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THEME

**BRITAIN SEEN AS A MYTHICAL OR A TRUE
DEVELOPED COUNTRY**

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INTRODUCTION

English is undoubtedly today the first language for communication throughout the world. This statement demonstrates how the English language is important to people of different parts of the world for understanding each other and exchanging ideas.

Worthy, we must be interested in the native country of this international language, which is the United Kingdom of Great Britain and the Northern Ireland.

The official name of the country is the United Kingdom of Great Britain and the Northern Ireland but most people call it the United Kingdom, the UK, Great Britain or simply Britain.

The United Kingdom of Great Britain and the Northern Ireland is an island country in northern Europe. The country was an empire belonging to the reduced circle of the most important countries for many centuries. Due to its geographical situation, surrounded with water, the country was the main maritime power of the 19th century. The industrial revolution which first began in the country allowed it to become the industrial power of the 1800s. Its participation to the two world wars during the first half of the 1900s weakened it severely. The 1950s saw the dismantling of the empire and the United Kingdom reconstructed itself and become a successful European nation. In the fields of science, literature and parliamentary democracy, the United Kingdom was a pioneer in their development.

The United Kingdom of Great Britain and the Northern Ireland is one of the founder members of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) and of

the Commonwealth and one of the five permanent members of the United Nations (UN) Security Council.

The United Kingdom of Great Britain and the Northern Ireland has only about one percent of the world population. It is really four countries united under one government. These countries are: England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland.

The flag of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and the Northern Ireland known as Union Jack or Union Flag represents the emblems of three saints. The flag has a blue ground and on it we have the edged cross of Saint George patron saint of England edged in white superimposed on the diagonal red cross of saint Patrick, patron saint of Ireland, and this is superimposed on the diagonal white cross of Saint Andrew, patron of Scotland. Wales is not represented in the Union flag because when the first version of the flag appeared, Wales was already united with England.

The first version of the United Flag appeared in 1801, after the union of Great Britain with Ireland, with the inclusion of the cross of Saint Patrick. This cross remains in the flag although only Northern Ireland is part of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and the Northern Ireland.

The inhabitants of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and the Northern Ireland can claim a diverse lineage of European peoples after many invasions in their past. Among these peoples, are the Celts, the Angles, the Saxons, the Jutes, the French and the Danes. Over the centuries, the mixing of people due to the numerous intermarriages has led to the loss of these differences.

The British national anthem has its origin in a patriotic song first performed in 1745. There is no authorized version; the words used are a matter of tradition and it is used to sing the first verse only on official occasions.

In this work, we define a powerful country as a country, which presents a given number of characteristics, which are the following:

- ☞ A high rate of literacy
- ☞ A strong currency
- ☞ A political stability
- ☞ A wealthy economy
- ☞ A development domain of science and technology
- ☞ A strong military defense (air, land and maritime)
- ☞ A self sufficiency in domain such as food
- ☞ A social welfare of its inhabitants.

This work is divided into four parts; each part dealing with geographic, socio-cultural, educational and political, economical and military aspects of the United Kingdom will allow us an accurate study of the country. From the various data collected and according to the definition of a powerful country, we can know if the country under the study is powerful or not.

**PART ONE: BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY AND BRITAIN'S
PRESENTATION**

CHAPTER ONE: RESEARCH CONTENTS

1-1-Problem Statement

The choice of the present topic comes from the information about Britain. So, there is a need to clarify or lay more emphasis on the British people's conditions. As Britain is one of the world's richest countries, it may be considered as a paradise; but it is a mix of all (poor a rich, educated and non-educated) The British people situation has changed with the implementation of the "welfare state".

1-2-Purpose of the study

I cannot deal with this research work without pointing out what a "powerful country" is and how it has affected the British people's life. This study aims at providing a deep understanding of the British "welfare state" before and after 1948.

Another goal of my study is to find out whether a "powerful country" implemented in Britain is a myth or a reality.

Thus, my research work will help to find solutions to the questions raised by the actualisation of the "powerful country".

1-3-Significance of the study

Britain, an important country, had its own problems. This led to the implementation of the "powerful country" in Britain. This situation shows that investigating on this topic.

This study is significant in the sense that will allow people to know more about Britain and its population's conditions. It will be about health, housing, and other social issues (education, food, employment...).

1-4-Scope of the study

I cannot achieve this research work without taking into account the scope of the study; that is the limitation of our study.

This research work is not intended to make an overall study of the topic. So my work is to investigate on some aspects of the British “welfare state” and their consequences on the British people. Thus, I will focus my work on health, housing and other social issues (education, needs, unemployment, inequalities...)

1-5-Research methodology

In order to deal with this topic more efficiently, I have first read some articles which give information about Britain especially about the welfare state with its aspect. Besides, internet has also played a great role since I've got useful information through it to develop my topic.

For a research work to be then well presented, its writing has to be done in a specific way different from news or journal article. Therefore, it needs to be carried out with scientific methods: data analysis, critical and imaginative analysis of the data are some of the method used in this work. This study is designed to find out the human resources management in Great Britain as a factor to a welfare state. This goal cannot be achieved unless the research work is orderly, imaginative, logical and accurate.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Literature view available

For the last two decades or so, the developing countries have been under great pressure from the developed countries and the international institutions that they control - such as the International Monetary Fund, the World Bank, the World Trade Organisation - to adopt a set of 'good policies', especially free trade, and 'good institutions', such as strong patent law, in order to foster their economic development.

The historical fact is that, today's developed countries did not develop on the basis of the policies and the institutions that they now recommend to, or even force upon, the developing countries.

Virtually all of today's developed countries used tariff protection and subsidies to develop their industries, and in the earlier stages of their development, they did not even have such 'basic' institutions as democracy, central banks, patent law, or professional civil services.

Given that the adoption of 'good policies' and 'good institutions' has failed to generate the promised acceleration of economic development in the developing world, and has in some cases even led to economic and social collapses, a radical re-thinking of the development orthodoxy is required.

Above all, the conditions attached to bilateral and multilateral financial assistance to developing countries should be radically changed, on the recognition that the orthodox recipe is not working, and that there can be no single recipe of 'best practice' policies that everyone should use.

Second, the WTO rules should be re-written so that the developing countries can more actively use tariffs and subsidies for industrial development.

Third, improvements in institutions should be encouraged, but this should not be equated with imposing a fixed set of today's - not even yesterday's - Anglo-American institutions on all countries; nor should it be attempted in haste, as institutional development is a lengthy and costly process.

1.2. Criticism of literature

In the course of England's long and unsuccessful attempt to crush the American Revolution, the myth arose that its government, under Prime Minister Frederick, Lord North, had acted in haste. Accusations circulating at the time—later to become conventional wisdom—held that the nation's political leaders had failed to comprehend the gravity of the challenge.

Actually, the British cabinet, made up of nearly a score of ministers, first considered resorting to military might as early as January 1774, when word of the Boston Tea Party reached London. (Recall that on December 16, 1773, protesters had boarded British vessels in Boston Harbor and destroyed cargoes of tea, rather than pay a tax imposed by Parliament.) Contrary to popular belief both then and now, Lord North's government did not respond impulsively to the news. Throughout early 1774, the prime minister and his cabinet engaged in lengthy debate on whether coercive actions would lead to war. A second question was considered as well: Could Britain win such a war?

By March 1774, North's government had opted for punitive measures that fell short of declaring war. Parliament enacted the Coercive Acts—or Intolerable Acts, as Americans called them—and applied the legislation to Massachusetts alone, to punish the colony for its provocative act. Britain's principal action was to close Boston Harbor until the tea had been paid for. England also installed Gen. Thomas Gage, commander of the British Army in America, as

governor of the colony. Politicians in London chose to heed the counsel of Gage, who opined that the colonists would “be lions whilst we are lambs but if we take the resolute part they will be very meek.”

Britain, of course, miscalculated hugely. In September 1774, colonists convened the First Continental Congress in Philadelphia; the members voted to embargo British commerce until all British taxes and the Coercive Acts were repealed. News of that vote reached London in December. A second round of deliberations within North’s ministry ensued for nearly six weeks.

Throughout its deliberations, North’s government agreed on one point: the Americans would pose little challenge in the event of war. The Americans had neither a standing army nor a navy; few among them were experienced officers. Britain possessed a professional army and the world’s greatest navy. Furthermore, the colonists had virtually no history of cooperating with one another, even in the face of danger. In addition, many in the cabinet were swayed by disparaging assessments of American soldiers leveled by British officers in earlier wars. For instance, during the French and Indian War (1754-63), Brig. Gen. James Wolfe had described America’s soldiers as “cowardly dogs.” Henry Ellis, the royal governor of Georgia, nearly simultaneously asserted that the colonists were a “poor species of fighting men” given to “a want of bravery.”

1.3. Contextual and Conceptual Clarification

After 1945 the Welfare State was created following the Beveridge Report - named after the civil servant who developed the idea. The Report identified Five Giant Evils in UK Society - squalor, idleness, disease, ignorance and want. UK citizens became entitled to a safety net from birth (in the form of a maternity grant) to death (in the form of a death grant). National Insurance was expected to fund major benefits to cover sickness, unemployment, disability

and old age. In practice, the cost of the Welfare State has become much greater than expected and it is now the biggest single item of public spending. Taxation has had to cover much of the cost.

Many politicians now question whether a system of universal benefits is affordable. If benefits are targeted towards those in greatest need, the amounts paid out could be raised but the overall cost held down. However, this means making more, if not all, benefits subject to a means test. A *means test* is where all the factors in an applicant's financial circumstance are taken into account. This may discourage some poor people with small amounts of savings from applying for benefits as they would be penalised for this in a means test. This has already been shown to be a problem with the elderly, many of whom do not apply for support as a result.

Groups in UK society with below-average incomes include the long-term unemployed, the disabled, the elderly, families with children and some ethnic minority groups.

PART TWO: GENERAL PRESENTATION OF BRITAIN

CHAPTER THREE: PHYSICAL AND SOCIAL ASPECTS

3.1. Physical Geography

3.1.1. Landscapes

In the United Kingdom, the highest peaks are not in England or Northern Ireland. Only Wales and Scotland are countries with real mountains.

The Scottish beautiful mountains regions extended westwards into the rocky islands of the Hebrides. It is in central Highland that is located Ben Nevis, the highest mountain in the United Kingdom with 1,343 metres (4,406 feet) height. Ben Nevis is rounded and covered with heather.

In North Wales, we have Snowdon which is 1,085 metres (3,560 feet) high.

In North Wales, we have Snowdon which is 1,085 metres (3,560 feet) high.

Though England is a lowland country, there are high hills in the north and the south west. In the north, lies the Pennine Chain nicknamed “the backbone of England” with its cylindrical heights. Pennine Chain is connected to Lake District in the North West. Lake District is another Highlands, but in miniature and to describe it, it is a set of mountainsinous heights dominating long and narrow lakes.

The landscape of southeastern England is shaped by an undulating bed of thick white chalk, consisting of a pure limestone speckled with flint nodules in the upper beds. Under the chalk are an incomplete layer of Upper Greensand (a Cretaceous rock; 65 to 145 million years old) and a 200-foot- (60-metre-) thick waterproof layer of Gault clay. Beneath them in turn lies London’s true geologic foundation, a stable platform of old hard rocks of Paleozoic age (about 250 to 540 million years old). This basement is buried nearly 1,000 feet (300 metres)

England covers over 50,000 square miles (130 439 square kilometres) and is the largest of the countries comprising the island of Britain, covering about two-thirds of the island. No place in England is more than 75 miles (120 km) from the sea. The landscape is determined mainly by the different types of rock underlying it. In the south, chalk has produced the gently rolling hills of the Downs, while hard granite is the basis for the mountains of the north and the high moorlands of Dartmoor and Exmoor in the south-west. Much of the land in England is flat (low lying) - less than 1000m above sea level, forming meadowlands and pastures and less than 10 percent of the area is covered by woodlands. Farmers raise animals or grow crops in the fields. Upland areas are generally confined to northern England: the exceptions are the upland moors of Dartmoor and Exmoor in the south-west.

The landscape of England is more rugged in the north and the west. The highest elevations are in Cumbria and the Lake District in the west. The highest point in England is Scafell Pike, 978m, part of the Cumbrian Mountains in North West England. The area of the Cumbrian mountains is the most rugged in England and is more commonly known as the Lake District after the many lakes there. The Pennines, a large chain of hills with moorland tops rising to between 600 and 900 metres, splits northern England into northwest and northeast sectors. They run down from the Scottish border to the river Trent about halfway down the country. The Southwest is a long peninsular with bleak moorlands and rocky outcrop. The wide expanse of Salisbury Plain occupies most of the central part of southern England. In the Southeast, a horseshoe-shaped ring of chalk downs surrounds the formerly wooded area of the Weald. The southeast corner, from Dover to Eastbourne, has dramatic chalk cliffs bordering the English channel.

England's best known river is, of course, the Thames which flows through London. It is also the longest, at 346km, in England. England has a

long coastline of 3,200 km. In the south and west, the coastline can be rocky, with steep cliffs. The east coast is often flat and low lying, with beaches and mud flats. The English Channel runs along England's southern border, and the North Sea forms England's eastern border. Wales and the Irish Sea border England to the West. Scotland runs along England's northwestern borders.

3.1.2. Climate and Cultures

3.1.2. 1- Climate

The United Kingdom straddles the geographic mid-latitudes between 50-60 N from the equator. It is also positioned on the western seaboard of Eurasia, the world's largest land mass. These boundary conditions allow convergence between moist maritime air and dry continental air. In this area, the large temperature variation creates atmospheric instability and this is a major factor that influences the often unsettled weather the country experiences, where many types of weather can be experienced in a single day.

Regional climates in the United Kingdom are influenced by the Atlantic Ocean and latitude. Northern Ireland, Wales and western parts of England and Scotland, being closest to the Atlantic, are generally the mildest, wettest and windiest regions of the UK, and temperature ranges here are seldom extreme. Eastern areas are drier, cooler, less windy and also experience the greatest daily and seasonal temperature variations. Northern areas are generally cooler, wetter and have a slight bigger temperature range than southern areas. Though the UK is mostly under the influence of the maritime tropical air mass from the south-west, different regions are more susceptible than others when different air masses affect the country: Northern Ireland and the west of Scotland are the most exposed to the maritime polar air mass which brings cool moist air; the east of Scotland and north-east England are more exposed to the continental polar air mass which brings cold dry air;

the south and south-east of England are more exposed to the continental tropical air mass which brings warm dry air (and consequently most of the time the warmest summer temperatures); Wales and the south-west of England are the most exposed to the maritime tropical air mass which brings warm moist air. If the air masses are strong enough in their respective areas during the summer there can sometimes be a massive difference in temperature between the far north/north-west of Scotland (including the Islands) and south-east of England - usually around 10-15°C (18-27°F) but can be as much as 20°C (36°F) or more. An example of this could be that in the height of summer the Northern Isles could be sitting at around 15°C (59°F) and areas around London could be basking at 30°C (86°F).

3.1.2. 1.1- England

England has warmer maximum and minimum temperatures throughout the year than the other areas of the UK, though Wales has milder minimums from November to February, and Northern Ireland has warmer maximums from December to February. England is also sunnier throughout the year, but unlike Wales, Northern Ireland and Scotland, the sunniest month is July, totaling 192.8 hours. It rains on fewer days in every month throughout the year than the rest of the UK, and rainfall totals are less in every month, with the driest month of July averaging 54.1 mm (2.13 in). The climate of south-west England experiences a seasonal temperature variation, although it is less extreme than most of the United Kingdom. Gales are less common in England compared to Scotland, however on some occasions there can be strong winds, and rarely, the remains of Atlantic hurricanes and tropical storms. Some events such as the Great Storm of 1987 occurred near to the UK and caused damage in England.

