



UK 2005

The Official Yearbook of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland

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Contributors

UK 2005 was researched, written and edited by a combination of in-house and freelance authors.

Authors Lisa Almqvist

Anthony Beachey

Louise Bell

Ben Bradford

Siân Bradford

Mary Brailey Simon Burtenshaw

Richard German

David Harper

Steve Howell

Joyce Huddleston

Henry Langley Kylie Lovell

Alex Praill

Matthew Richardson

Bernadeta Tendyra Linda Zealey

Obituaries John Collis

Data support Lola Akinrodoye

and review Carl Bird

John Chrzczonowicz

Ercilia Dini David Gardener

Caroline Hall Shiva Satkunam

Sarah Sullivan Steve Whyman **Cover** James Twist

Colour pages Michelle Franco

Maps Alistair Dent

Ray Martin

Index Richard German

Picture research Suzanne Bosman

Production Mario Alemanno

Sharon Adhikari Joseph Goldstein

Proof readers Richard German

Rosemary Hamilton Jane Howard

Geoff Potter Jeff Probst

Charts and Spire Origination, Norwich

typesetting

Editors Carol Summerfield

Jill Barelli Linda Zealey David Harper

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Preface

Transport and travel is the theme running through *UK 2005*, as well as being the subject of chapter 21. Although this theme was inspired by a number of notable events, records and anniversaries, the movement of people and goods occurs on such a scale it has profound consequences for every aspect of life, including the environment, work and leisure, as well as the economy.

The majority of people in employment travel to work by car or van (62 per cent in England and Wales in 2001). Far fewer commuters use public transport (14 per cent) and 13 per cent either walk or cycle. Over half of workers (58 per cent) travel less than 10 kilometres to their place of work, and only 5 per cent travel 40 kilometres or more. Chapter 11 provides an overview of the labour market.

The way children travel to school has changed greatly over the past decade, with fewer walking and more being driven. The average length of the school journey has also increased from the early 1990s, from 2.0 to 2.6 kilometres for primary schoolchildren, and from 4.5 to 4.8 kilometres for children at secondary schools. Education and training are key areas of government policy, which are outlined in chapter 10.

More generally, travel by car, van or taxi is by far the most common means of transport in the United Kingdom, accounting for 85 per cent of passenger mileage in Great Britain. In 2003, nearly three quarters of households in the United Kingdom had access to at least one car, while over a quarter had access to two or more.

The first toll motorway, the M6 Toll, opened in December 2003 to ease motorway congestion in the West Midlands. The 43-kilometre expressway cuts journey times around Birmingham by an estimated 45 minutes. By August 2004 it had reached its landmark 10 millionth customer, triggering the end to introductory discounted toll rates.

Vehicle-related thefts have fallen in recent years, partly because of the more sophisticated security measures now fitted to new cars. Vehicles aged between 11 and 15 years are more likely to be

stolen than cars aged 3 years or less. Crime and justice is covered in more depth in chapter 14. In January 1904 the *Motor Car Act* brought in the registration of vehicles, the number plate and the driving licence. A hundred years later, the Government introduced a ban on the use of mobile phones while driving.

The rapid increase in the use of mobile phones was one of the reasons why the Royal National Lifeboat Institution (RNLI) had its busiest year in 2003. Lifeboats were launched a record 8,901 times and 7,987 people were rescued. The increase is also a result of changing patterns of sea use by the public and improved search and rescue techniques. In addition, the long hot summer of 2003 was the fifth warmest in much of the United Kingdom since records began in 1659. The climate and physical geography of the United Kingdom is covered in chapter 1, while the work of charities and volunteers are two of the many issues covered in chapter 9.

Transport contributes about 25 per cent of carbon dioxide ($\rm CO_2$) emissions in the United Kingdom, with road transport accounting for 85 per cent of this. Cars are responsible for about half of all transport emissions. Between 1970 and 2002 road traffic increased by 142 per cent and $\rm CO_2$ emissions attributable to road transport were 130 per cent higher in 2001 than in 1970. Chapter 19 looks at the UK environment and covers issues concerning land and water, as well as air quality and the atmosphere.

In the 2004 Public Spending Review the Government introduced a number of measures aimed at improving the efficiency of the transport system while safeguarding the environment (see chapter 23). Alternative forms of transport are also being explored and the first UK fuel cell bus began service in 2004. It runs on hydrogen and its only emission is water vapour.

The first century of powered flight was celebrated at the Royal Air Force Museum in Hendon with the *Milestones of Flight* exhibition. Among the exhibits were a Hawker Tempest V from the 1940s, a Harrier GR3 from the 1960s, and a Eurofighter Typhoon, which came into service in 2003.

