting the repair and improvement of houses, while stimulating the resumption of slum clearance, was outlined in a White Paper, *Houses: The Next Step* (Cmd. 8996). It involves legislation permitting landlords under certain conditions to make limited increases in rents to meet the increased costs of repairs. It is proposed to ease the conditions for grants in aid of improvements and also to enable local authorities to acquire slum property by compulsory purchase in order to carry out temporary repairs where such property cannot be demolished and replaced immediately.

Food Rationing and Control. A White Paper, *Decontrol of Food and Marketing of Agricultural Produce* (Cmd. 8989) announced the Government's decision to end rationing, allocation and price control of meat and bacon in the summer of 1954 and to restore the import of meat to private traders, subject to appropriate arrangements about existing contracts. The decontrol of milk products and fats in the course of 1954 had been announced in October; the year 1954 will thus see the end of food rationing.

Agricultural Marketing and Price Guarantees. The White Paper also announced the arrangements to be made for the marketing of agricultural produce as controls on foodstuffs are removed. In general the intention is to end Government buying but to continue producers' price guarantees and where suitable to make use of marketing boards in implementing Part I of the Agriculture Act, 1947.

Atomic Energy Development. A further White Paper, *The Future Organization of the United Kingdom Atomic Energy Project* (Cmd. 8986) stated that, as from 1st January 1954, ministerial responsibility for atomic energy development would be transferred from the Minister of Supply to the Lord President of the Council. A Bill would be introduced to set up an Atomic Energy Corporation, with an executive board, to administer the project, and the existing atomic energy establishments (see p. 270) would be transferred to this Corporation. The Ministry of Supply would, however, remain responsible to the Services for the provision of complete atomic weapons and would place contracts with the Corporation for nuclear components of such weapons and for research according to Service requirements. The money required to finance the Corporation's activities would be voted annually by Parliament in the form of a grant to the Lord President's Department.

Television. The Government's proposals for competitive television, as set out in a White Paper, *Broadcasting: Memorandum on Television Policy* (Cmd. 9005) would involve the setting up by statute of a public corporation which would own and operate a new network of transmitting stations and would hire its facilities to privately financed companies under contract. These companies would provide programmes and would draw revenue from advertisements. The corporation, which would operate like the BBC under licence from the Postmaster-General, would have flexible powers of control and would be responsible for safeguarding the standards of programmes.

British Industries Fair. The Government will introduce legislation to implement the recommendations contained in a report (Cmd. 9013) by the Exhibition Advisory Committee to the Board of Trade that responsibility for the British Industries Fair (see p. 122) should be transferred as from 1955 from the Board of Trade to a non-profit-making company whose board would be nominated by trustees representative of industry, and that the initial working capital of the company for a period of five years should be guaranteed by the Government. Management of the Birmingham section of the Fair is to remain with the Birmingham Chamber of Commerce.

26th November 1953

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| For 1952 | Cmd 8893 <i>HMSO</i> | 1953 | 5 | 0 |
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| Department of Health for Scotland and Scottish Health Services Council | For 1952 Cmd 8799 <i>HMSO</i> | 1953 | 4 | 0 |
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| Report of Working Party on Building Operations | HMSO | 1950 | 2 | 6 |
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| Programme of Highland Development | Cmd 7976 <i>HMSO</i> | 1950 | 1 | 0 |
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XI. SCIENCE AND THE ARTS

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| Department of Scientific and Industrial Research | | | |
| | For 1951-52 Cmd 8773 | <i>HMSO</i> | 1953 8 0 |
| Medical Research Council | For 1951-52 Cmd 8876 | <i>HMSO</i> | 1953 6 6 |
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| A Description of the Work of the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research | | <i>HMSO</i> | 1949 1 0 |
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| Harwell: The British Atomic Energy Research Establishment 1946-51 | | <i>HMSO</i> | 1952 6 0 |
| Jubilee Book of the National Physical Laboratory, by John Langdon-Davies | | <i>HMSO</i> | 1951 4 0 |
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| The British Contribution to Nuclear Research and the Develop- ment of Nuclear Energy | Reference Paper R.2438 | <i>COI</i> | 1952 free |
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| [<i>new edn in preparation price c. 50s.</i>] | | | |

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| Vol. II. 1906-1914 | | | 1949 25 0 |
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| Year's Work in English Studies 1950, edited by Frederick S. Boas and Beatrice White [1951 in preparation] | Oxford University Press | 1952 | 15 | 0 |
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| Broadcasting | | | | |
| BEACHCROFT, T. O. British Broadcasting. rev. edn | For the British Council, Longmans | 1948 | 1 | 0 |
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