3.1.2.1. 2- Northern Ireland

Northern Ireland is warmer than Scotland throughout the year. Maximum temperatures are milder than in Wales from December to April, and milder than in England from December to February, but Northern Ireland is cooler during the rest of the year. Sunshine totals in every month are more than those of Scotland, but less than those of the rest of Great Britain. Northern Ireland is drier and has fewer rainy days than Scotland throughout the year, except in May, when it rains on more days. Northern Ireland is also drier than Wales in every month, yet it rains on more days. The rainiest month is January, when 17.8 days have more than 1 mm (0.04 in) of rain on average.

3.1.2. 1.3- Scotland

Scotland has the coolest weather of any country in the United Kingdom throughout the year (with the altitude climate varying into *Cfc*), with average minimum temperatures in January of $-0.2\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ ($31.6\text{ }^{\circ}\text{F}$).^l Scotland is also the wettest country in every month, apart from in May, June and December, when Wales is wetter. The wettest month is January, with 170.5 mm (6.71 in) on average. Scotland is also the cloudiest country throughout the year, apart from in June and July, when Northern Ireland is.

3.1.2. 1.4- Wales

Wales has warmer temperatures throughout the year than Scotland, and has milder winter minimums than England, but cooler winter maximums than Northern Ireland. Wales is wetter throughout the year than Northern Ireland and England, but has fewer rainy days than Northern Ireland; meaning that rainfall tends to be more intense. Wales is also drier than Scotland in every month apart from May, June and December, and there are fewer days with rain than in Scotland. Sunshine totals throughout the year are more than that of

Scotland and Northern Ireland, but less than that of neighbouring England. May is the sunniest month, averaging 186.8 hours.

3.1.2.2- Seasons

3.1.2.2.1- Spring

Spring is the period from March to May. Spring is generally a calm, cool and dry season, particularly because the Atlantic has lost much of its heat throughout the autumn and winter. However, as the sun rises higher in the sky and the days get longer, temperatures can rise relatively high, but often tend to drop off again at night due to the cool oceans and the warm weather dependent solely on the sun. Thunderstorms and heavy showers can develop occasionally particularly towards the end of the season.

There is a fair chance of snow earlier in the season when temperatures are colder. Some of the country's heaviest snowfalls of recent years have happened in the first half of March and snow showers can occur infrequently until mid-April.

Mean temperatures in Spring are markedly influenced by latitude. Most of Scotland and the mountains of Wales and northern England are the coolest areas of the UK, with average temperatures ranging from -0.6 to 5.8 °C (30.9 to 42.4 °F). The southern half of England experiences the warmest spring temperatures of between 8.8 and 10.3 °C (47.8 and 50.5 °F).

3.1.2.2.2- summer

Summer lasts from June to August and is the warmest season. Rainfall totals can have a wide local variation due to localised thunderstorms. These thunderstorms mainly occur in southern, eastern, and central England and are less frequent and severe in the north and west. North Atlantic depressions are not as severe in summer but increase both in severity and frequency towards

the end of the season. Summer can see high pressure systems from the Azores High.

Climatic differences at this time of year are more influenced by latitude and temperatures are highest in southern and central areas and lowest in the north. Generally, summer temperatures rarely exceed 32 degrees, which happens more frequently in London and the South East than other parts of the country. Scotland and northern England have the coolest summers (average 12.2 °C (54.0 °F) to 14.8 °C (58.6 °F)), while Wales and the south-west of England have warmer summers (14.9 °C (58.8 °F) to 15.4 °C (59.7 °F)) and the south and south-east of England have the warmest summers (15.5 °C (59.9 °F) to 17.7 °C (63.9 °F)). The record maximum is 38.5 °C (101.3 °F) recorded in Faversham, Kent in August 2003.

3.1.2.2.3- Autumn

Autumn in the United Kingdom lasts from September to November. The season is notorious for being unsettled—as cool polar air moves southwards following the sun, it meets the warm air of the tropics and produces an area of great disturbance along which the country lies. This combined with the warm ocean due to heating throughout the spring and summer, produces the unsettled weather of autumn. In addition, when the air is particularly cold temperatures on land may be colder than the ocean, resulting in significant amounts of condensation and clouds which bring rain to the country.

Atlantic depressions during this time can become intense and winds of hurricane force (greater than 119 km/h/74 mph) can be recorded. Western areas, being closest to the Atlantic, experience these severe conditions to a significantly greater extent than eastern areas. As such, autumn, particularly the latter part, is often the stormiest time of the year. One particularly intense depression was the Great Storm of 1987.

However, the United Kingdom sometimes experiences an 'Indian Summer', where temperatures particularly by night can be very mild and rarely fall below 10 °C (50 °F). Such events are aided by the surrounding Atlantic Ocean and seas being at their warmest, keeping the country in warm air, despite the relatively weak sun. Examples of this were in 1985, 2005, 2006, and 2011 where October even more so, saw above average temperatures which felt more like a continuation of summer than autumn. Autumns since 2000 have been very mild with notable extremes of precipitation; the UK has seen some of its wettest and driest autumns since the millennium.

Coastal areas in the southern half of England have on average the warmest autumns, with mean temperatures of 10.7 to 13.0 °C (51.3 to 55.4 °F). Mountainous areas of Wales and northern England, and almost all of Scotland, experience mean temperatures between 1.7 and 7.5 °C (35.1 and 45.5 °F).

3.1.2.2.4- Winter

Winter in the UK is defined as lasting from December to February. The season is generally cool, wet and windy. Temperatures at night rarely drop below -10 °C (14 °F) and in the day rarely rise above 15 °C (59 °F). Precipitation is plentiful throughout the season, though snow is relatively infrequent despite the country's high latitude: The only areas with significant snowfall are the Scottish highlands and the Pennines, where at higher elevations a colder climate determines the vegetation, mainly temperate coniferous forest, although deforestation has severely decreased forest area. For a majority of the landmass snow is possible but not frequent, apart from the higher altitudes, where snow can lie 1–5 months or even beyond 6 months.

Towards the later part of the season the weather usually stabilises with less wind, less precipitation and lower temperatures. This change is particularly pronounced near the coasts mainly because the Atlantic ocean is often at its

coldest during this time after being cooled throughout the autumn and the winter. The early part of winter however is often unsettled and stormy; often the wettest and windiest time of the year.

Snow falls intermittently and mainly affects northern and eastern areas, Wales and chiefly higher ground, especially the mountains of Scotland where the amount of lying snow is frequently high enough to permit skiing at one of the five Scottish ski resorts. Snow however rarely lasts more than a week in most of these areas as the cold air brought by northerly or easterly winds, or in a high pressure system gives way to mild southerly or westerly winds introduced by low pressure systems. However, on rare occasions some potent depressions may move in from the north in the form of 'polar lows', introducing heavy snow and often blizzard-like conditions to parts of the United Kingdom, particularly Scotland. During periods of light winds and high pressure frost and fog can become a problem and can pose a major hazard for drivers on the roads.

Mean winter temperatures in the UK are most influenced by proximity to the sea. The coldest areas are the mountains of Wales and northern England, and inland areas of Scotland, averaging -3.6 to 2.3 °C (25.5 to 36.1 °F). Coastal areas, particularly those in the south and west, experience the mildest winters, on average 5 to 8.7 °C (41 to 47.7 °F).^[17] Hardiness zones in the UK are high, ranging from zone 7 in the Scottish Highlands, the Pennines and Snowdonia, to zone 10 on the Isles of Scilly. Most of the UK lies in zones 8 or 9. In zone 7, the average lowest temperature each year is between -17.7 and -12.3 °C (0.1 and 9.9 °F), and in zone 10, this figure is between -1.1 and 4.4 °C (30 and 39.9 °F). Snow in the UK falls almost every year but in small quantities. The UK can suffer extreme winters like 1684, 1740, 1795 (when London received its record lowest temperature of -21.1 °C (-6.0 °F)), 1947 and 1963. In 1963 it snowed on Boxing Day in the UK and snow lasted in most areas until March 6 with

blizzards through February. In modern times snow has become rarer but the UK can still get heavy falls. 1991 is very famous because of the extreme cold and powdery snow that fell, and 1979, 1981/82 and 1987 also had heavy snowfall. 1987 had very heavy Lake-effect snow which affected London and the South-East with snowfall in excess of 50 cm (19.7 in). In February 2009 snow fell very heavily in the South on the 2nd, there was 32 cm (12.6 in) of snow in Surrey, South of London. Also a notable heavy band affecting Mid-Sussex also on the 2nd dumping 26 cm (10.2 in) on the higher levels of Brighton and the South Downs. On the 6th another band of snow affected the south-west dumping 55 cm (21.7 in) in Okehampton, Devon. 2009 was officially the heaviest snowfall since 1991. See February 2009 Great Britain and Ireland snowfall. Most snowfall comes from cold Easterly winds from Siberia - making the North and the East the coldest parts of Britain. The winter of 2009-10 was even more severe, with many parts of the United Kingdom experiencing the coldest and snowiest winters since 1978/79; temperatures plummeted to $-22.3\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ ($-8.1\text{ }^{\circ}\text{F}$) at Altnaharra, Sutherland – close to the $-22.9\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ ($-9.2\text{ }^{\circ}\text{F}$) recorded at the southernmost part of the globe at the same period. The record for the lowest temperature ever recorded in the UK still remains $-27.2\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ ($-17.0\text{ }^{\circ}\text{F}$) which was recorded on January 10, 1982 in Braemar, Scotland. December 2010 was the coldest December in 100 years, the CET (Central England Temperature) was -1.0C , meaning it was the coldest month since February 1986. Many places experienced heavy snowfall and extreme cold, temperatures regularly fell below $-10\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ ($14.0\text{ }^{\circ}\text{F}$) across many areas. However, the cold subsided after Christmas Day, 2010.

In the 1990s and 2000s, most of the winters were milder and usually wetter than average with daytime temperatures going below freezing a rare occurrence. In fact, the winter of 1995/1996 was the only one which was defined as below average in terms of the UK as a whole. The winters of 2008/09, 2009/10 and 2010/11 have however seen a different pattern with these

three winters being defined as below or well below average with large snowfall amounts widespread and very low temperatures; this was the first time three consecutive cold winters in the UK have occurred since the 1960s.

3.2- British Social and Cultural Elements

3.2.1. Social elements

The United Kingdom is a unitary state in which central government substantially directs most government activity. However, the structure of services in Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland differs in certain respects. Each region has both a Secretary of State and administrative department situated in central government, and its own assembly and executive, which take on the role in the region of certain central government ministries. The laws which apply in Scotland and Northern Ireland are different from those in England and Wales. The Scottish parliament has in consequence very much more influence than the Welsh Parliament, and the Scottish Government (a name confusingly used for both government and executive) has the role of a civil service for Scotland, with a social policy in its own right. The administrative structure in Northern Ireland is significantly different: personal social services are the responsibility of the Health Board (as they are in the Republic of Ireland), and public housing is managed by Northern Ireland Housing Executive.

This framework changes frequently. The most important changes in recent years have been the reformation of the Department of Social Security into the Department of Work and Pensions, the significant transfer of income maintenance to the Inland Revenue (now HMRC, for Her Majesty's Revenue and Customs), and the demolition of the Department of Transport, the Regions and Local Government, whose key social policy responsibilities were placed in

the Office of the Deputy Prime Minister and have now been relocated mainly into Communities and Local Government.

The main government departments dealing with social policy in the UK			External link: Index of UK government agencies
CENTRAL GOVERNMENT	Responsibilities	NATIONAL ORGANISATIONS	LOCAL GOVERNMENT
Parliament	Primary legislation	The Scottish Parliament; the Welsh Parliament; the Northern Ireland Assembly	Local authorities London boroughs
Cabinet Office	Public service reform		
The Treasury	Economic policy Government finance	Her Majesty's Revenue and Customs (taxation; tax credits and social security contributions)	
Department of Health	Health care Social Services	National Health Service	Community care
Department for	National	Pensions, Disability	

Work and Pensions	Insurance Social Assistance Employment	and Carers Service (formerly the Benefits Agency); JobCentre Plus (formerly Benefits Agency/ Employment Service)	
Department for Communities and Local Government	Local government; Urban policy; Housing		Planning; housing; environmental health
Ministry of Justice	Law and order	Probation service; immigration service; prisons	Police Fire
Department for Education	Education		Schools; Education welfare; Learning disability (5-18); children's services

3.2.2. Cultural elements

The culture of the United Kingdom is the pattern of human activity and symbolism associated with the United Kingdom and its people. It is informed by the UK's history as a developed island country, liberal

democracy and major power, its predominantly Christian religious life, and its composition of four countries—England, Northern Ireland, Scotland and Wales—each of which have distinct customs, cultures and symbolism. The wider culture of Europe has also influenced British culture, and Humanism, Protestantism and representative democracy developed from broader Western culture.

British literature, music, cinema, art, theatre, media, television, philosophy and architecture are influential and respected across the world. The United Kingdom is prominent in science and technology. London has been described as a world cultural capital and is home to numerous major museums, galleries, libraries and other cultural institutions. Sport is an important part of British culture and numerous sports originated in the country, including the national game, football. The UK has been described as a "cultural superpower". The Industrial Revolution, with its origins in the UK, had a profound effect on the socio-economic and cultural conditions of the world. As a result of the British Empire, significant British influence can be observed in the language, culture and institutions of a geographically wide assortment of countries, including Australia, Canada, India, Ireland, New Zealand, Nigeria, Pakistan, South Africa and the United States. These states are sometimes collectively known as the Anglo sphere, and are among Britain's closest allies.^{[10][11]} In turn the empire also influenced British culture, particularly British cuisine.

3.3. British Education

3.3.1. Education in England

Education in England is overseen by the Department for Education and the Department for Business, Innovation and Skills. Local authorities (LAs)

take responsibility for implementing policy for public education and state schools at a regional level.

The education system is divided into nursery (ages 3–4), primary education (ages 4–11), secondary education (ages 11–18) and tertiary education (ages 18+).

Full-time education is compulsory for all children aged between 5 and 16, with a child beginning primary education during the school year he or she turns 5.^[8] Students may then continue their secondary studies for a further two years (sixth form), leading most typically to A-level qualifications, although other qualifications and courses exist, including Business and Technology Education Council (BTEC) qualifications, the International Baccalaureate (IB) and the Cambridge Pre-U. The leaving age for compulsory education was raised to 18 by the Education and Skills Act 2008. The change will take effect in 2013 for 16-year-olds and 2015 for 17-year-olds. State-provided schooling and sixth form education is paid for by taxes. England also has a tradition of independent schooling, but parents may choose to educate their children by any suitable means.

Higher education often begins with a three-year bachelor's degree. Postgraduate degrees include master's degrees, either taught or by research, and the doctorate, a research degree that usually takes at least three years. Universities require a Royal Charter in order to issue degrees, and all but one are financed by the state via tuition fees, which have increased for both UK and European Union students.

3.3.1.1. Primary and secondary education

The school year begins on 1 September (or 1 August if a term starts in August). Education is compulsory for all children from their fifth birthday to the last

Friday in June of the school year in which they turn 16. This will be raised, in 2013, to the year in which they turn 17 and, in 2015, to their 18th birthday.

3.3.1.2. Secondary schools

English secondary schools are mostly comprehensive, except in a few areas that retain a form of the previous selective system (the Tripartite System), with students selected for grammar school by the eleven plus exam. There are also a number of isolated fully selective grammar schools, and a few dozen partially selective schools. Specialist schools may also select up to 10% of their intake for aptitude in the specialism, though relatively few of them have taken up this option. The intake of comprehensive schools can vary widely, especially in urban areas with several local schools.

3.3.1.3. Further education

Students at both state schools and independent schools typically take GCSE examinations, which mark the end of compulsory education. Above school-leaving age, the independent and state sectors are similarly structured. In the 16–18 age group, sixth form education is not compulsory at present, although mandatory education until the age of 18 is to be phased in under the Education and Skills Act 2008. This will take effect for 16-year-olds in 2013, and for 17-year-olds in 2015.