Passenger-kilometres flown from UK airports have more than doubled in recent years. The Department for Transport forecasts that over the next decade the number of air passengers will grow by around 4 per cent a year and that freight will grow by 7 per cent a year. UK airports handled 2.2 million tonnes of freight in 2003, over half of which went through Heathrow.

The fastest commercial passenger aircraft, Concorde, made its last passenger flight in November 2003. Meanwhile, the longest established air route in the United Kingdom, between Southampton and Jersey, celebrated its 70th year in 2004. Southampton was also the site of the launch of *Queen Mary 2*, the world's biggest and most expensive cruise liner, which set sail on her maiden voyage to Fort Lauderdale in the United States in January 2004. With 14 decks, 1,310 cabins, 14, bars and a brewery, she can carry 2,620 passengers.

Several railway anniversaries were celebrated during 2004, the centrepiece being Railfest, a nine-day festival at the National Railway Museum in York. Pride of place was taken by the *Flying Scotsman*, the first steam engine to achieve 100 mph (161 km/h), which the Railway Museum had bought earlier in the year.

Many transport companies offer online booking services and in 2002–03 over half of people shopping online brought goods and services connected with travel, accommodation or holidays. Chapter 17 gives more information on the Internet, communications and the media.

Mobile libraries are being upgraded to provide computer and Internet access. Many people without easy access to transport, especially in isolated rural communities, rely on these to borrow books and obtain information. There are over 660 mobile libraries in the United Kingdom, each serving many local communities on a weekly, fortnightly or monthly basis. A mobile library carries about 3,500 items, including books and videos for loan. Chapter 16 gives information on libraries and archives, as well as some of the cultural highlights of the past year.

In April 2004 The Queen made her fourth state visit to France to mark the centenary of the signing of the Entente Cordiale, which settled historic

disputes and paved the way for diplomatic and military co-operation between the United Kingdom and France at the beginning of the 20th century. The Queen returned to France in June, to join world leaders and thousands of veterans in commemorating the 60th anniversary of D-Day, when allied troops landed in France to start the successful liberation of Europe. Chapter 7 covers international relations, while chapter 8 looks at defence.

Members of the Royal Family carry out about 3,000 official engagements a year in the United Kingdom and overseas. Their expenditure on travel in 2003/04 was £4.7 million. In the same period, the Royal Train made 18 journeys, while RAF aircraft were used for 334 hours for Royal flying and helicopters for 389 hours. Chapter 6 gives information on the UK Government and the Monarchy, while the devolved administrations are outlined in chapters 2 to 5.

A special form of travel associated with religion (covered in chapter 15) is the pilgrimage. Each year about 20,000 British Muslims travel to Makka (Mecca) to perform the Hajj. Since 2000 a British Hajj Delegation has travelled with them to provide consular, pastoral and medical assistance. Back in the United Kingdom, Walsingham, a place of pilgrimage for both Anglicans and Catholics, was voted the nation's most spiritual place in 2003.

During 2003–04 several transport records were broken. Balloonist David Hempleman-Adams, who was partly the inspiration for our front cover, he soared to over 40,000 feet (12,192 metres), breaking the existing record of 35,626 feet (10,859 metres). Richard Branson broke the record for crossing the English Channel in an amphibious vehicle, reaching Calais in 1 hour 40 minutes and 6 seconds. The UK rail speed record was broken in July 2003 when Eurostar reached 208 mph (335 km/h).

As well as transport, *UK 2005* outlines government policy and provides facts and figures on all aspects of life in the United Kingdom, from the economy (chapters 22 to 29) to social and cultural affairs; and from housing, planning and regeneration (chapter 20) to science and technology (chapter 25) and sport (chapter 18). *UK 2005* is also available on *www.statistics.gov.uk/yearbook*.

Notes and definitions

- Figures given in tables and charts may not always sum to the totals shown because of rounding.
- The full title of the United Kingdom is 'the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland'. 'Great Britain' comprises England, Wales and Scotland.
- Statistics in this book apply to the United Kingdom as a whole wherever possible. However, data are not always available on a comparable basis, so in some areas information has been given for one or more of the component parts of the United Kingdom. Geographical coverage is clearly indicated.
- 4. Every effort is made to ensure that the information given in *UK 2005* is accurate at the time of going to press. The text is generally based on information available up to the end of August 2004. Data for the most recent year may be provisional or estimated.
- 5. Mid year population estimates for 2003 and revised 2001 and 2002 estimates (published on 9 September 2004) have been included in this edition. However, due to publication deadlines, it has not been possible to include the latest projections (published on 30 September 2004) or the revised estimates for 1992 to 2000 (published on 7 October 2004). In addition, we have not been able to include the resulting revisions to the Labour Force Survey estimates that were published in the national, country and regional labour market statistics First Releases on 13 October 2004.