Students will typically study in the sixth form of a school, in a separate sixth form college, or in a further education college. These courses can also be studied by adults over 18. This sector is referred to as Further Education. Some 16-18 students will be encouraged to study Key Skills in Communication, Application of Number, and Information Technology at this time.

3.3.1.4. Higher education

Students normally enter university from age 18 onwards, and study for an academic degree. Historically, all undergraduate education outside the private University of Buckingham and BPP University College was largely state-financed, with a small contribution from top-up fees, however fees of up to £9,000 per annum will be charged from October 2012. There is a distinct hierarchy among universities, with the Russell Group containing most of the country's more prestigious, research-led and research-focused universities. The state does not control university syllabuses, but it does influence admission procedures through the Office for Fair Access (OfFA), which approves and monitors access agreements to safeguard and promote fair access to higher education. Unlike most degrees, the state still has control over teacher training courses, and uses its Ofsted inspectors to maintain standards.

The typical first degree offered at English universities is the bachelor's degree, and usually lasts for three years. Many institutions now offer an undergraduate master's degree as a first degree, which typically lasts for four years. During a first degree students are known as undergraduates. The difference in fees between undergraduate and traditional postgraduate master's degrees (and the possibility of securing LEA funding for the former) makes taking an undergraduate master's degree as a first degree a more attractive option, although the novelty of undergraduate master's degrees means that the relative educational merit of the two is currently unclear.

Some universities offer a vocationally based foundation degree, typically two years in length for those students who hope to continue on to a first degree but wish to remain in employment.

3.3.2. Education in Northern Ireland

Education in Northern Ireland differs slightly from systems used elsewhere in the United Kingdom, though it is more similar to that used in England and Wales than it is to Scotland. A child's age on 1 July determines the point of entry into the relevant stage of education unlike England and Wales where it is the 1 September. Northern Ireland's results at GCSE and A-Level are consistently top in the UK. At A-Level, one third of students in Northern Ireland achieved A grades in 2007, compared with England and Wales.

3.3.2.1- Controlled schools

Controlled schools (nursery, primary, special, secondary modern and grammar schools) are under the management of the school's board of governors and the employing authorities are the five education and library boards. Although open to those of all faiths and none, many of these schools were originally church schools, whose control was transferred to the state in the first half of the twentieth century. The three largest Protestant churches (Presbyterian, Church of Ireland and Methodist), known as the transferors, maintain a link with the schools through church representation on controlled school boards of governors.

This statutory representational role on boards of governors is set out in schedules 4 and 5 of the Education & Library Board (Northern Ireland) Order 1986. Under this order, for example, transferor governors comprise four out of nine members on a controlled primary school. This right of representation on controlled schools is being re-examined under the Review of Public Administration (RPA).

The RPA has proposed the removal of this statutory role for transferors on the ground that it purportedly contravenes the equality requirements of the

Northern Ireland Act 1998. The Transferors' Representative Council, speaking on behalf of the three churches, argues that this proposal will remove the Christian ethos as of right from the controlled sector of education.

3.3.2.2- Catholic education

There are 533 Roman Catholic-managed schools in Northern Ireland. According to figures from the Department of Education for 2009/2010,^[4] the number of pupils registered at school in Northern Ireland is 321,830. The number of pupils attending Catholic-managed schools is 163,371. Approximately 51% of children in Northern Ireland are educated in Catholic-managed schools.

The Council for Catholic Maintained Schools (CCMS) is the advocate for the Catholic maintained schools sector in Northern Ireland. CCMS represents trustees, schools and governors on issues such as raising and maintaining standards, the school estate and teacher employment. As the largest employer of teachers in Northern Ireland (8500 teachers), CCMS plays a central role in supporting teachers whether through its welfare service or, for example, in working parties such as the Independent Inquiry into Teacher Pay and Conditions of Service.

CCMS supports trustees in the provision of school buildings and governors and principals in the effective management and control of schools. CCMS also has a wider role within the Northern Ireland education sector and contributes with education partners to policy on a wide range of issues such as curriculum review, selection, pre-school education, pastoral care and leadership.

3.3.2.3- Integrated education

Although integrated education is expanding, Northern Ireland has a highly-segregated education system, with 95% of pupils attending either a maintained

(Catholic) school or a controlled school (mostly Protestant). Controlled schools are open to children of all faiths and none, as are Catholic schools (Catholic describes the way the school is run but the students do not have to be Roman Catholic to attend). Teaching a balanced view of some subjects (especially regional history) is difficult in these conditions. The churches in Northern Ireland have not been involved in the development of integrated schools. The schools have been established by the voluntary efforts of parents. The Northern Ireland Council for Integrated Education (NICIE), a voluntary organization, promotes, develops and supports integrated education in Northern Ireland.

The Integrated Education Fund (IEF) is a financial foundation for the development and growth of integrated education in Northern Ireland in response to parental demand. The IEF seeks to bridge the financial gap between starting integrated schools and securing full government funding and support.

It was established in 1992 with money from EU Structural Funds, the Department of Education NI, the Nuffield Foundation and the Joseph Rowntree Charitable Trust, as a financial foundation for the development and growth of Integrated Education. The Fund financially supports the establishment of new schools, the growth of existing schools and those schools seeking to become integrated through the transformation process. Funding is generally seed corn and projects are 'pump primed' with the objective of eventually securing full government funding and support.

3.3.3- Education in Scotland

Scotland has a long history of universal provision of public education, and the Scottish education system is distinctly different from the other countries of the United Kingdom. The Scotland Act 1998 gives Scottish Parliament legislative control over all education matters, and the Education

(Scotland) Act 1980 is the principal legislation governing education in Scotland.

Traditionally, the Scottish system at secondary school level has emphasized breadth across a range of subjects, while the English, Welsh and Northern Irish systems have emphasized greater depth of education over a smaller range of subjects.

Following this, Scottish universities generally have courses a year longer (typically 4 years) than their counterparts elsewhere in the UK, though it is often possible for students to take more advanced specialized exams and join the courses at the second year. One unique aspect is that the ancient universities of Scotland issue a Master of Arts as the first degree in humanities.

The majority of schools are non-denominational, but as a result of the Education Act 1918, separate denominational state schools were also established. The vast majority of denominational state schools are Roman Catholic but there are also three Scottish Episcopal schools and one Jewish school.^[4] The school buildings are built and maintained by the Roman Catholic Church (whose members of course were also paying through their taxes for the state school system) were handed over to the state under the Education Act. Since then, the Catholic schools are fully funded by the Scottish Government and administered by the Education and Lifelong Learning Directorate. As part of the deal, there are specific legal provisions to ensure the promotion of a Catholic ethos in such schools: applicants for positions in the areas of Religious Education, Guidance or Senior Management must be approved by the Roman Catholic Church in Scotland, which also appoints a chaplain to each of its schools. There is also one Jewish state primary school.

There are also independent schools across the country, although the distribution is uneven with such schools in 22 of the 32 Local Authority areas.

At September 2011 the total pupil population in Scotland was 702,104, of whom 31,425 or 4.5% were being educated in independent schools.

Qualifications at the secondary school and post-secondary (further education) level are provided by the Scottish Qualifications Authority, which is the national awarding and accrediting body in Scotland, and delivered through various schools, colleges and other centres. Political responsibility for education at all levels is vested in the Scottish Parliament and the Scottish Education and Enterprise, Transport and Lifelong Learning Departments.

State schools are owned and operated by the local authorities which act as *Education Authorities*, and the compulsory phase is divided into primary school and secondary school (often called high school). Schools are supported in delivering learning and teaching by Education Scotland (formerly Learning and Teaching Scotland.)

Inspections and audits of educational standards are conducted by three bodies: Care Commission inspects care standards in pre-school provision; Education Scotland (formerly Her Majesty's Inspectorate of Education) for pre-school, primary, education, further and community education; with the Scottish office of the Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education (QAA Scotland) responsible for higher education

3.3.3.1- Access to nursery, primary and secondary school

The age ranges specify the youngest age for a child entering that year and the oldest age for a child leaving that year. Children may start attending nursery as soon as they have passed their third birthday, and progress to Primary 1 in the August of the year in which they turn five. In general, the cut-off point for ages is the end of February, so all children must be of a certain age on 1 March in order to begin class in August. All parents of children born between September

and February (i.e. still 4 years old on the school start date) are entitled to defer entry to Primary School if they believe their child is not ready for school. Only children whose birthdays fall in January or February will be considered for funding for a subsequent year at nursery, unless there are special circumstances. Children may leave school once they reach their statutory school leaving date; this is dependent on date of birth. For children born between 1 March and 30 September, this date is 31 May of their 4th year of secondary school. For children born between 1 October and 28 February, the last day of June is the first date they may leave school if they have a placement at college and the schools have signed the health & safety forms.

Which high school the child goes to depends on the area they live in, known as the "Catchment Area" which has a specific high school which takes children. Parents can also apply for a placing request if they would like their child to go to a school outside their Catchment area, and a panel will decide if the child is the most worthy child, (out of all placing requests) to take one of the spaces left (after all children from the catchment area have been taken).

3.3.3.2- Secondary school

There is not a set name for secondary schools in Scotland, but whatever they might be called, with just a few specific exceptions in mainly rural or island authorities, they are all fully comprehensive non-selective state secondary schools. Amongst the state-run secondary schools:

- ✓ 188 are nominally *High Schools*. These are spread across the country.
- ✓ 131 are nominally *Academies*. These are spread across the country but are in high concentration in North-East Scotland and Ayrshire. There are also three Royal Academies, in Irvine, North Ayrshire, Tain and Inverness.

- ✓ 15 are nominally *Secondary Schools* (colloquially abbreviated to "secondaries").
- ✓ 14 are nominally *Grammar Schools*. Most of these schools were defined as grammar schools under a previous (now dissolved) system but their names remain. Popular areas for grammar schools are Argyll and Bute, East Lothian and South Lanarkshire.
- ✓ 13 are simply *Schools*. These schools cater for Primary as well as Secondary school children. They are found in rural areas or islands.
- ✓ 8 are *Junior High Schools*. These schools are found exclusively in the Orkney and Shetland Islands. They cater for school children from P1 to S4.
- ✓ 4 are *Colleges*. These include Madras College (in St Andrews, Fife), Marr College (in Troon, South Ayrshire) and St Joseph's College (in Dumfries, Dumfries and Galloway).

Other schools include The Community School of Auchterarder, Auchterarder, Perth and Kinross; The Nicolson Institute, Stornoway, Western Isles; North Walls Community School on Hoy, Orkney Islands and Wester Hailes Education Centre, Wester Hailes, Edinburgh. All of these are, equally, fully comprehensive non-selective schools, differing only in designation from all other state secondary schools in Scotland.

3.3.4- Education in Wales

Education in Wales differs in certain respects from education elsewhere in the United Kingdom. For example, a significant number of students all over Wales are educated either wholly or largely through the medium of Welsh: in 2008/09, 22 per cent of classes in maintained primary schools

used Welsh as the sole or main medium of instruction. Welsh medium education is available to all age groups through nurseries, schools, colleges and universities and in adult education; lessons in the language itself are compulsory for all pupils until the age of 16.

Since devolution, education policy in the four constituent countries of the UK has diverged: for example, England has pursued reforms based on diversity of school types and parental choice; Wales (and Scotland) remain more committed to the concept of the community-based comprehensive school. Systems of governance and regulation - the arrangements for planning, funding, quality-assuring and regulating learning, and for its local administration - are becoming increasingly differentiated across the four home countries. Education researcher David Reynolds claims that policy in Wales is driven by a "producerist" paradigm emphasising collaboration between educational partners. He also alludes to lower funding in Welsh schools compared to England, echoing similar concerns at university level. He concludes that performance data do not suggest that Wales has improved more rapidly than England, although there are considerable difficulties in making these kinds of assessments.

3.3.4.1- Primary Education

In 2008/09 there were 1,478 primary schools in Wales with 258,314 pupils and 12,343 full-time equivalent (FTE) teachers. The pupil/teacher ratio was 20 and the average class size was 24.4 pupils.

In 2008 a unique new curriculum - the Foundation phase - was rolled out to all schools in Wales. It began for 3-4 year olds and by 2011 is in place for 3 - 7 year-olds. It is based on experiential learning, in small groups, with a teacher ratio of 1:8 for the youngest ages. It has been acclaimed as 'one of the most

significant acts of the Welsh government since it was formed' and has been almost universally welcomed.

3.3. 4.2- Secondary Education

Pupils in secondary school take part in the compulsory GCSE and the non-compulsory A-level qualifications at age 16 and 18 respectively. Since 2007 the Welsh Baccalaureate Qualification has also been available as an option. In 2008/09 there were 223 secondary schools in Wales with 205,421 pupils and 12,535 FTE teachers. The pupil/teacher ratio was 16.4.

GCSE and A-level GCE results for 2011. At GCSE, 66.5% of Welsh domiciled students gained grades A* to C, compared with 69.8% in England. At A-level, 23.9% of Welsh-based students gained A* or A grades, compared with 26.8% in England and the trend is consistent, with Wales have fallen back compared to England over the previous decade.

PISA results, by which the performance of Welsh pupils is compared to that of other countries, is also of concern, with Wales lagging behind all other countries in the UK, leading to Minister Leighton Andrews to describe the performance as "unacceptable" .

CHAPTER FOUR: BRITISH ADMINISTRATIVE, POLITICAL AND ECONOMIC ASPECTS

4.1- British administrative Framework

The incoming British threw blame on the departing Germans, most especially for their method of administration which the British termed 'Direct Rule' and claimed was responsible for the destruction of some indigenous institutions. The British saw their task in terms of educating the natives to manage their own affairs and to evolve from their own institutions a mode of government which would conform to civilised standards. In Cameroon this went further to become an endeavour to rebuild the (indigenous) institutions which had to some extent suffered disintegration during ...German administration, to find the hereditary native rulers and to educate them in their duties in that capacity, and to seek their co-operation and help, and to maintain their prestige in all matters concerning the areas under their control (Gardinier 1967: 531).

This was to be effected by the administrative policy of 'Indirect Rule' which at that time was being introduced into Southern Nigeria. The system was regulated by laws in which some powers were delegated to a chief or group of individuals termed a 'Native Authority' to maintain law and order through native courts, to collect taxes and eventually to operate a treasury.

Indirect Rule had to be introduced in stages while the German system was gradually phased out. Its application in the Bamenda Division was affected by various adverse factors. The most glaring were the great geographical and ethnic diversity of the area, lack of personnel, a disorderly transition from German to British administration, the remoteness of the Division and the problem of maintaining law and order. To counter these problems the British sought to involve natives in the administrative process. It was the view of the Resident, E.C. Duff, that in order to make native administration a success it

was necessary to enhance the powers of the principal chiefs. Initially they were to be given judicial powers by being made presidents of the native courts. Lesser chiefs, and even ward-heads within the principal communities, were also recognised and brought in to support the chiefs as court members.

This idea was put into practice in July 1917 when G.S. Podevin, the District officer, inaugurated an 'Instructional Court' in Bamenda. This was an assembly of chiefs from surrounding communities who were summoned to be instructed in the new native court ordinance and to go on to form the new courts. The membership of the court consisted of 27 chiefs with the Fon of Bafut appointed as president and that of Bali Kumbat as vice-president. If the court were to prove successful then other courts would be established in other parts of the Division.

According to reports, the court functioned as well as circumstances permitted but there were many problems, in particular the large extent of the area served by the court. Another was the difficulty of getting clerks and at first Podevin, himself, was the court scribe. The only locally available people were the ex-German functionaries who had served as interpreters and messengers. It was only in November 1917 that the first person was employed. This was a Bali Nyonga man, Maxwell Fohtung who had earlier worked as a clerk for the Germans in Victoria (Fohtung, Njie and Chilver 1992). Until 1922 the implementation of the native courts ordinance was only partial and many areas remained without a court. The implementation of the Native Authority ordinance, too, was delayed by a dearth of political officers exacerbated by the influenza epidemic of 1918 which carried off Podevin and led to the virtual breakdown of the administration in 1919.

In 1921 an instruction was issued from Buea to the effect that the principle of indirect administration should be applied. To this end the Divisional Officer undertook some provisional classification based on language and came up with

14 groups with Bafut within the Mogimba grouping. In 1922 the future of the former Kamerun was determined as a mandate of the League of Nations to be administered by Britain and France. Following this the Secretary of State for the Colonies directed that the principles of native administration as laid down by Lugard were to be applied in the British mandated territory. This necessitated the introduction of the method of tax assessment then current in Northern Nigeria. Lugard considered that the assessing officer in the course of obtaining his reports was brought into close relations with the local chiefs and people and 'had opportunities of learning so much about their history, origins and affinities that the occasion should be taken to write a concise historical and ethnological account of the people' (Lugard 1970: 194). Hence Hal Cadman was sent from Northern Nigeria and given the preliminary task of preparing a 'Report on Ancient Tribal Machinery in the Cameroons Province' (Cadman 1922) as a guideline for administrative officers.

Assessment of different peoples in the Bamenda Division on the Cadman model started in 1922. The Bafut area was assessed by E.G. Hawkesworth, Assistant Divisional Officer, in 1926. He discovered that the 'Mogimba' area was not an ethnic unit but an area of language diffusion and that the chiefly dynasties of Bafut, Babanki, Babanki Tungaw, Bafreng and Bambili claimed common Tikar origins. On account of these 'links' the British decided that a clan organisation had been identified and that a viable native administration could be established with Bafut as the centre in respect of its size.

Following these reports an enlarged Bafut native administration area was established with an area of about eight hundred and seventy square kilometres containing a population of about twenty thousand with the Bafut comprising half of that number. The Bafut 'District' became one of fifteen Native Authority areas in the Bamenda Division. This Native Authority was gazetted as

'Boombi' (Abumbi) Chief of Bafut and 'Vugar' Chief of Babanki for the Bafut Native Court area.

It had been the hope of the authorities that in a few years that Fon of Bafut would become the head of the area holding a position equivalent to a District Head in Northern Nigeria. However, the Bafut Native Authority never really functioned as the British envisaged. In addition to the maintenance of order, the Native Authority was charged with collecting taxes from subordinate chiefs and paying them to the Political Officer. It was thought that the payment of taxes through the Bafut Fon would foster loyalty to him as ruler but other chiefs were reluctant to do this as they feared it would make them subordinate to him. So the consolidation of units under the Fon of Bafut did not materialise although District Officers continued to nurse the hope and spoke optimistically of co-operation between the different units of the Bafut Native Authority.

When the British undertook to re-examine their policy in Southern Nigeria as a result of the Aba riots (also known as the 'women's war': see Gailey 1971: 97-134) the review was extended to the Cameroons. Donald Cameron (1965: 198ff), the new Governor of Nigeria, advocated a new policy of native administration according to which the real authority should be in accordance with the people's own idea of authority, that it should actually exist and be accepted by the people. In his view a Native Authority not accepted by the people and maintained only by imposition was almost certainly bound to fail. The attempt to extend the powers of the Fon of Bafut as a Native Authority was based on the notion that the people had once obeyed this authority in the past. According to Cameron, however, the contemporary generation might be quite ignorant of tradition and if ancient authorities were to be resurrected it must be certain the people would obey. Cameron's idea of native administration was introduced to the Cameroons in the course of a new round of re-assessment and intelligence reports.

Bafut experienced one of the most far-reaching re-organisations affecting the Native Authority and court. The difference between the Assessment Report of 1926 and the Intelligence Report of 1934 lay in the points which were emphasised. The earlier report stressed historical links between different chiefdoms with the expressed purpose of re-establishing clan ties. The 1934 report was more concerned with the analysis of the indigenous administrative structures on which to build native administration. R.J. Hook, the Divisional Officer, acknowledged the fact that there were seven independent chiefdoms. He recommended that the new Native Authority should be the seven chiefs-in-council. The British authorities had, therefore, abandoned the idea of uniting the area under one chief and instead were discussing confederation with each unit maintaining its own autonomy.

For the judiciary it was proposed that each chief would hold his own court in his own palace. In this regard the authorities were grudgingly acknowledging the fact that such courts continued to operate despite their prohibition by the ordinance. At the same time there was to be a central 'clan' or area court to serve as a headquarters for the seven units. This would be a court of the first instance as well as a court of appeal.

The implementation of these recommendations embodied Cameron's principle (1937: 3-4) that each chief with his council was to be the highest functioning unit. In the reorganisation no single unit was made into a Native Authority; rather all seven chiefs were constituted into a single Native Authority. This was certainly an advance over the former system when only two chiefs were involved. However, the location and population of Bafut would continue to be a factor such that the Fon would continue to exercise much influence. Hence, the old problem was not entirely solved.

While this reorganisation was taking place, important events were also occurring in Bafut and Babanki. In August of 1932 the Bafut Fon Abumbi,

who had resisted the Germans for so long, died and was succeeded by his German-educated and literate son Su Ayieh, who took the regnal name of Achirimbi and who ruled for the remaining years of British administration. In 1936 Fon Vugar of Babanki also died and was succeeded by his son Vubangksi similarly educated in a German (Basel Mission) school. Under normal circumstances the accession of these two relatively young and educated chiefs to two linked chieftaincies in the Bafut area would have been expected to boost the new system. However, this was not to be so. The depression of the 1930s brought disruption and the Second World War further economic hardship leading to the virtual abandonment of the system. After the war the energies of the authorities were largely absorbed by constitutional changes affecting Nigeria (Crowder 1966: 273).

When the necessity for change arose as a result of developments in Nigeria in 1929, the main problem in the Bafut area was not taxation but the exercise of authority. Respective chiefs guarded their autonomy so jealously that any talk of co-operating with another chief was viewed as a surrender of sovereignty. Cameron's reforms aimed to bring the administration closer in line with indigenous institutions, but these changes were not far-reaching in the Bafut area and simply involved shuffling personnel and bringing in a few village heads into the system as courtmembers. The element of Bafut paramountcy remained with the Bafut Fon who was regarded as the most important dignitary and received the highest stipend. This situation was reinforced by the establishment of a treasury in Bafut in 1941. Above all the tight control of the Divisional Officer did not lessen. A former treasurer of the Bafut Native Authority summed up this situation with the remark that before 1949 there was only one Native Authority in Bamenda Division - the Divisional Officer who ran the show from the Native Authority section of the Divisional Office in Bamenda. This implies that the different authorities had little or no autonomy. The period prior to 1949 therefore coincided with what Nicolson described as

the 'Era of administocracy' (Nicolson 1969: 216-50) in the history of Nigerian administration.

4.2- British political aspects

The United Kingdom is governed within the framework of a constitutional monarchy, in which the Monarch is the head of state and the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom is the head of government. Executive power is exercised by Her Majesty's Government, on behalf of and by the consent of the Monarch, as well as by the devolved Governments of Scotland and Wales, and the Northern Ireland Executive. Legislative power is vested in the two chambers of the Parliament of the United Kingdom, the House of Commons and the Supreme Court, as well as in the Scottish parliament and Welsh and Northern Ireland assemblies. The judiciary is independent of the executive and the legislature. The highest national court is the Supreme Court of the United Kingdom.

The UK political system is a multi-party system. Since the 1920s, the two largest political parties have been the Conservative Party and the Labour Party. Before the Labour Party rose in British politics the Liberal Party was the other major political party along with the Conservatives. Though coalition and minority governments have been an occasional feature of parliamentary politics, the first-past-the-post electoral system used for general elections tends to maintain the dominance of these two parties, though each has in the past century relied upon a third party to deliver a working majority in Parliament.

With the partition of Ireland, Northern Ireland received home rule in 1920, though civil unrest meant direct rule was restored in 1972. Support for nationalist parties in Scotland and Wales led to proposals for devolution in the 1970s though only in the 1990s did devolution actually happen. Today,

Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland each possess a legislature and executive, with devolution in Northern Ireland being conditional on participation in certain all-Ireland institutions. The United Kingdom remains responsible for non-devolved matters and, in the case of Northern Ireland, co-operates with the Republic of Ireland.

It is a matter of dispute as to whether increased autonomy and devolution of executive and legislative powers has contributed to a reduction in support for independence. The principal pro-independence party, the Scottish National Party, won an overall majority of MSPs at the 2011 Scottish parliament elections and now forms the Scottish Government administration, with plans to hold a referendum on negotiating for independence. In Northern Ireland, the largest Pro-Belfast Agreement party, Sinn Féin, not only advocates Northern Ireland's unification with the Republic of Ireland, but also abstains from taking their elected seats in the Westminster government, as this would entail taking a pledge of allegiance to the British monarch.

The constitution of the United Kingdom is uncodified, being made up of constitutional conventions, statutes and other elements. This system of government, known as the *Westminster system*, has been adopted by other countries, especially those that were formerly parts of the British Empire.

The United Kingdom is also responsible for several dependencies, which fall into two categories: the Crown dependencies, in the immediate vicinity of the UK, and British Overseas Territories, which originated as colonies of the British Empire.

4.2.1-The Crown

The British Monarch, currently Her Majesty Queen Elizabeth II is the Chief of State of the United Kingdom. Though she takes little direct part in government, the Crown remains the fount in which ultimate executive power over

Government lies. These powers are known as Royal Prerogative and can be used for a vast amount of things, such as the issue or withdrawal of passports, to the dismissal of the Prime Minister or even the Declaration of War. The powers are delegated from the Monarch personally, in the name of the Crown, and can be handed to various ministers, or other Officers of the Crown, and can purposely bypass the consent of Parliament.

The head of Her Majesty's Government; the Prime Minister, also has weekly meetings with the sovereign, where she may express her feelings, warn, or advise the Prime Minister in the Government's work. According to the uncodified constitution of the United Kingdom, the monarch has the following powers:

4.2.1.1- Domestic Powers

- The power to dismiss and appoint a Prime Minister
- The power to dismiss and appoint other ministers
- The power to summon, prorogue and dissolve Parliament
- The power to grant or refuse Royal Assent to bills (making them valid and law)
- The power to commission officers in the Armed Forces
- The power to command the Armed Forces of the United Kingdom
- The power to appoint members to the Queen's Council
- The power to issue and withdraw passports
- The power to grant Prerogative of mercy (though Capital Punishment is abolished, this power is still used to remedy errors in sentence calculation)

- The power to grant honours
- The power to create corporations via Royal Charter

4.2.1.2- Foreign Powers

- The power to ratify and make treaties
- The power to declare War and Peace
- The power to deploy the Armed Forces overseas
- The power to recognize states
- The power to credit and receive diplomats

4.2.1.2.1- Executive

Executive power in the United Kingdom is exercised by the Sovereign, Queen Elizabeth II, via Her Majesty's Government and the devolved national authorities - the Scottish Government, the Welsh Assembly Government and the Northern Ireland Executive.

4.2.1.3- The United Kingdom Government

The monarch appoints a Prime Minister as the head of Her Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom, guided by the strict convention that the Prime Minister should be the member of the House of Commons most likely to be able to form a Government with the support of that House. In practice, this means that the leader of the political party with an absolute majority of seats in the House of Commons is chosen to be the Prime Minister. If no party has an absolute majority, the leader of the largest party is given the first opportunity to form a coalition. The Prime Minister then selects the other Ministers which make up the Government and act as political heads of the various Government Departments. About twenty of the most senior government ministers make up

the Cabinet and approximately 100 ministers in total comprise the government. In accordance with constitutional convention, all ministers within the government are either Members of Parliament or peers in the House of Lords.

As in some other parliamentary systems of government (especially those based upon the Westminster System), the executive (called "the government") is drawn from and is answerable to Parliament - a successful vote of no confidence will force the government either to resign or to seek a parliamentary dissolution and a general election. In practice, members of parliament of all major parties are strictly controlled by whips who try to ensure they vote according to party policy. If the government has a large majority, then they are very unlikely to lose enough votes to be unable to pass legislation.

4.2.1.3.1- The Prime Minister and the Cabinet

The Prime Minister is the most senior minister in the Cabinet. S/he is responsible for chairing Cabinet meetings, selecting Cabinet ministers (and all other positions in Her Majesty's government), and formulating government policy. The Prime Minister is the *de facto* leader of the UK government, since s/he exercises executive functions that are nominally vested in the sovereign (by way of the Royal Prerogatives). Historically, the British monarch was the sole source of executive powers in the government. However, following the rule of the Hanoverian monarchs, an arrangement of a "Prime Minister" chairing and leading the Cabinet began to emerge. Over time, this arrangement became the effective executive branch of government, as it assumed the day-to-day functioning of the British government away from the sovereign.

Theoretically, the Prime Minister is *primus inter pares* (,i.e. Latin for "first among equals") among his/her Cabinet colleagues. While the Prime Minister is the senior Cabinet Minister, s/he is theoretically bound to make executive decisions in a collective fashion with the other Cabinet ministers. The Cabinet,

along with the PM, consists of Secretaries of State from the various government departments, the Lord High Chancellor, the Lord Privy Seal, the President of the Board of Trade, the Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster and Ministers without portfolio. Cabinet meetings are typically held weekly, while Parliament is in session.

4.2.1.3.2- Government departments and the Civil Service

The Government of the United Kingdom contains a number of ministries known mainly, though not exclusively as departments, e.g., Ministry of Defence. These are politically led by a Government Minister who is often a Secretary of State and member of the Cabinet. He or she may also be supported by a number of junior Ministers. In practice, several government departments and Ministers have responsibilities that cover England alone, with devolved bodies having responsibility for Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland, (for example - the Department of Health), or responsibilities that mainly focus on England (such as the Department for Education).

Implementation of the Minister's decisions is carried out by a permanent politically neutral organisation known as the civil service. Its constitutional role is to support the Government of the day regardless of which political party is in power. Unlike some other democracies, senior civil servants remain in post upon a change of Government. Administrative management of the Department is led by a head civil servant known in most Departments as a Permanent Secretary. The majority of the civil service staff in fact work in executive agencies, which are separate operational organisations reporting to Departments of State.

"Whitehall" is often used as a synonym for the central core of the Civil Service. This is because most Government Departments have headquarters in and around the former Royal Palace Whitehall.

4.2.2- UK Parliament

4.2.2.1- House of Commons

The Countries of the United Kingdom are divided into parliamentary constituencies of broadly equal population by the four Boundary Commissions. Each constituency elects a Member of Parliament (MP) to the House of Commons at General Elections and, if required, at by-elections. As of 2010 there are 650 constituencies (there were 646 before that year's general election. Of the 650 MPs, all but one - Lady Sylvia Hermon - belong to a political party.

In modern times, all Prime Ministers and Leaders of the Opposition have been drawn from the Commons, not the Lords. Alec Douglas-Home resigned from his peerages days after becoming Prime Minister in 1963, and the last Prime Minister before him from the Lords left in 1902 (the Marquess of Salisbury).

One party usually has a majority in Parliament, because of the use of the First Past the Post electoral system, which has been conducive in creating the current two party system. The monarch normally asks a person commissioned to form a government simply whether it can *survive* in the House of Commons, something which majority governments are expected to be able to do. In exceptional circumstances the monarch asks someone to 'form a government' *with a parliamentary minority* which in the event of no party having a majority requires the formation of a coalition government. This option is only ever taken at a time of national emergency, such as war-time. It was given in 1916 to Andrew Bonar Law, and when he declined, to David Lloyd George and in 1940 to Winston Churchill. A government is not formed by a vote of the House of Commons, it is a commission from the monarch. The House of Commons gets its first chance to indicate confidence in the new

government when it votes on the Speech from the Throne (the legislative programme proposed by the new government).