- 6. The data from the New Earnings Survey in chapters 9 and 11 are being replaced from October 2004 with the Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings.
- Any information about named companies has been taken from company reports and news releases, or from other publicly available sources. No information about individual companies has been taken from returns submitted in response to ONS statistical inquiries – these remain entirely confidential.
- Many of the data sources given at the foot of tables and charts and the publications quoted in the further reading lists are available in full on their relevant websites.

Symbols and conventions

1 billion = 1,000 million

1 trillion = 1,000 billion

Financial and academic years are shown as 2003/04

Data covering more than one year such as 2001, 2002 and 2003 are shown as 2001–03

The following symbols have been used in tables:

n/a not available

. not applicable

negligible (less than half the final digit shown)

0 nil

EU-15 The European Union of 15 members before enlargement in May 2004

EU-25 The European Union of 25 members after enlargement in May 2004

Units of measurement

Area

1 hectare (ha) = 10,000 sq metres = 2.4711 acres 1 square kilometre (sq km) = 100 hectares = 0.3861 square miles

Length

1 centimetre (cm) = 10 millimetres (mm)

= 0.3937 inches

1 metre (m) = 1,000 millimetres = 3.2808 feet (ft)

1 kilometre (km) = 1,000 metres = 0.6214 miles

Mass

1 kilogram (kg) = 2.2046 pounds (lb)

1 tonne (t) = 1,000 kilograms = 0.9842 long tons (UK)

Volume

1 litre (I) = 1.7598 UK pints = 0.2200 UK gallons

1 cubic metre = 1,000 litres

SI prefixes

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1 The United Kingdom

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The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (UK) was created by the *Act of Union 1800* and constitutes the greater part of the British Isles, a group of islands lying off the northwest coast of Europe. The largest of the islands is Great Britain, which comprises England, Wales and Scotland. The next largest is Ireland, comprising Northern Ireland, which is part of the United Kingdom, and, in the south, the Republic of Ireland.

North-west Scotland is fringed by two large island chains, the Inner and Outer Hebrides. To the north of the Scottish mainland are the Orkney and Shetland Islands. These, along with the Isle of Wight, Anglesey and the Isles of Scilly, have administrative ties with the mainland. The Isle of Man and the Channel Islands are not part of the United Kingdom (see page 7).

Physical features

The oldest rocks, dating back 2.6 billion years, are found in the Scottish Highlands and Outer Hebrides. Metamorphic and igneous rocks are widespread in Wales, the Lake District and southern Scotland.

Devonian and Carboniferous strata in south-west England have been intruded by granite. The largest granite area is Dartmoor. Carboniferous limestone forms the Mendip Hills, and part of the Pennine chain in the Peak District and around Malham Tarn in North Yorkshire. Deep valleys, such as the Avon gorge, have cut into the limestone and rivers commonly disappear underground where cave networks have developed. The overlying millstone grit of the Upper Carboniferous age makes up much of the Pennines, with coal measures forming the lower ground flanking the Pennine Hills. Coal seams are also widespread in the Midlands, South Wales and around Bristol.

Permian and Triassic rocks stretch from Devon to north-west and north-east England, but are at their widest across the Midlands, where the sandstones are a major aquifer. Jurassic rocks are dominated by limestone layers, extending from the World Heritage coastline in Dorset, through the Cotswolds and Northamptonshire into Lincolnshire and Yorkshire. Many prominent buildings in London, such as those in Whitehall, are constructed from Jurassic limestone quarried in Dorset.

Cretaceous chalk strata cover wide areas of southern England, such as the South Downs, where they are exposed in white cliffs at Beachy Head and Dover. Younger strata, mainly soft sandstones and clays, are found in east and southeast England and are associated with fertile farmland.

On the Antrim coast in Northern Ireland is the Giants Causeway. At this World Heritage site there are almost 40,000 massive polygonal basalt columns, formed around 60 million years ago from slowly cooling volcanic rock intruded into the surrounding chalk.

About 2 million years ago, ice sheets covered much of the United Kingdom north of a line roughly between the Bristol Channel and London. Glacial erosion shaped landscapes in North Wales, Cumbria, and much of upland Scotland. As the glaciers melted, extensive areas of clay, sand and gravel were deposited, almost entirely obscuring the underlying bedrock of much of East Anglia.

England

England covers about two-thirds of the island of Great Britain. It is mostly low hills and plains, forming meadowlands and pastures. Uplands

¹ A layer of rock that is able to hold or transmit large quantities of water.

include the Pennine chain, known as the 'backbone of England', which splits northern England into western and eastern sectors. The highest point is Scafell Pike (977 metres) in the north west. The north east includes the rugged landscape of the Yorkshire moors, while the south west has the upland moors of Dartmoor and Exmoor.