4.2.2.2- House of Lords

The House of Lords was previously a largely hereditary aristocratic chamber, although including life peers, and Lords Spiritual. It is currently mid-way through extensive reforms, the most recent of these being enacted in the House of Lords Act 1999. The house consists of two very different types of member, the Lords Temporal and Lords Spiritual. Lords Temporal include appointed members (life peers with no hereditary right for their descendants to sit in the house) and ninety-two remaining hereditary peers, elected from among, and by, the holders of titles which previously gave a seat in the House of Lords. The Lords Spiritual represent the established Church of England and number twenty-six: the Five Ancient Sees (Canterbury, York, London, Winchester and Durham), and the 21 next-most senior bishops.

The House of Lords currently acts to review legislation initiated by the House of Commons, with the power to propose amendments, and can exercise a suspensive veto. This allows it to delay legislation if it does not approve it for twelve months. However, the use of vetoes is limited by convention and by the operation of the Parliament Acts 1911 and 1949: the Lords may not veto the "money bills" or major manifesto promises (see Salisbury convention). Persistent use of the veto can also be overturned by the Commons, under a provision of the Parliament Act 1911. Often governments will accept changes in legislation in order to avoid both the time delay, and the negative publicity of being seen to clash with the Lords. However the Lords still retain a full veto in acts which would extend the life of Parliament beyond the 5 year term limit introduced by the Parliament Act 1911.

The Constitutional Reform Act 2005 outlined plans for a Supreme Court of the United Kingdom to replace the role of the Law Lords.

The House of Lords was replaced as the final court of appeal on civil cases within the United Kingdom on 1 October 2009, by the Supreme Court of the United Kingdom.

4.2.2.3- Devolved national legislatures

Though the UK parliament remains the sovereign parliament, Scotland has a parliament and Wales and Northern Ireland have assemblies. De jure, each could have its powers broadened, narrowed or changed by an Act of the UK Parliament. However, Scotland has a tradition of popular sovereignty as opposed to parliamentary sovereignty and the fact that the Scottish parliament was established following a referendum would make it politically difficult to significantly alter its powers without popular consent. The UK is therefore a unitary state with a devolved system of government. This contrasts with a federal system, in which sub-parliaments or state parliaments and assemblies have a clearly defined constitutional *right* to exist and a *right* to exercise certain constitutionally guaranteed and defined functions and cannot be unilaterally abolished by Acts of the central parliament.

All three devolved institutions are elected by proportional representation: the Additional Member System is used in Scotland and Wales, and Single Transferable Vote is used in Northern Ireland.

England, therefore, is the only country in the UK not to have a devolved English parliament. However, senior politicians of all main parties have voiced concerns in regard to the West Lothian Question, which is raised where certain policies for England are set by MPs from all four constituent nations whereas similar policies for Scotland or Wales might be decided in the devolved assemblies by legislators from those countries alone. Alternative proposals for

English regional government have stalled, following a poorly received referendum on devolved government for the North East of England, which had hitherto been considered the region most in favour of the idea, with the exception of Cornwall, where there is widespread support for a Cornish Assembly, including all five Cornish MPs.^{[10][11]} England is therefore governed according to the balance of parties across the whole of the United Kingdom.

The government has no plans to establish an English parliament or assembly although several pressure groups are calling for one. One of their main arguments is that MPs (and thus voters) from different parts of the UK have inconsistent powers. Currently an MP from Scotland can vote on legislation which affects only England but MPs from England (or indeed Scotland) cannot vote on matters devolved to the Scottish parliament. Indeed, the former Prime Minister Gordon Brown, who is an MP for a Scottish constituency, introduced some laws that only affect England and not his own constituency. This anomaly is known as the West Lothian question.

The policy of the UK Government in England was to establish elected regional assemblies with no legislative powers. The London Assembly was the first of these, established in 2000, following a referendum in 1998, but further plans were abandoned following rejection of a proposal for an elected assembly in North East England in a referendum in 2004. Unelected regional assemblies remain in place in eight regions of England.

4.2.2.3.1- Scottish Parliament

The Scottish Parliament is the national, unicameral legislature of Scotland, located in the Holyrood area of the capital Edinburgh. The Parliament, informally referred to as "Holyrood" (cf. "Westminster"), is a democratically elected body comprising 129 members who are known as Members of the Scottish Parliament, or MSPs. Members are elected for

four-year terms under the mixed member proportional representation system. As a result, 73 MSPs represent individual geographical constituencies elected by the plurality ("first past the post") system, with a further 56 returned from eight additional member regions, each electing seven MSPs.

The current Scottish Parliament was established by the Scotland Act 1998 and its first meeting as a devolved legislature was on 12 May 1999. The parliament has the power to pass laws and has limited tax-varying capability. Another of its roles is to hold the Scottish Government to account. The "devolved matters" over which it has responsibility include education, health, agriculture, and justice. A degree of domestic authority, and all foreign policy, remains with the UK Parliament in Westminster.

The public take part in Parliament in a way that is not the case at Westminster through Cross-Party Groups on policy topics which the interested public join and attend meetings of alongside Members of the Scottish Parliament (MSPs).

The resurgence in Celtic language and identity, as well as 'regional' politics and development, has contributed to forces pulling against the unity of the state. This was clearly demonstrated when - although some argue it was influenced by general public disillusionment with Labour - the Scottish National Party (SNP) became the largest party in the Scottish Parliament by one seat.

Alex Salmond (leader of SNP) has since made history by becoming the first First Minister of Scotland from a party other than Labour. The SNP govern as a minority administration at Holyrood. Nevertheless, recent opinion polls have suggested that nationalism (i.e., a desire to break up the UK) is rising within Scotland and England. However, the polls have been known to be inaccurate in the past (for example, in the run up to the 1992 General Election). Moreover, polls carried out in the 1970s and the 1990s showed similar results, only to be debunked at elections. While support for breaking up

the UK was strongest in Scotland, there was still a clear lead for unionism over nationalism. However, an opinion poll in April 2008 suggested the result of any referendum on Scottish independence could be close as support for independence had reached 41% with just 40% supporting retention of the Union.

4.2.2.3.2- Welsh Assembly

The National Assembly for Wales is the devolved assembly with power to make legislation in Wales. The Assembly comprises 60 members, who are known as Assembly Members, or AMs (Welsh: *Aelod y Cynulliad*). Members are elected for four-year terms under an additional members system, where 40 AMs represent geographical constituencies elected by the plurality system, and 20 AMs from five electoral regions using the d'Hondt method of proportional representation.

The Assembly was created by the Government of Wales Act 1998, which followed a referendum in 1997. On its creation, most of the powers of the Welsh Office and Secretary of State for Wales were transferred to it. The Assembly had no powers to initiate primary legislation until limited law-making powers were gained through the Government of Wales Act 2006. Its primary law-making powers were enhanced following a Yes vote in the referendum on 3 March 2011, making it possible for it to legislate without having to consult the UK parliament, nor the Secretary of State for Wales in the 20 areas that are devolved.

4.2.2.3.3- Northern Ireland assembly

The government of Northern Ireland was established as a result of the 1998 Good Friday Agreement. This created the Northern Ireland Assembly. The Assembly is a unicameral body consisting of 108 members elected under the Single Transferable Vote form of proportional representation. The

Assembly is based on the principle of power-sharing, in order to ensure that both communities in Northern Ireland, unionist and nationalist, participate in governing the region. It has power to legislate in a wide range of areas and to elect the Northern Ireland Executive (cabinet). It sits at Parliament Buildings at Stormont in Belfast.

The Assembly has authority to legislate in a field of competences known as "transferred matters". These matters are not explicitly enumerated in the Northern Ireland Act 1998 but instead include any competence not explicitly retained by the Parliament at Westminster. Powers reserved by Westminster are divided into "excepted matters", which it retains indefinitely, and "reserved matters", which may be transferred to the competence of the Northern Ireland Assembly at a future date. Health, criminal law and education are "transferred" while royal relations are all "excepted".

While the Assembly was in suspension, due to issues involving the main parties and the Provisional Irish Republican Army (IRA), its legislative powers were exercised by the UK government, which effectively had power to legislate by decree. Laws that would normally be within the competence of the Assembly were passed by the UK government in the form of Orders-in-Council rather than legislative acts.

There has been a significant decrease in violence over the last twenty years, though the situation remains tense, with the more hard-line parties such as Sinn Féin and the Democratic Unionist Party now holding the most parliamentary seats (see Demographics and politics of Northern Ireland).

4.2.4- Electoral systems

Various electoral systems are used in the UK:

- The first-past-the-post system is used for general elections to the House of Commons, and also for some local government elections in England and Wales.
- The plurality-at-large voting (the bloc vote) is also used for some local government elections in England and Wales.
- The Additional Member System is used for elections to the Scottish Parliament, the National Assembly for Wales (Welsh Assembly) and London Assembly. The system is implemented differently in each of the three locations.
- The single transferable vote system is used in Northern Ireland to elect the Northern Ireland Assembly, local councils, and Members of the European Parliament, and in Scotland to elect local councils.
- The Alternative Vote system is used for by-elections in Scottish local councils.
- The party-list proportional representation system is used for European Parliament elections in England, Scotland and Wales.
- The supplementary vote is used to elect directly-elected mayors in England, including the mayor of London.

The use of the first-past-the-post to elect members of Parliament is unusual among European nations. The use of the system means that MPs are sometimes elected from individual constituencies with a plurality (receiving more votes than any other candidate, but not an absolute majority of 50 percent plus one vote), due to three or more candidates receiving a significant share of the vote.

Elections and political parties in the United Kingdom are affected by Duverger's law, the political science principle which states that plurality

voting systems, such as first-past-the-post, tend to lead to the development of two-party systems. The UK, like several other states, has sometimes been called a "two-and-a-half" party system, because parliamentary politics is dominated by the Labour Party and Conservative Party, with the Liberal Democrats holding a significant number of seats (but still substantially less than Labour and the Conservatives), and several small parties (some of them regional or nationalist) trailing far behind in number of seats.

In the last few general elections, voter mandates for Westminster in the 40% ranges have been swung into 60% parliamentary majorities. No single party has won a majority of the popular vote since the Third National Government of Stanley Baldwin in 1935. On two occasions since World War II - 1951 and February 1974 - a party that came in second in the popular vote actually came out with the larger number of seats.

Electoral reform for parliamentary elections have been proposed many times. The Jenkins Commission report in October 1998 suggested implementing the Alternative Vote Top-up (also called Alternative Vote Plus or AV+) in parliamentary elections. Under this proposal, most MPs would be directly elected from constituencies by the alternative vote, with a number of additional members elected from "top-up lists." However, no action was taken by the Labour government and the time. There are a number of groups in the UK campaigning for electoral reform, including the Electoral Reform Society, Make Votes Count Coalition and Fairshare.

The 2010 general election resulted in a hung parliament (no single party being able to command a majority in the House of Commons). This was only the second general election since World War II to return a hung parliament, the first being the February 1974 election. The Conservatives gained the most seats (ending 13 years of Labour government) and the largest percentage of the popular vote, but fell 20 seats short of a majority.

The Conservatives and Liberal Democrats entered into a new coalition government, headed by David Cameron. Under the terms of the coalition agreement the government committed itself to hold a referendum in May 2011 on whether to change parliamentary elections from first-past-the-post to AV. Electoral reform was a majority priority for the Liberal Democrats, who favour proportional representation but were able to negotiate only a referendum on AV with the Conservatives. The coalition partners plan to campaign on opposite sides, with the Liberal Democrats supporting AV and the Conservatives opposing it.

4.2.4.1- Commonwealth citizens and British subjects

The right of abode in the UK is also conferred on those who on 31 December 1982:

- was a Commonwealth citizen and/or a British subject; **and**
- had a parent who, at the time of their birth or legal adoption, was a citizen of the United Kingdom and Colonies because they were born in the UK; *or*
- a female Commonwealth citizen and/or British subject who was, or had been, married to a man who had the right of abode

For this purpose, the UK includes the Republic of Ireland prior to 1 April 1922.

No person born in 1983 or later can have the right of abode unless he or she is a British citizen.

It is essential that the person concerned should have held Commonwealth citizenship or British subject status on 31 December 1982 and has not ceased to be a Commonwealth citizen (even temporarily) after that date. For this reason, citizens of Pakistan and South Africa are generally not entitled to the right of

abode in the UK as these countries were not Commonwealth members on 1 January 1983. Citizens of Fiji and Zimbabwe are still considered to be Commonwealth citizens (for nationality purposes) even after the two countries' withdrawal from the Commonwealth because the UK has not amended Schedule 3 to the British Nationality Act 1981.

A woman claiming the right of abode through marriage will cease to qualify if another living wife or widow of the same man:

- is (or has been at any time since her marriage) in the UK, unless she entered the UK illegally, as a visitor, or with temporary permission to stay; or
- has been given a certificate of entitlement to right of abode or permission to enter the country because of her marriage.

However, this restriction does not apply to a woman who:

- entered the UK as a wife before 1 August 1988, even if other wives of the same man are in the UK; or
- who has been in the UK at any time since her marriage, and at that time was that man's only wife to have entered the UK or to have been given permission to do so.

4.2.4.1.1- Multiple claims

An individual may be able to claim the right of abode in the United Kingdom through more than one route. For example, a woman who was a New Zealand citizen and married to a British citizen on 31 December 1982, and who subsequently moves to the UK with her husband and naturalises as British citizen can claim the right of abode in the UK both through her British citizenship and through her status as a Commonwealth citizen who was married to a British citizen on 31 December 1982. Therefore, if she were to

renounce her British citizenship, she would still be allowed to stay in the UK free from any immigration restrictions. However, if she were to renounce her New Zealand citizenship, she would permanently lose her ability to claim a right of abode through her Commonwealth citizenship and marriage to a British citizen on 31 December 1982, and would only be able to claim a right of abode through her British citizenship.

4.2.4.1.2- Proof of the right of abode

The only legally recognised documents proving an individual's right of abode in the UK are the following:

- a UK passport describing the holder as a British citizen or a British subject with the right of abode
- a certificate of entitlement to the right of abode in the UK, which has been issued by the UK government or on its behalf

An individual who has the right of abode in the UK but who does not have a UK passport describing him/her as a British citizen or a British subject with the right of abode can apply for a certificate of entitlement to be affixed inside his/her passport or other travel document. A certificate of entitlement is only valid within the validity of the passport or travel document to which it is attached.

For example, a US citizen who has naturalised as a British citizen can apply for a certificate of entitlement to be affixed inside her US passport to prove that she is free from immigration restrictions in the UK, rather than obtaining a British passport. A British Overseas Territories Citizen from the British Virgin Islands who is also a British citizen can apply for a certificate of entitlement to be affixed inside her British Virgin Islands passport to prove that

she is free from immigration restrictions in the UK, rather than obtaining a British citizen passport.

However, a dual British and US citizen travelling merely on a US passport affixed with a UK certificate of entitlement may enjoy fewer visa exemptions than if she were to travel on British and US passports. For example, when travelling to another EU member state, the European Economic Area or Switzerland, in theory, if an EU citizen can prove her nationality satisfactorily by any means (e.g. by presenting an expired EU passport or a citizenship certificate), she must be permitted to enter and reside without a visa,^[3] although, in practice, border officials in other EU member states may treat her as a US citizen and only permit her to stay for a maximum of 90 days within a 180 day period as a US citizen.

A certificate of entitlement costs £162 when issued in the UK and £265 when issued outside the UK.^[4] This is considerably more expensive than obtaining a British passport (£77.50 for a 10 year adult passport, £49 for a 5 year child passport and free for a 10 year passport for those born on or before 2 September 1929 when issued inside the UK; £128 for a 10 year adult passport, £81.50 for a 5 year child passport and free for a 10 year passport for those born on or before 2 September 1929 when issued outside the UK).