Wales

Wales is on the western side of Great Britain. It is mountainous – around one-quarter is above 305 metres and in the north its highest peak, Snowdon (*Yr Wyddfa*), rises to 1,085 metres. The Cambrian Mountains run from north to south and to the south are the Brecon Beacons, with flat, grassy summits, and the steep-sided South Wales Valleys. The Welsh coastline varies from estuaries to sheltered bays, high cliffs, peninsulas, and marsh and low-tide sandbanks.

Scotland

Scotland is located in the north of Great Britain. The Scottish Lowlands and Borders are largely areas of gentle hills and woodland, contrasting dramatically with the rugged landscape of the Highlands to the north. A striking physical feature is the Great Glen, a geological fault, which cuts across the central Highlands from Fort William on the west coast for 97 kilometres north-east to Inverness on the east coast. A string of lochs in deep narrow basins is set between steep-sided mountains that rise past forested foothills to high moors and remote rocky mountains. Ben Nevis, at 1,343 metres, is the highest point in the United Kingdom. Scotland has about 790 islands, of which some 130 are inhabited.

Northern Ireland

Northern Ireland's north-east coast is separated from Scotland by a stretch of water – the North Channel – only 21 kilometres wide at its nearest point. It has a 488-kilometre border with the Republic of Ireland, forming the only UK land boundary with another Member State of the European Union. The landscape is mainly low hill country. There are three mountainous areas: the Mournes in the south east with Northern Ireland's highest point, Slieve Donard (852 metres); the Sperrins in the north west; and the Antrim Plateau, parallel to the north-east coast. Lough Neagh is the largest freshwater lake in the United Kingdom and one of the largest in Europe.

Physical geography

Length and breadth: just under 1,000 kilometres from south to north, and just under 500 kilometres across at the widest point

Highest mountain: Ben Nevis, in the Highlands of Scotland, 1,343 metres

Longest river: the Severn, 354 kilometres, rises in Wales and flows through Shrewsbury, Worcester and Gloucester in England to the Bristol Channel

Largest lake: Lough Neagh, Northern Ireland, 382 square kilometres

Highest waterfall: Eas a'Chual Aluinn, from Glas Bheinn, in Scotland, with a drop of 200 metres

Deepest cave: Ogof Ffynnon Ddu, Powys, Wales, 308 metres deep

Most northerly point on the British mainland: Dunnet Head, north-east Scotland

Most southerly point on the British mainland: Lizard Point, Cornwall, England

Climate

The climate is generally mild and temperate. Prevailing weather systems move in from the Atlantic, and the weather is mainly influenced by depressions and their associated fronts moving eastwards, punctuated by fine, settled, anticyclonic periods lasting from a few days to several weeks. The temperature rarely rises above 32°C or falls below -10°C. The hottest day in 2003 was 10 August, with temperatures at Brogdale, near Faversham, Kent, reaching a record 38.5°C. The coldest night in 2003 was on 7/8 January, when Aviemore in the Scottish Highlands recorded a minimum of -18.6°C. There are four distinct seasons: spring (roughly March to May); summer (June to August); autumn (September to November) and winter (December to February).

Rainfall is greatest in western and upland areas, where the annual average exceeds 1,100 millimetres; the highest mountain areas receive

150th anniversary of the Met Office

The Met Office was set up in June 1854 to provide information about the weather and sea currents to the Royal Navy and the UK maritime community. From its origins as a small department in the former Board of Trade, it has grown into a government agency employing 1,800 staff at over 40 UK locations and overseas. It is also one of two World Area Forecast Centres, providing weather information for all international flights from the eastern North Atlantic area to central Australia.

In 2004 the Met Office completed its move to new headquarters in Exeter. The £80 million building won Major Project of the Year and Best Office Building of the Year in awards organised by Building Services Journal and the Electrical and Mechanical Contractor in June 2004.

more than 2,000 millimetres. Over much of lowland central England, annual rainfall ranges from 700 to 850 millimetres. Parts of East Anglia and the south east have the lowest rainfall, just 550 millimetres. Rain is fairly well distributed throughout the year.

The length of the day varies throughout the year. The relatively high latitude of Scotland means that winter days there are very short, while summer days are long, with an extended twilight. On the longest day, 21 June, there is no complete darkness in the north of Scotland and Lerwick, Shetland, has about four hours more daylight (including twilight) than London.

During May, June and July (the months of longest daylight) the mean daily duration of sunshine varies from five hours in northern Scotland to eight hours in the Isle of Wight. During the months of shortest daylight (November, December and January) sunshine is at a minimum, with an average of an hour a day in northern Scotland and two hours a day on the south coast of England.

Population

The population of the United Kingdom at mid-2003 was 59.6 million (Table 1.1). Official projections, based on 2002 population estimates, suggest that the population will reach 64.8 million by 2031. Longer term projections suggest that the population will peak around 2050 at over 65 million and then begin to fall (see page 100).

The population grew by 5.7 per cent between 1991 and 2003, partly a result of a greater number of births than deaths, with migration an increasing factor from the late 1990s (see page 103).