4.3: British Military powers

The British Armed Forces, officially Her Majesty's Armed Forces and sometimes known as the Armed Forces of the Crown, are the armed forces of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. The Armed Forces encompass three professional uniformed services: the Naval Service (including the Royal Navy and Royal Marines), the British Army, and the Royal Air Force. The Commander-in-Chief of Her Majesty's Armed Forces is the British monarch, Queen Elizabeth II, to whom members of the forces swear allegiance.

Under British constitutional law, the armed forces are subordinate to the Crown, however this power is qualified by the requirement for parliamentary consent to the maintaining of a standing army and Parliament's approval of taxation and supply of funds for the armed forces. Under the 1689 Bill of Rights no standing army may be maintained during time of peace without the consent of Parliament and in modern times Parliament gives this consent every five years by passing an Armed Forces Act. Consistent with longstanding constitutional convention, the Prime Minister holds *de facto* authority over the use of the armed forces. The armed forces are managed by the Defence Council of the Ministry of Defence, headed by the Secretary of State for Defence.

The British Armed Forces are charged with protecting the United Kingdom, its overseas territories and Crown Dependencies, as well as promoting Britain's wider security interests, and supporting international peacekeeping efforts. They are active and regular participants in NATO and other coalition operations. Britain is also party to the Five Power Defence Arrangements. Recent operations have included wars in Afghanistan and Iraq, the 2000 intervention in Sierra Leone, ongoing peacekeeping responsibilities in the Balkans and Cyprus, and participation in the UN-mandated no-fly zone over Libya. Overseas garrisons and facilities are maintained at Ascension Island, Belize, Brunei, Canada, Diego Garcia, the Falkland Islands, Germany, Gibraltar, Kenya, Qatar and the Sovereign Base Areas (Cyprus).

In 1952 Great Britain tested its first nuclear weapon under Operation Hurricane, it was the third nation in the world to achieve the status of a nuclear power. As of 2012 Britain remains one of five recognised nuclear powers, with a total of 225 nuclear warheads. Of those, no more than 160 are deployed and active. Its nuclear deterrence system is based on Trident missiles onboard

nuclear-powered ballistic missile submarines. The Royal Navy is at present one of three blue-water navies and is considered to be second to the United States in its ability to project power globally.

Upon the Act of Union in 1707, the armed forces of England and Scotland were merged into the armed forces of the Kingdom of Great Britain. By 1815, with the defeat of Napoleon at the Battle of Waterloo Britain had risen to become the world's dominant superpower, and the British Empire subsequently presided over a period of relative peace, known as Pax Britannica, until the outbreak of World War One in 1914. Between 1707 and 1914, British forces played a prominent role in notable conflicts including the Seven Years' War, the Napoleonic Wars, and the Crimean War.

The current structure of defence management in Britain was set in place in 1964 when the modern day Ministry of Defence (MoD) was created (an earlier form had existed since 1940). The MoD assumed the roles of the Admiralty, the War Office and the Air Ministry.

4.3.1- Cold War

Post-World War II economic and political decline, as well as changing attitudes in British society and government, were reflected by the Armed Forces' contracting global role. Britain's protracted decline was dramatically epitomised by its political defeat during the Suez War of 1956. The 1957 Defence White Paper abolished conscription and reduced the size of the Armed Forces from 690,000 to 375,000 by 1962. Seeking an inexpensive alternative to maintaining a large conventional military, the government pursued a doctrine of nuclear deterrence. This initially consisted of free-fall bombs operated by the RAF, but these were eventually superseded by the submarine-launched Polaris ballistic missile. While assurances had been made to the United States that Britain would maintain a presence "East of Suez", a process

of gradual withdrawal from its eastern commitments was undertaken in the 1960s, primarily for economic reasons. By the mid-1970s, Britain had withdrawn permanently deployed forces from Aden, Bahrain, Malaysia, Mauritius, Oman, Sharjah, and Singapore. Agreements with Malta (expired 1979) and South Africa (terminated 1975) also ended.

With a permanent presence east of Suez effectively reduced to Hong Kong (up to 1997) and Brunei, the Armed Forces reconfigured to focus on the responsibilities allocated to the services during the Cold War. Substantial forces thus became committed to NATO in Europe and elsewhere; by 1985, 72,929 personnel were stationed in Continental Europe. The British Army of the Rhine and RAF Germany consequently represented the largest and most important overseas commitments that the British Armed Forces had during this period. The Royal Navy's fleet developed an anti-submarine warfare specialisation, with a particular focus on countering Soviet submarines in the Eastern Atlantic and North Sea. In the process of this transition and due to economic constraints, four conventional aircraft carriers and two "commando" carriers were decommissioned between 1967 and 1984. With the cancellation of the CVA-01 project, three *Invincible*-class STOVL aircraft carriers, originally designed as "Through-Deck Cruisers", became their ultimate replacements.

While this focus on NATO obligations increased in prominence during the 1970s, low-intensity conflicts in Northern Ireland and Oman emerged as the primary operational concerns of the British Armed Forces. These conflicts had followed a spate of insurgencies against British colonial occupation in Aden, Cyprus, Kenya, and Malaysia. An undeclared war with Indonesia had also occurred in Borneo during the 1960s, and recurring civil unrest in the declining number of British colonies often required military assistance.

4.3.2- Recent history

Three major reviews of the British Armed Forces have been conducted since the end of the Cold War. The Conservative government produced the Options for Change review in the 1990s, seeking to benefit from a perceived post-Cold War "peace dividend". All three services experienced considerable reductions in manpower, equipment, and infrastructure. Though the Soviet Union had disintegrated, a presence in Germany was retained, albeit in the reduced form of British Forces Germany. Experiences during the First Gulf War prompted renewed efforts to enhance joint operational cohesion and efficiency among the services by establishing a Permanent Joint Headquarters in 1996.

An increasingly international role for the British Armed Forces has been pursued since the Cold War's end. This has entailed the Armed Forces often constituting a major component in peacekeeping missions under the auspices of the United Nations or NATO, and other multinational operations. Consistent under-manning and the reduced size of the Armed Forces has, however, highlighted the problem of "overstretch" in recent years. This has reportedly contributed to personnel retention difficulties and challenged the military's ability to sustain its overseas commitments.

The Strategic Defence Review (SDR)—described as "foreign-policy-led"—was published in 1998. Expeditionary warfare and tri-service integration were central to the review, which sought to improve efficiency and reduce expenditure by consolidating resources. Most of the Armed Forces' helicopters were collected under a single command and a Joint Force Harrier was established in 2000, containing the Navy and RAF's fleet of Harrier Jump Jets.

A Joint Rapid Reaction Force was formed in 1999, with significant tri-service resources at its disposal.

The first major post-11 September restructuring was announced in the 2004 Delivering Security in a Changing World: Future Capabilities review, continuing a vision of "mobility" and "expeditionary warfare" articulated in the SDR. Future equipment projects reflecting this direction featured in the review, including the procurement of two large aircraft carriers and a series of medium-sized vehicles for the Army. Reductions in manpower, equipment, and infrastructure were also announced. The decision to reduce the Army's regular infantry to 36 battalions (from 40) and amalgamate the remaining single-battalion regiments was controversial, especially in Scotland and among former soldiers. Envisaging a rebalanced composition of more rapidly deployable light and medium forces, the review announced that a regiment of Challenger 2 main battle tanks and a regiment of AS-90 self-propelled artillery would be converted to lighter roles. In November 2010 Prime Minister David Cameron signed a 50-year treaty with French President Nicolas Sarkozy that would have the two countries cooperate intensively in military matters.

4.3.3- Today

The British Armed Forces is a professional force with a strength in July 2012 of 184,160 regular and 36,190 volunteer reserve personnel. This gives a combined component strength of 220,350 personnel. In addition there were 181,720 regular reserves from all services of the British Armed Forces. The British Armed Forces constitute the second-largest military in the European Union in terms of professional personnel.

Britain has the fourth-largest defence budget in the world. The United States, China and Russia have larger defence expenditures, whilst France and Japan have a comparable expenditure. In September 2011,

according to the Royal United Services Institute, current "planned levels of defence spending should be enough for the United Kingdom to maintain its position as one of the world's top military powers, as well as being one of NATO-Europe's top military powers. Its edge – not least its qualitative edge – in relation to rising Asian powers seems set to erode, but will remain significant well into the 2020's, and possibly beyond."

However by 2012 there was a £63 billion gap between the ten year plan for defence spending and the available funds for it.

4.3.4- Command organisation

As Sovereign and head of state, Queen Elizabeth II is Head of the Armed Forces and their Commander-in-Chief. Long-standing constitutional convention, however, has vested *de facto* executive authority, by the exercise of Royal Prerogative powers, in the Prime Minister and the Secretary of State for Defence, and the Prime Minister (acting with the support of the Cabinet) makes the key decisions on the use of the armed forces. The Queen, however, remains the "ultimate authority" of the military, with officers and personnel swearing allegiance to the monarch. It was once claimed by a former military official that this includes the power to prevent unconstitutional use of the armed forces, including its nuclear weapons.

Then Chief of the Defence Staff General The Lord Walker (centre) presenting new colours to the Royal Military Academy Sandhurst, 2005.

The Ministry of Defence is the Government department and highest level of military headquarters charged with formulating and executing defence policy for the Armed Forces; it currently employs over 80,000 civilians in 2011. This number will be reduced to just 55,000 by 2015 (a reduction of 25,000 as per the October 2010 SDSR) and then again to 48,000 by 2020. The department is controlled by the Secretary of State for Defence and contains three deputy

appointments: Minister of State for the Armed Forces, Minister for Defence Procurement, and Minister for Veterans' Affairs.

Responsibility for the management of the forces is delegated to a number of committees: the Defence Council, Chiefs of Staff Committee, Defence Management Board, and three single-service boards. The Defence Council, composed of senior representatives of the services and the Ministry of Defence, provides the "formal legal basis for the conduct of defence". The three constituent single-service committees (Admiralty Board, Army Board, and Air Force Board) are chaired by the Secretary of State for Defence.

The Chief of the Defence Staff is the professional head of the Armed Forces and is an appointment that can be held by an Admiral, Air Chief Marshal, or General. Before the practice was discontinued in the 1990s, those who were appointed to the position of CDS had been elevated to the most senior rank in their respective service (a 5-star rank). The CDS, along with the Permanent Under Secretary, are the principal advisers to the departmental minister. The three services have their own respective professional chiefs: the First Sea Lord, the Chief of the General Staff and the Chief of the Air Staff.

4.4- British economic assets and powers

4.4.1- Different Productions

The United Kingdom is a manufacturer of many ranges of product varying from the food products to the equipment. Its manufacturing represents about the one-fifth of its gross value added. People involved in manufacturing are concerned in the East Midlands and West Midlands and foreign companies are firmly settled in the country.

Some industries such as chemicals, plastics, pharmaceuticals, electronics, motor vehicles, aerospace, offshore equipment, paper and printing are

references for the United Kingdom. These industries are among the leading and the greatest of the world.

The United Kingdom has the seventh-largest economy in the world, has the second-largest economy in the European Union, and is a major international trading power. A highly developed, diversified, market-based economy with extensive social welfare services provides most residents with a high standard of living.

The United Kingdom's economy continues to recover from turmoil in the financial markets. It entered a recession in the third quarter of 2008 and exited recession in the fourth quarter of 2009. Growth since then has been patchy, held back by weak credit growth, a contraction in real incomes, and the poor economic outlook in the U.K.'s major trading partners. The U.K. economy contracted on a quarterly basis in the final quarter of 2010 and the final quarter of 2011. In response to the financial crisis, the British Government implemented a wide-ranging stability and recovery plan that included a fiscal stimulus package, bank recapitalization, and credit stimulus schemes. Extraordinary monetary policy measures, including very low interest rates (0.5%) and a quantitative easing program (£325 billion), remain in place. Despite this, domestic demand remains weak and unemployment has yet to return to pre-recession levels, standing at 8.4% in November 2011. The Conservative-Liberal Democrat coalition government that took power in May 2010 initiated a planned 5-year austerity program, which aims to lower the U.K.'s budget deficit from over 11% of GDP in 2010 to near 1% by 2015. Poorer than expected growth has meant that the coalition's budget deficit plans will now only be met in 2016/17.

As a leading international financial center, London was severely impacted by the financial crisis in 2008. U.K. banks laid off thousands of workers and scaled back their international operations during the crisis, although many are

now rehiring. Two U.K. banks, Northern Rock and Bradford & Bingley, were nationalized, and the British Government took significant shares in the Royal Bank of Scotland and Lloyds Banking Group. In November 2011, the U.K. government sold Northern Rock to Virgin Money. In spite of the damage caused by the financial crisis, London's financial exports contribute greatly to the United Kingdom's gross domestic product and will continue to do so. Over 1 million people in the U.K. work in financial services, nearly 4% of total U.K. employment. About one-third are employed in London. The U.K.'s financial services industry contributed £124 billion (\$200 billion) to U.K. GDP in 2009, accounting for 10% of total economic output. London is a global leader in emissions trading, a center for Islamic banking, and home to the Alternative Investment Market (AIM).

4.4.1.1- Food and drink

The united kingdom produces bread , cakes, and fresh pastry goods. Employees in this sector of production are numerous in Yourshire , the South East and London. In Scotland , the production of drinks employed a great number of persons . In the drink sector , in wine production , the United Kingdom does not prove blameworthy where the quantity of their product is recongnised.

4.4.1.2- Textile, clothing and footwear

The Textile Institute is a unique organisation in textiles, clothing and footwear. It was incorporated in England by a Royal Charter granted in 1925 and is a registered charity. The Institute has individual and corporate members in over 90 countries, the membership covers all sectors and all disciplines in textiles, clothing and footwear.

Its primary academic journal is *Journal of the Textile Institute*, which began in 1910 with volume 1. Following volume 12 in 1921, it was divided into two separate journals: *Journal of the Textile Institute Proceedings*, ISSN 1944-

7019, which ran from volume 14 (1923) to volume 55 (1964-5); and *Journal of the Textile Institute Transactions*, ISSN 1944-7027, which ran from volume 14 (1923) to volume 57 (1966). In 1967 the two were re-amalgamated and published once again as *Journal of the Textile Institute*, ISSN 1754-2340(electronic) and ISSN 0040-5000 (paper), and the volume numbers continued with vol. 58 (1967), reaching vol. 100 in 2009. The number of issues published each year has varied from two to twelve. It is published by Taylor & Francis, and the present editor-in-chief is Prof. David R Buchanan.

4.4.1.3- Paper, print and publishing

Producers of print media have big sustainability impacts, particularly on the environment through their sourcing of paper, printing processes and publishing activities. However, the debate is far from clear-cut. Critics who trot out the received wisdom that print media is inherently unsustainable, and online always best, may yet be proved wrong.

Customers and consumers are becoming more discerning, demanding paper with strong sustainability credentials. However, while it is 20 years since the first forest certification schemes were launched, there is still a number of schemes in operation, with little hope of harmonisation. The Forest Stewardship Council scheme is regarded as the strongest by environmental NGOs, but only a small proportion of commercially harvested forests worldwide are certified to its standard. It is difficult for media producers trying to source paper, and their readers, to know which of the competing schemes and logos to trust.

Meanwhile, the global paper market is undergoing a rapid transition in the face of changing patterns of supply and demand. Driven by globalisation, many of the larger paper manufacturers are beginning to exploit significant new sources outside their traditional areas of operation in North America and Europe and

new plantation operations are developing in the southern hemisphere. Where these can be shown to be sustainable, for example through suitable certification, they are helping to mitigate remaining concerns about the harvesting of old-growth forests in the North. But new issues are arising all the time, such as the environmental profile of fast-growing eucalyptus monocultures. There is also increasing focus on the social factors of fibre-sourcing such as the allegations of land grabs from the so-called 'landless people' of Brazil.

The received wisdom is that if you have to use paper, then recycled is best, certified virgin sources a poor second, uncertified unacceptable, but paperless and online is best of all. But this green credo is starting to be challenged.

The fashion for 'carbon neutral' claims has caused a flurry of activity to calculate the carbon footprint of print and paper. Many questions remain regarding the comparability of paper footprints. A number of the larger paper companies have supported Paper Profile as a mechanism for disclosing environmental performance. New standards are emerging: the Confederation of European Paper Industries (CEPI) is in the process of publishing the 'CPI ten toes', which outlines ten key areas of a paper's carbon footprint that should be measured.

Meanwhile, the carbon profile of online – the technology used to drive the internet and the energy profile of the equipment we use to view it – is coming under timely scrutiny, although no clear figures are yet available.

The internet revolution has enabled consumers to circumvent traditional sources of news and information, making a radical impact on media organisations worldwide. Driven by pressures of time and cost, news is often blurred with entertainment. Also, there is concern about the way some news and media organisations manage and present information. British journalist

Nick Davies coined the term ‘churnalism’ – where press releases, wire stories and other forms of pre-packaged material are used to create articles without proper further research or checking. As a result, press releases can end up masquerading as fact.

Add to that growing concern over the lack of a free press in many countries, and the role of the media in influencing public opinion has become a core corporate responsibility issue. The most responsible media organisations are examining their ‘mindprint’ and taking greater responsibility for how their editorial decisions are affecting public awareness of sustainability issues.

4.4.1.4- Automotive industry in the United Kingdom

The automotive industry in the United Kingdom is now best known for premium and sports car marques including Aston Martin, Bentley, Daimler, Jaguar, Lagonda, Land Rover, Lotus, McLaren, MG, Mini, Morgan and Rolls-Royce . Volume car manufacturer with a major presence in the UK include Ford, Honda, Nissan, Toyota and Vauxhall Motors (owned by General Motors). Commercial vehicle manufacturer active in the UK include Alexandre Dennis, Ford, GMM Luton(owned by General Motors), Leyland Trucks (owned by Paccar), and London Taxis International.

In 2008,the UK automotive manufacturing sector had a turnover of £52.5 billion, generated £26.6 billion of exports and produced around 1.45 million passenger vehicles and 203.000 commercial vehicles.In that year around 180,000 people were directly employed in automotive manufacturing in the UK, with a further 640,000 people employed in automotive supply, retail and servicing.The UK is a major centre for engine manufacturing and in 2008 ; around 3.16 million engines were produced in the country.The UK has a significant presence in auto racing and the UK motorsport industry currently

employs around 38,500 people, comprises around 4,500 companies and has an annual turnover of around £6 billion.

The origins of the UK automotive industry date back to the final years of the 19th century. By the 1950s, the UK was the second-largest manufacturer of cars in the world (after the United States) and the largest exporter. However in subsequent decades the industry experienced considerably lower growth than competitor nations such as France, Germany and Japan and by 2008 the UK was the 12th-largest producer of cars measured by volume. Since the late 1980s many British car marques have become owned by foreign companies including BMW, SAIC, TATA and Volkswagen Group. Rights to many currently dormant brands, including Austin, Riley, Rover and Triumph, are also owned by foreign companies.

Famous and iconic British cars include the Aston Martin DB5, Aston Martin V8 Vantage, Bentley 4½ Litre, Jaguar E-Type, Land Rover Defender, Lotus Esprit, McLaren F1, MGB, original two-door Mini, Range Rover and Rolls-Royce Phantom III. Notable British car designers include John Polwhele Blatchley, Ian Callum, Colin Chapman, Alec Issigonis, Charles Spencer King and Gordon Murray.

In May 2000 Ford announced that passenger car assembly at its Dagenham plant would cease in 2002, ending 90 years of Ford passenger car assembly in the UK. At the same time Ford announced that it would invest US\$500 million in the expansion of a diesel engine factory at the site, making Dagenham its largest diesel engine center worldwide and creating about 500 new jobs to the 900 lost in vehicle assembly. In December 2004 Ford announced a further investment of £169 million in the Dagenham plant, increasing annual output to one million diesel engines. The closure of Vauxhall assembly plant remaining in Britain. General Motors also retained the former Bedford works in Luton for producing vans such as the Vivaro and the Movano. In April 2007, it was

confirmed that the Ellesmere Port would produce the next generation Astra from 2010. Losses at Jaguar led to closure of the company's Browns Lane plant in Coventry in 2004. Spare capacity at Halewood allowed Land Rover Freelander production to be transferred there in 2006.

MG Rover spent the early part of the 2000s investigating possible ventures with other carmakers in order to develop a new range of cars. Proposed links with foreign organisations including Malaysian carmaker Proton failed to materialise, and by late 2004 Chinese carmaker SAIC Motor had shown an interest in taking over the Longbridge-based firm - which was now hundreds of millions of pounds in debt. Talks broke down and the firm went into receivership in April 2005 with the loss of more than 6,000 jobs. Three months later the firm's assets were purchased by another Chinese carmaker - Nanjing Automobile - and Longbridge partially re-opened over the summer of 2007 with an initial workforce of around 250 preparing to restart production of the MG TF which was relaunched in August 2008.

In April 2006 Peugeot closed its Ryton plant and moved 206 production to Slovakia. In 2007, Ford sold Aston Martin to a British-led Consortium backed by Middle East investors, retaining a small stake in the company and agreeing to continue the supply of components including engines. In 2008 Ford sold Jaguar Land Rover to Tata Motors of India for £1.15 billion. In November 2009 Dutch sports car maker Spyker Cars announced that it would be moving production from Zeewolde to Whitney, Coventry, and UK production began in February 2010.

In March 2010 McLaren Automobile unveiled its MP4-12C model, alongside plans to produce around 4,000 cars per year at its Working factory by the middle of the decade. At the Paris Motor Show in September 2010 Lotus cars unveiled five new models due to go on sale by 2016, alongside plans for an investment of £770 million over 10 years, the complete redevelopment of its

Hethel factory and an increase in production from under 3,000 cars per year to 6,000 to 7,000. In December 2010 it was announced that Renault had sold his remaining 25 o/o shareholding in its eponymous Formula 1 team to Lotus Cars, and that the team would be renamed Lotus Renault in 2011.

In January 2011, BMW announced that it would be extending the Mini range with the launch of two new two –door sports crossover vehicles based on the Mini Paceman concept car , with a coupe version to enter production in 2011 and a roadster in 2012. In March 2011 Jaguar Land Rover announced that it would be hiring an additional 1,500 staff at its Halewood plant, and signed over £2 billion of supply contracts with UK-based companies, to enable production of its new Range Rover Evoque model. In April 2011 the MG Motor subsidiary of SAIC Motor announced that mass production had resumed at the Longbridge plant, as the first MG 6 to be produced in the United Kingdom came off the production line. In May 2011, Jaguar unveiled plans to build the C-X75 petrol – electric hybrid super car in the UK from 2013, with production to be in association with Williams F1 . Also in May , Aston Martin Lagonda confirmed that it was planning to revive the Lagonda marque , with the launch of two or three new models . In an interview with Reuters in the same month , Carl- Peter Foster, the Chief Executive of Tata Motors , revealed that Jaguar Land Rover would be investing over £5 billion in product development over the succeeding five years.

In June , Nissan announced that the replacement for its Qashqai model would be designed and build in UK , in a total investment of £192 million safeguarding around 6,000 jobs . In June BMW announced an investment of £500 million in the UK over the subsequent three years as part of expansion of the Mini range to seven models. In September 2011, Jaguar Land Rover confirmed that it would be investing £355 million in the construction of a new engine plant near Wolverhampton, to manufacture a new family of four –

cylinder petrol and diesel engines.later in the same mont hit was announced that the Jensen marque would be revived with a new version of the interceptor to be built by CPP .Holdings at the former Jaguar factory Browns Lane in coventry .In November , Toyota announced plans to make the UK its sole European manufacturing base for hatchback versions of its next C-segment family car, resulting in the investment of over £100 million in its Burnaston plant and the creation of around 1,500 new jobs.

4.4.1.5- The Aerospace and Defence (A&D)

The Aerospace and Defence (A&D) industries are facing a combination of challenge and opportunity not seen for many years. In defence, broadening security concerns and continued operational intensity are at odds with uncertainty about government policy and equipment programmes. Civil aerospace, meanwhile, is experiencing confidence issues, falling passenger and freight demand, continuing environmental pressures and a realignment of carriers.

Across the A&D sector as a whole, cash conservation and margin protection are driving short-term cost cutting and a renewed focus on enterprise-wide efficiency.

Organisations who can react quickly can achieve significant improvements in earnings, market share and competitive position. The key is technology-enabled change, delivered efficiently and with respect for the culture and history of the industry.

Maintenance, Repair and Overhaul (MRO) activities have become mission-critical to UK defence equipment suppliers. Instead of buying a support contract and running their own maintenance teams, customers want a comprehensive MRO service, paid for on the basis of usage. The UK Ministry of Defence (MoD) is in the forefront of this global development, clawing back

money and staff from support activities right across the defence budget. This market trend presents many defence suppliers with a stark choice: either acquire new business capabilities, or else cede market position to incoming MRO and service organisations.

In civil aerospace, the downturn means that despite the long-term growth trend of passenger numbers, airlines are now faced with excess capacity just when they are having to deal with unstable financing and fuel prices. There are knock-on implications for manufacturers and other suppliers, who need to juggle these problems alongside the traditional efficiency drivers of capital-intensive industries. The civil aerospace market is also responding to economic challenges by creating shareholder value in MRO and aftermarket activities.

The A&D industry needs to evolve rapidly in response to pressures like these. For the agile, there is an opportunity to grow, but those who are too slow to change face potentially irreversible decline.

4.4.2- Economic Resources

4.4.2.1-Mineral resource

The United Kingdom has sufficient reserves of construction minerals such as sands and gravel, silica sand and sandstone and exports mainly china clay, ball clay, potash and salt the most important non energy mineral worked in the country is the Boulby potash mine in North East England.

As non energy mineral, the United Kingdom disposes of sand, gravel, silica sand, igneous rock, limestone and dolomite, chalk, sandstone, gypsum, and anhydrite, salt (rock salt, salt in brine), common clay and shale, china clay, ball clay.

The deposits of gold, tin, tungsten, barites, fuller's earth (certain deposits), zinc, copper, lead, silver, are not worked.

In Scotland, we have deposits of marble, silica sand, gold, barites. The majority of mineral deposits is concentrated in England: gypsum, barites, silica sand, fuller's earth, ball clay, china clay, fluorspars, potash and iron. There is also the Orefield of Northern pennine and Southern pennine. In Wales there are not enough mineral resources. We have only deposits of zinc and copper, lead to silver.

As soon as Northern Ireland is concerned, only deposits of gold and salt are available. As energy resource, we have coal, crude oil, gas and nuclear energy.

Coal was the only source of energy of that United Kingdom in the 20th century. Its production has decreased now but it continues to play an important role on the position of primary energy. The country exports the great majority of its fuel.

The main natural resources are oil and gas. Oil and gas's fields are mainly located under the North Sea and the Irish Sea. The United Kingdom is among the ten worldwide producers of crude oil and natural gas.

Mountains, Lakes, reservoirs, river intakes provide about the three-quarter of water in the United Kingdom and the rest come from underground sources. Scotland and Wales with their upland sources are self-sufficient in water supply. Northern Ireland also disposes of many reserves for its needs (domestic and industrial). In the country, the regions which lack groundwater are South – East England and East Anglia.

4.4.2.2 – Banking and insurance institutions.

The main banking institutions and financial markets in the city of London are the Bank of England, the London Stock Exchange, and Lloyd's insurance market and the London International Financial Futures and Options Exchange.

The City of London is the most financial centre in Europe (the two others Tokyo and New York) and is characterized by the size of its businesses worldwide. The city of London is :

-The owner of many foreign banks (more than others financial centres) ;

-The most important market for buying and selling foreign equities ;

-The greatest fund administration center ;

-The leader in worldwide insurance and occupies the fourth rank in insurance market ;the leader in the domain of recommendation for privatisation ;

-The supplier of auxiliary and support services (legal , accountancy, and management services)

The Bank of England, settled in 1694 by Act of parliament and Royal charter, is the central bank of the United Kingdom. As it was a corporation , government became owner of its capital stock in 1946. The role of the Bank of England is to make sure of stability and the efficiency of the financial and monetary system so that the economy could be safe. It aims at preserving the currency , ensuring the stability of the financial system and seeing to the efficacy of financial services.

The biggest banks in the United Kingdom are Lloyds TSB ,HSBC, Halifax, National Westminster, Barclays , Abbey National , Royal Bank of Scotland , Bank of Scotland , Woolwich, Alliance ,and Leicester , Northern Rock and Standard Chartered . This latter is mainly established overseas , in about fifty countries (in Asia , in Africa and the Middle East).

The bank sector is growing with many operators who integrate the system. For example, insurance companies and supermarkets have started to provide banking services.

There are two sorts of bank: retail and investment. The services offered by a retail bank are deposit, withdrawal, and loan facilities. Those banking facilities are destined to individual customers and small enterprises and they have a large range of products proposed by the bank: current and deposit accounts, credits and debit cards, loan arrangements, mortgages and others. Around 75 per cent of the United Kingdom's households use banking services (retail bank).

Many people in the United Kingdom employ plastic cards. There are five main plastic cards which are: cheque guarantee cards, debit cards, credit cards, charge cards and cash cards. However, often, personal cards have two or more uses. That is the case of the cheque guarantee and cash cards. The majority of credit cards is attached to Visa and MasterCard, the two worldwide organizations. Credit cards and charge cards are the most employed plastic cards in the United Kingdom.

Unlike retail banks, investment banks provide professional financial services. This means that they intervene in giving advice and financial services to firms (particularly in case of amalgamation, corporation, assumption of control). In one word, they are linked to the companies. They are expert in advising governments on privatization.

Apart from the banks, there is also another range of financial institutions named "Special Financing Institutions". They are addressed to borrowers (personal and corporate). There are finance houses and leasing companies, credit unions, factoring and venture capital companies.

Concerning insurance, which exists under two categories – long term and General ones. There are many institutions dealing with it: national companies

, the Lloyds Markets and overseas firms settled in the country. There is an association of British Insurers (ABI) and more than the half of the insurers companies are members of ABI. Prudential, CGU, Standard Life, Royal and Sun Alliance and Norwich Union are among the largest insurance firms. Amalgamation and takeovers are frequent in the insurance domain and give birth to more strong companies.

4.4.2.3- British industrial and scientific assets and powers

Science, Engineering and Technology are the domain in which the United Kingdom excels. It occupies the second rank after the United States. The British Government invested a lot in Research and Development. For the year 1997, the fund allocated to it was £14.7 billions, which represents 1.8 % of the Gross Domestic Product. The majority of this sum went to civil Research and Development while the rest was used for defence projects. Biotechnology, chemicals, materials, electronics and aerospace are the main areas in which the effort in Research and Development are concentrated.

Science, Engineering and Technology, commonly abbreviated SUT, are the domains, which are under the supervision of the Department of Trade and Industry and the Ministry of Science. Added to the Office of Science and Technology that play an important role in policy on science. Engineering and technology. Recently, the Government has planned a global expenditure of more than £7 billions on both civil and defence Science Engineering and Technology.

Among the government Departments, the one of Defence benefits from the largest government Research and Development budget followed by the main goal is to maintain the country among the leader in the domain of Science, Engineering and Technology. Among the companies, which invest, to most

vare the ones of the pharmaceutical sectors such as Glaxo Wellcome, Sminkline Beecham and Astra Zeneca.