There are more people in the United Kingdom aged over 60 (12.4 million) than there are children under 16 (11.7 million). Northern Ireland has the youngest population, with children under 16

Table 1.1 Population and area, June 2003, UK

	England	Wales	Scotland	Northern Ireland	United Kingdom
Population (thousands)	49,856	2,938	5,057	1,703	59,554
% population aged:					,
under 5	5.7	5.4	5.2	6.5	5.7
5–15	14.0	14.2	13.4	16.3	
16 to pension age ¹	61.9	60.1	62.4	61.3	14.0 61.8
above pension age ¹	18.4	20.3	18.9	15.9	18.5
Area (sq km)	130,281	20,732	77.925	13.576	242,514
Population density (people per sq km)	383	142	65	125	242,314
% population change 1991–2003	6.5	4.4	-2.4	10.3	
Live births per 1,000 population	11.8	10.7	10.4		5.7
Deaths per 1,000 population	10.1	11.5	11.6	12.7	11.7
	10.1	11.5	11.0	8.5	10.3

¹ Pension age is currrently 65 for males and 60 for females.

Source: Office for National Statistics; National Assembly for Wales; General Register Office for Scotland; Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency

representing 23 per cent of the population, compared with 20 per cent in the United Kingdom as a whole in 2003.

The United Kingdom has one of the largest populations in the European Union (EU), accounting for 13 per cent of the total.

History of government

Major events in the development of government in the United Kingdom, together with a brief review of early history, are described below. There is a list of significant dates in appendix B (page 496).

'Britain' derives from Greek and Latin words that probably stem from a Celtic original. Although in the prehistoric timescale the Celts were relatively late arrivals in the British Isles, UK recorded history began with them. The term 'Celtic' is often used rather generally to distinguish the early inhabitants of the British Isles from the later Anglo-Saxon invaders.

After two expeditions by Julius Caesar in 55 and 54 BC, contact between Great Britain and the Roman world grew, culminating in the Roman invasion of AD 43. Roman rule, which lasted until about 409, gradually extended from south-east England to Wales and, for a time, the lowlands of Scotland.

England

When the Romans withdrew from Great Britain, the lowland regions were invaded and settled by Angles, Saxons and Jutes (tribes from what is now north-western Germany). England takes its name from the Angles. The Anglo-Saxon kingdoms were small and numerous, but in time fewer, larger areas of control developed. Eventually the southern kingdom of Wessex became dominant, mainly because of its leading role in resisting the Viking invasions in the ninth century. Athelstan (reigned 924–39) used the title 'King of all Britain', and from 954 there was a single kingdom of England.

The last successful invasion of England took place in 1066. Duke William of Normandy defeated the English at the Battle of Hastings and became King William I, known as 'William the Conqueror'. Many Normans and others from France came to settle; French became the language of the ruling classes for the next three centuries; and the legal

and social structures were influenced by those across the Channel.

When Henry II, originally from Anjou, was king (1154–89), his 'Angevin empire' stretched from the river Tweed on the Scottish border, through much of France to the Pyrénées. However, almost all of the English Crown's possessions in France were lost during the late Middle Ages (*c*.1300–1400).

In 1215 a group of barons demanded a charter of liberties as a safeguard against the arbitrary behaviour of King John. The rebels captured London and the King eventually agreed to their demands. The resulting royal grant was the *Magna Carta*. Among other things, the charter promised that 'To no one will we sell, to no one deny or delay right or justice'. It established the important constitutional principle that the power of the king could be limited.

The Hundred Years War between England and France began in 1337, leading to a period of high taxation. In 1381 the introduction of a poll tax led to the Peasants' Revolt, the most significant popular revolt in English history. The peasants marched on London, executed ministers and won promises of concessions, including the abolition of serfdom, although Richard II went back on these promises once the peasants had dispersed.

In 1485 Henry Tudor defeated Richard III at the Battle of Bosworth Field and became Henry VII. His son, Henry VIII, broke away from the Catholic Church and founded the Church of England. During his reign England and Wales were united. The last of the Tudors, Elizabeth I, was childless. She named James VI of Scotland as her successor, thus uniting the monarchies of Scotland, England and Wales when she died in 1603.

Civil War broke out in 1642. The capture and execution of Charles I in 1649 changed the balance of power between Monarch and Parliament. A leading parliamentarian in the civil war was Oliver Cromwell. He declared England a republic in 1649. Appointed Lord Protector of the Commonwealth from late 1653 until his death in 1658, Cromwell had supreme legislative and executive power in association with Parliament and the Council of State; he was the only non-royal to hold this position. The Monarchy was restored when Charles II ascended the throne in 1660. In 1707 the *Acts of Union* united the English and Scottish Parliaments and the *Act of Union 1800* united

Great Britain and Northern Ireland. Parliamentary reform was a recurrent issue in the 18th and 19th centuries. The 1832 *Reform Act* began dismantling the old parliamentary system and extending the franchise. The *Reform Acts* of 1867 and 1884 gave the vote to a gradually wider section of the population. During the 20th century, the *Representation of the People Acts* took the process further. In 1918, women aged 30 or over who were householders, householders' wives or graduates were enfranchised and in 1928 the *Equal Franchise Act* extended the franchise to women aged 21 or over, giving them the same voting rights as men. Universal suffrage for all eligible people over 18 was granted in 1969 (see page 40).

Wales

Wales was a Celtic stronghold ruled by sovereign princes under the influence of England after the Romans left around 409. In 1282 Edward I brought Wales under English rule; the castles he built in the north remain among the finest UK historic monuments. Edward I's eldest son – later Edward II – was born at Caernarvon in 1284 and became the first English Prince of Wales in 1301. The eldest son of the reigning monarch continues to bear this title; Prince Charles was made Prince of Wales in 1969.

At the beginning of the 15th century Welsh resentment of unjust English laws and administration, and widespread economic discontent, resulted in the nationalist leader Owain Glyndŵr leading an unsuccessful revolt against the English (see page 20). The Tudor dynasty, which was of Welsh ancestry, ruled England from 1485 to 1603 and during this period the *Acts of Union* (1536 and 1542) united England and Wales administratively, politically and legally.

This situation prevailed until July 1999, when devolution created a National Assembly for Wales with specific powers to make secondary legislation to meet distinctive Welsh needs (see page 18).

N. Carrie

Scotland

Evidence of human settlement in what is now Scotland dates from about the third millennium BC. By the time the Romans invaded Britain, many tribes were living in the region and despite a number of attempts to control them, Roman rule never permanently extended to most of Scotland.

Great Black Britons

Mary Seacole, a veteran nurse in the Crimean War (see page 92), came first in an Internet poll of the 100 Great Black Britons. The poll highlighted the contribution that Black people have made to UK society since Roman times. The website for the poll received more than 1 million hits and 10,000 people voted.

Born in 1805 in Jamaica to a Scottish father and Jamaican mother, Mary Seacole came to England in the 1850s. As a nurse, she volunteered to help in the Crimean war. She was turned down, but went to the Crimea independently and was awarded a Crimean medal for her work

Wilfred Wood, the first Black bishop, came second in the poll. He was followed by Mary Prince, the first Black female author to be published; Olaudah Equiano, a former slave and political activist; and Queen Philippa, the wife of Edward III. George of Lydda, who became St George, the patron saint of England, came 24th.

By the fifth century AD, the Scots, a Celtic people from Ireland, had settled on the north-west coast of Great Britain and a century later had formed the kingdom of Dalriada. The political connection with Ireland remained until the Battle of Mag Rath in 637. The kingdom of Dalriada lasted until the ninth century when Kenneth Mac Alpin imposed authority over the Scots and their neighbours and rivals, the Picts, to form a single kingdom. He and his successors expanded into traditionally independent territories and the kingdom of Scotland was formed during the ninth and tenth centuries.

The kingdoms of England and Scotland were frequently at war during the Middle Ages (*c*.1000–1400). When Edward I tried to impose direct English rule over Scotland in 1296, a revolt for independence broke out, which ended in 1328 when Edward III recognised its leader, Robert the Bruce, as King Robert I of Scotland.

The English and Scottish crowns were united in 1603 when James VI of Scotland succeeded Elizabeth I. He became James I of England and

was the first of the Stuart kings. In 1745 Charles Edward Stuart (also known as 'Bonnie Prince Charlie' or 'The Young Pretender') attempted to retake the throne for the Stuarts (it had passed to the House of Hanover in 1714). He was eventually defeated at the Battle of Culloden, north-east of Inverness, in April 1746.

Politically, England and Scotland remained separate during the 17th century, apart from a period of union forced on them by Oliver Cromwell in the 1650s. It was not until 1707 that the English and Scottish Parliaments agreed on a single Parliament for Great Britain to sit at Westminster in London. Nearly 300 years later, in July 1999, devolution meant that power to administer Scottish affairs was returned to a new Scottish Parliament (see page 25).

Northern Ireland

Henry II of England invaded Ireland in 1169. He had been made overlord of Ireland by the English Pope Adrian IV. Although Anglo-Norman noblemen controlled part of the country during the Middle Ages (*c*.1000–1400), little direct authority came from England.

During the reign of Elizabeth I (1558–1603) there were several rebellions, particularly in the northern province of Ulster. In 1607, after the rebel leaders had been defeated, Protestant immigrants from Scotland and England settled there.

The English civil war (1642–51) coincided with uprisings in Ireland, which Oliver Cromwell suppressed. More fighting took place after the overthrow of James II, a Roman Catholic, in 1688. At the Battle of the Boyne in 1690, the Protestant William of Orange (later William III) defeated James II, who was trying to regain the English throne from his base in Ireland.

In 1782 the Government in London gave the Irish Parliament power to legislate on Irish affairs. Only the Anglo-Irish minority were represented in this Parliament. Following the unsuccessful rebellion of Wolfe Tone's United Irishmen movement in 1798, Great Britain took back control of Ireland under the *Act of Union 1800*. The Irish Parliament was abolished in 1801; Irish interests were represented by members sitting in both Houses of the Westminster Parliament.

The question of 'Home Rule' for Ireland remained one of the major issues of British politics. By 1910 the Liberal Government in London depended for its political survival on support from the Irish Parliamentary Party. The conflict deepened as some unionists and nationalists in Ireland formed private armies. In 1914 Home Rule was approved in the *Government of Ireland Act* but implementation was suspended because of the First World War.

In 1916 a nationalist uprising in Dublin was put down and its leaders executed. Two years later the nationalist Sinn Féin party won a large majority of the Irish seats in the General Election to the Westminster Parliament. Its members refused to attend the House of Commons and instead formed their own assembly – the Dáil Éireann – in Dublin. In 1919 the Irish Republican Army (IRA) began operations against the UK administration.

In 1920 a new *Government of Ireland Act* provided for separate Parliaments in Northern and Southern Ireland, subordinate to Westminster. The Act was implemented in Northern Ireland in 1921, giving six of the nine counties of the province of Ulster their own Parliament with powers to manage internal affairs. However, the Act was not accepted in the South and the 26 counties of Southern Ireland left the United Kingdom in 1922.

From 1921 until 1972 Northern Ireland had its own Parliament. The unionists, primarily representing the Protestant community, held a permanent majority and formed the regional government. The nationalist minority was effectively excluded from political office and influence. In the late 1960s and early 1970s, the civil rights movement and reactions to it resulted in serious inter-communal rioting. The UK Army was sent in to help the police keep law and order in 1969.

Terrorism and violence continued to increase. In 1972, the UK Government decided to take back direct responsibility for law and order. The Northern Ireland Unionist Government resigned in protest, the regional government was abolished and direct rule from Westminster began; this was to last until devolved powers were given back to a Northern Ireland Assembly in December 1999 (see page 32). The Northern Ireland Assembly and the Executive has been suspended on a number of occasions since 1999. The latest suspension was in October 2002, because the UK Government

considered that it was not possible to hold together an inclusive power-sharing Executive, since the confidence within the community necessary to underpin it had broken down.

Channel Islands and Isle of Man

The Channel Islands (Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney and Sark being the largest in the group) were part of the Duchy of Normandy in the 10th and 11th centuries and remained subject to the English Crown after the loss of mainland Normandy to the French in 1204. The Isle of Man was under the nominal sovereignty of Norway until 1266, and eventually came under the direct administration of the British Crown in 1765, when it was bought for £70,000.

Today these territories each have their own legislative assemblies and systems of law, and their own taxation systems. The UK Government is responsible for their international relations and external defence. The Isle of Man Parliament, Tynwald, was established more than 1,000 years ago and is the oldest legislature in continuous existence in the world. It also has the distinction of having three chambers: the House of Keys; the Legislative Council; and the Tynwald Court, when the House of Keys and the Legislative Council sit together as a single chamber.

The United Kingdom is a member of the European Union (EU – see page 67) but the Channel Islands and Isle of Man are neither EU Member States in their own right nor part of the UK Member State. EU rules on the free movement of goods and the Common Agricultural Policy broadly apply to the Islands, but not those on the free movement of services or persons. Islanders

benefit from the latter only if they have close ties with the United Kingdom.

Further reading

Appendix B on page 496 lists significant dates in UK history.

Annual Abstract of Statistics (annual publication). Office for National Statistics. The Stationery Office.

Population Trends (quarterly publication). Office for National Statistics. The Stationery Office.

Regional Trends (annual publication). Office for National Statistics. The Stationery Office.

Social Trends (annual publication). Office for National Statistics. The Stationery Office.

Websites

British Geological Survey www.bgs.ac.uk

The Met Office

www.metoffice.com

The National Archives
www.nationalarchives.gov.uk

Office for National Statistics www.statistics.gov.uk

7

2 England

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Population

England's population in 2003 was 49.9 million (Table 2.1), about 84 per cent of the population of the United Kingdom. The most densely populated areas are the major cities and metropolitan areas of London and the South East, South and West Yorkshire, Greater Manchester and Merseyside, the West Midlands, and the conurbations on the rivers Tyne, Wear and Tees. London has the highest population density with 4,699 people per square kilometre, and the South West the lowest (210 people per square kilometre).

Between 1991 and 2003 the population grew by 4.1 per cent. There were big variations between the regions; the population in the North East fell by 1.8 per cent between 1991 and 2003, while the population in London rose by 8.2 per cent during the same period.

Table 2.1 Population and population change by region, June 2003, England

		Change in
	Population	Population
	(thousands)	1991–2003 (%)
North East	2,539	-1.8
North West	6,805	-0.6
Yorkshire and the Humber	5,009	1.5
East Midlands	4,252	6.0
West Midlands	5,320	1.7
East of England	5,463	6.7
London	7,388	8.2
South East	8,080	5.9
South West	4,999	6.6
England	49,856	4.1

¹ These are the areas covered by the Government Offices – see map on page 13.

Representation at Westminster and in Europe

There are 529 English parliamentary constituencies represented in the House of Commons (Table 2.2). The Labour Party holds the majority of seats and forms the Government. Its traditional support comes mainly from the big cities and areas associated with heavy industry, but it also holds many seats that were once 'safe' Conservative constituencies. The Conservative Party holds the second largest number of seats and is the official Opposition. Conservative support is traditionally strong in suburban and rural areas, and the party has a large number of seats in southern England. The Liberal Democrats, traditionally strong in the South West, now have over a third of their English seats in Greater London and the South East.

In contrast to Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland (see chapters 3, 4 and 5), England has no separate elected national body exclusively responsible for its central administration. Instead a number of government departments look after

Table 2.2 Electoral representation, July 2004, England

	UK Parliament (MPs)	European Parliament (MEPs)
Labour	320	15
Conservative	164	24
Liberal Democrats	43	11
UK Independence Party	0	12
Green Party	0	2
Others	2	0
Total seats	529	64

Source: House of Commons Information Office; European Parliament London Office

Source: Office for National Statistics

England's day-to-day administrative affairs (see appendix A, page 481) and there is a network of nine Government Offices for the Regions (GOs, see page 12). However, in the longer term, the Government is committed to providing for directly elected regional assemblies in those regions that want them (see page 13).

The House of Commons has a Standing Committee on Regional Affairs, consisting of 13 Members of Parliament (MPs) from English constituencies, reflecting party representation in the House. Any other MP representing an English constituency may take part in its proceedings, but they may not make a motion, vote or be counted in the quorum.

European Parliament elections

England is represented by 64 Members of the European Parliament (MEPs), seven fewer MEPs than before the enlargement of the European Union in May 2004. In the European parliamentary elections held in June 2004, 14.5 million people in England, 39 per cent of the electorate, voted for an MEP (see Table 2.2). All-postal voting was piloted in four of the English regions: North East; North West; Yorkshire and the Humber; and East Midlands (see page 41). Turnout in all four regions was over 40 per cent, the highest being the East Midlands (43.9 per cent) and the lowest the West Midlands (36.6 per cent). Voting is by the d'Hondt system of proportional representation (see glossary).

Local government

The structure of local government in England includes shire areas, which have a two-tier council system, and metropolitan districts, unitary authorities and London boroughs, which all have a single-tier system (see map on page 10). London boroughs, shire district councils, unitary authorities and metropolitan districts are broken down into electoral wards.

Shire counties

Most of England is organised into shire areas with two main tiers of local authority – 34 shire county councils and 238 shire district councils covering 272 out of the 389 elected authorities. The county councils are responsible for large-scale services in their areas including education, strategic planning, transport, highways, social services, fire services, libraries and waste disposal. Each county council area is subdivided into a number of district councils, which are responsible for more local matters including environmental health, housing, local planning applications, local taxation, waste collection, and leisure. Both tiers have powers to provide facilities such as museums, art galleries and parks; these arrangements depend on local agreement. Shire areas also have a police authority, made up of local councillors, magistrates and independent members. Police authorities may cover one or more counties.

Metropolitan district councils

The six metropolitan county areas in England – Greater Manchester, Merseyside, South Yorkshire, Tyne and Wear, West Midlands and West Yorkshire – have 36 district councils² but no county councils. The district councils are responsible for all services in their areas apart from those that have a statutory authority over areas wider than the individual district. For example, the fire and police services, public transport, and in some areas, waste disposal services, are run by joint authorities that include elected councillors nominated by each district council.

Unitary authorities

There are 47 unitary authorities where the county and district responsibilities are carried out by a single tier of government. Unitary authorities include some of the larger cities, the County of Herefordshire, the Isle of Wight and the Isles of Scilly. Unitary authorities do not have responsibility for the police or the fire and rescue services. These are administered by a police authority and a fire authority usually made up of local councillors, magistrates and independent members, and covering a larger area than the unitary authority.

¹ See page 49 for an explanation of Standing Committees.

² District councils in Metropolitan areas sometimes call themselves boroughs or city councils.