Many discoveries and invention have been made by British scientist such as the nature of radioactivity , the hole in the ozone layer over the Antarctic . In the domain of genetics , genetically modified organs and cloning, the British Scientists are among the best worldwide.

The beginning of the 20th century saw a flourishing of British scientist .More than 70 British scientists won a Nobel Prize and among them there are Sir Joseph Thomson , a physicist who established the existence of electron in 1897, Sir Ronald Ross , a surgeon who confirmed the theory of the bacteriologist Sir Patrick Manson that mosquitoes transmit malaria. Another example of the great development of science in the United Kingdom is the success of the scientists at the Rosli Institute in Edingburgh in the cloning of a sheep using a cell from an adult sheep mammary gland.

In theUnited Kingdom , it exists research councils which are autonomous bodies aiming at supporting research, study and training in universities and other higher education institutions .There are about seven Research Councils which are :

The Engineering and Phisicals Sciences Research Council (EPSRC), which has the largest budget and encourages high quality basic, strategic and applied research.

The Medical Research Council (MRC), the second in rank in matter of budget , supports research and training linked to the maintenance and the betterment of human health.

The Natural Environment Research Council (NERC) is mainly involved in the themes of sustainable development , environmental protection and quality of life.

The Biotechnology and Biological Research Council (BBRC) is concerned with the basic and strategic research and biological systems, which the agriculture bioprocessing, chemical, food and other biotechnology related industries.

The Particle Physics and Astronomy Research Council (PPARC), which aims at developing basic research and fundamental physical processes.

The Economic and Social Research Council (ESRC), which main concerns are the research and training to improve the economic competitiveness of the country, the quality of life and the effectiveness of public services and policy

The Council for the Central Laboratory of Research Council (CCLRC) ensures the promotion of scientific and engineering research.

**PART THREE: BRITISH MAJOR PROBLEMS AND AN APPROACH
OF SOLUTION**

CHAPTER FIVE: BRITISH PROBLEMS: CAUSES AND CONSEQUENCES

5.1- British problems

5.1.1- Problems related to people immigration

The growth in the number of immigrants coming to the UK from eastern Europe has presented "major new issues" for the established population, the head of the Commission for Racial Equality said.

Trevor Phillips said that one reason "we are so anxious" about the recent influx was that the new immigrants were competing for better jobs. He said they brought with them their own institutions and were settling in greater numbers in smaller areas.

Speaking at The Royal Geographical Society, he said: "There are some features of this migration which make it, from the point of view of the average citizen, very different to the post-Empire wave. The first is pretty obvious if you go into any Starbucks, or walk past a building site. These people come to work, and to earn. That doesn't mean that settled folk are pushed out of the labour market. But most of those who come from the EU accession countries are young, often highly educated and, crucially, single and child-free.

"In our last wave of migration, most people came, did the jobs no one else would, and rapidly brought their families to join them. The upside is that this is largely dependent-free migration; but it is socially significant - an influx of young men or young women will change any community."

Mr Phillips said that between July 2004 and March 2006, almost 5,700 accession country nationals registered as bus, lorry and coach drivers. There were more than 11,500 care workers, 1,400 teaching staff, 550 dental practitioners and more than 1,750 GPs, hospital doctors, nurses and specialists.

Mr Phillips warned politicians that their responses to the new immigration must be measured. "Today the UN reckons that some 200 million people live and work outside the country of their birth. In recent weeks, the newspapers and the airwaves have been full of chatter about the potential consequences of the accession of Romania and Bulgaria to the EU. Set that noise against the background of public anxiety about terrorism inspired from abroad but executed at home and you have a recipe for policymaking by panic."

A spokesman for Business for New Europe, representing British business support for further integration, said: "Young people all over Europe are taking advantage of the freedom to live and work anywhere in the EU, and pursuing opportunities outside their country of birth. This is to be welcomed. The immigrants from eastern Europe to the UK have made an immense contribution to the private and public sector in all regions."

Mr Phillips said the migrants arriving in Britain 100 years ago broke with the past, unlike those who can now keep the link alive through travel and communication. "Indeed, we expect that the majority of those coming from the EU accession countries will return home within a few years," he said.

Mr Phillips said the new immigrants were establishing their own places of worship, shops and even media outlets. "There's nothing wrong with these preferences," he said. "But it does present the possibility that the range of areas in which we share experiences as a whole nation is shrinking daily." He said rather than settling in large cities, new migrants were focusing on relatively small towns in large numbers.

Mr Phillips, who said Britain was "sleepwalking to segregation" last year, insisted immigrants were needed to sustain our workforce. But he said: "In this new world of more rapid immigration, coupled with an unprecedented threat to

global security, we cannot continue to pretend that there are no costs faced by our changing communities."

Mr Phillips warned that Britain was verging on "unacceptably high" ethnic polarisation in some areas and claimed the education system was encouraging that division. "Separateness tends to encourage inequality of treatment," he said. "Living separately means that different groups of people have their experiences defined by their ethnicity rather than their ambitions. We know that the more we allow people who live here to feel they do not belong to this society the higher the risk of their taking hostile action against it."

5.1.2- The problems of British society

Drug abuse, violent crime, teenage delinquency, family breakdown, welfare dependency, poor urban environments, educational failure, poverty, the loss of traditional values, teenage pregnancy, dysfunctional families, binge drinking, children who kill: all have been cited as proof that we have a broken society.

Tony Blair in 1995 asked us to look at "the wreckage of our broken society" and, using the now-familiar language of rights and responsibilities, called for a new civic society where everyone played a part. The phrase then really came into its own in the Conservative leadership campaign in 2005, first from Liam Fox and then with David Cameron taking up the term in his leadership acceptance speech. It is now strongly associated with Iain Duncan Smith's work for the Centre for Social Justice and the Conservative's Social Justice Policy Group, and the promise to "mend Britain's broken society" became a dominant theme of the Conservative general election campaign.

But the picture is clearly more mixed than some commentators suggest. There are undoubtedly some serious social problems in Britain, and whilst some things have got worse, many have improved. Moreover, perceptions of some problems are increasingly wide of the mark.

5.1.3- Energetic problems

There is probably one thing that we can all agree on: the world's energy reserves are not unlimited. Actually that's not strictly true, there is a near unlimited supply of energy coming from the sun but we are pretty bad at converting it into useful energy. Look around and ask yourself how much things will change in the near future. It is pretty certain that we will run out of gas in your lifetime. Quite when it will happen is up for debate but a guess of around twenty years would probably be pretty close. That's not long considering that, certainly in the UK, a good portion of houses have only gas powered heating and cooking.

We have, in all likelihood, gone to war in Iraq to ensure a steady supply of oil for the next twenty to thirty years but even if we can get exclusive access to that oil, and that's unlikely, it's a rather short amount of time before people start getting cold and hungry. Make no mistakes, when the oil runs out the western culture will collapse and we will be sent hurtling back to the middle ages. Starvation will become a real problem, medicine will become scarce and transport will be by your own two feet or not at all.

The UK currently has around sixty million people. Without oil it could support maybe twenty million but probably less because there will be no oil to power farm machines, no fertilizer to grow strong crops and no herbicides or pesticides to keep the weeds and insects at bay. We will be sent back to a pre-industrial revolution world with no hope of it ending.

Winter will be the worst time for us because there will be nothing to burn. The first winter with no gas or oil will see every tree cut down for firewood even though burning unseasoned wood is nearly pointless. Our houses will start to fail as there will be no materials to maintain them with and rats will breed in their masses because we can't transport out waste away. Basic raw materials

like wood and steel will become valuable commodities because we won't be able to produce them ourselves but they won't last anywhere near as long as we are used to because we won't have lacquers, paints and varnishes to protect them with.

Is there a bright side? Perhaps. There is no shortage of coal yet. Estimations put it at maybe two hundred years if we are careful with it but that is based on usage values from the late 1980's which are unlikely to be a good indication of the future. Once the far and middle east, in particular China and India, starts serious industrialization our world energy demand will sky rocket. Let's not forget Africa as well, one day they may get their act together and when they do the west's energy needs will be tiny in comparison. So let's re-estimate that we have one hundred years of coal left. That's not bad but it's still in the lifetime of our children. Won't somebody think of the children!

Of course the coal might be able to keep us warm – assuming that we can develop technology that allows us to actually get it out the ground as none of the currently technology that uses oil will be working – but the problem then is that it might keep us too warm. Burning all that coal will release trillions of tones of carbon dioxide into the atmosphere. If you think global warming is bad now the forecast is that it's only going to get worse from here.

It is fairly clear that we need to do something about this problem now and not in twenty years when it start to really cause us problems. It takes huge amounts of money and a long time to develop a new energy technology to the point where it is useful. Look how long it took to develop the coal fired power station for instance – maybe one hundred years to get something really useful. We need to invest a good portion of our countries GDP in researching renewable energy sources so that we don't get caught out. There is no way on Earth the government will put even one percent of the countries GDP into research, let alone into researching alternative energy sources. This is bizarre

because one of the few things that we will always need is power. If we could become the world leaders in renewable energy technology we would have the world eating out of our hand in the near future. If you agree even in part with what I have said please write to your MP asking him or her to push for more funding for alternative energy sources. Your way of life and your children's way of life depend on it.

5.2- Causes of British problems.

Market failure is possible when monopoly manipulation of markets occurs. A crisis can develop due to industrial actions like union organized strikes and government embargoes. The cause may be over-consumption, aging infrastructure, choke point disruption or bottlenecks at oil refineries and port facilities that restrict fuel supply. An emergency may emerge during unusually cold winters due to increased consumption of energy.

Large fluctuations and manipulations in future derivatives can have a substantial impact on price. Large investment banks control 80% of oil derivatives as of May 2012, compared to 30% only a decade ago.^[1] Kuwaiti Oil Minister Hani Hussein stated that "Under the supply and demand theory, oil prices today are not justified," in an interview with Upstream.

Pipeline failures and other accidents may cause minor interruptions to energy supplies. A crisis could possibly emerge after infrastructure damage from severe weather. Attacks by terrorists or militia on important infrastructure are a possible problem for energy consumers, with a successful strike on a Middle East facility potentially causing global shortages. Political events, for example, when governments change due to regime change, monarchy collapse, military occupation, and coup may disrupt oil and gas production and create shortages. Fuel shortage is due to the excess and useless use of the fuels.

As far as immigration is concerned, its causes are various: Firstly, employment opportunities are the most common reason that people decide to emigrate. In other countries, there will be variety kind of jobs and as a result, people will have a lot of opportunities to find a job. Moreover, finding a job in other countries will probably lead to having high salary and modern working environment. For example, many people go to Russia and Korea to work as a construction worker and as a consequence, they earn higher salaries than in their home country. All of these things will possibly lead to immigration.

Another cause of immigration is education opportunities; it will certainly cause directly having better future for children. With a better education, children will have chances to adapt to new style of studying and it might cause children to be a creative, flexible people and they will be able to becoming independence. For instance, studying in a Western university, children can change their study styles, especially they have to adapt with active learning which is spend a lot of time to study by themselves.

5.3- Consequences of British problems

The macroeconomic implications of a supply shock-induced energy crisis are large, because energy is the resource used to exploit all other resources. When energy markets fail, an energy shortage develops. Electricity consumers may experience intentionally engineered rolling blackouts during periods of insufficient supply or unexpected power outages, regardless of the cause.

Industrialized nations are dependent on oil, and efforts to restrict the supply of oil would have an adverse effect on the economies of oil producers. For the consumer, the price of natural gas, gasoline (petrol) and diesel for cars and other vehicles rises. An early response from stakeholders is the call for reports, investigations and commissions into the price of fuels. There are also movements towards the development of more sustainable urban infrastructure.

In the market, new technology and energy efficiency measures become desirable for consumers seeking to decrease transport costs. High Oil Prices Boost Energy Efficiency. January 30, 2008 Planet Ark. Examples include:

- In 1980 Briggs & Stratton developed the first gasoline hybrid electric automobile; also are appearing plug-in hybrids.
- the growth of advanced biofuels.
- innovations like the Dahon, a folding bicycle
- modernized and electrifying passenger transport
- Railway electrification systems and new engines such as the Ganz-Mavag locomotive
- variable compression ratio for vehicles

Other responses include the development of unconventional oil sources such as synthetic fuel from places like the Athabasca Oil Sands, more renewable energy commercialization and use of alternative propulsion. There may be a Relocation trend towards local foods and possibly microgeneration, solar thermal collectors and other green energy sources.

Tourism trends and gas-guzzler ownership varies with fuel costs. Energy shortages can influence public opinion on subjects from nuclear power plants to electric blankets. Building construction techniques—improved insulation, reflective roofs, thermally efficient windows, etc.—change to reduce heating costs.

As far immigration is concerned, overpopulation is the most serious effects migration. When a lot of migrants move to other country, it will definitely lead to not having enough space to live and work as well. In addition, when the figure of immigrants increases too fast, it will probably result in not providing

enough food demanding. China is one of many examples of this factor, when Vietnamese, Cambodian and Laos people move to China to find a job and lived there. As a result, China is becoming the biggest population in the world and it will also certainly...

CHAPTER SIX: AN APPROACH OF SOLUTION

6.1- Suggestions

To avoid the serious social and economic implications a global decline in oil production could entail, the 2005 Hirsch report emphasized the need to find alternatives, at least ten to twenty years before the peak, and to phase out the use of petroleum over that time. This was similar to a plan proposed for Sweden that same year. Such mitigation could include energy conservation, fuel substitution, and the use of unconventional oil. Because mitigation can reduce the use of traditional petroleum sources, it can also affect the timing of peak oil and the shape of the Hubbert curve.

Energy policy may be reformed leading to greater energy intensity, for example in Iran with the 2007 Gas Rationing Plan in Iran, Canada and the National Energy Program and in the USA with the *Energy and Security Act of 2007*. Another mitigation measure is the setup of a cache of secure fuel reserves like the United States Strategic Petroleum Reserve, in case of national emergency. Chinese energy policy includes specific targets within their 5-year plans.

Andrew McKillop has been a proponent of a contract and converge model or capping scheme, to mitigate both emissions of greenhouse gases and a peak oil crisis. The imposition of a carbon tax would have mitigating effects on an oil crisis. The Oil Depletion Protocol has been developed by Richard Heinberg to implement a powerdown during a peak oil crisis. While many sustainable development and energy policy organisations have advocated reforms to energy development from the 1970s, some cater to a specific crisis in energy supply including Energy-Quest and the International Association for Energy Economics. The Oil Depletion Analysis Centre and the Association for the Study of Peak Oil and Gas examine the timing and likely effects of peak oil.

Due to a lack of political viability on the issue, government mandated fuel prices hikes are unlikely and the unresolved dilemma of fossil fuel dependence is becoming a wicked problem. A global soft energy path seems improbable, due to the rebound effect. Conclusions that the world is heading towards an unprecedented large and potentially devastating global energy crisis due to a decline in the availability of cheap oil lead to calls for a decreasing dependency on fossil fuel.

Other ideas concentrate on design and development of improved, energy-efficient urban infrastructure in developing nations. Vittorio E. Pareto, Marcos P. Pareto. "The Urban Component of the Energy Crisis". Retrieved 2008-08-13. Government funding for alternative energy is more likely to increase during an energy crisis, so too are incentives for oil exploration. For example funding for research into inertial confinement fusion technology increased during 1970s.

Kirk Sorensen and others^[12] have suggested that additional nuclear power plants, particularly liquid fluoride thorium reactors have the energy density to mitigate global warming and replace the energy from peak oil, peak coal and peak gas. The reactors produce electricity and heat so much of the transportation infrastructure should move over to electric vehicles. However, the high process heat of the molten salt reactors could be used to make liquid fuels from any carbon source.

6.2- Recommendations

So if the reality does not always match the rhetoric, why does talk of a “broken society” strike a chord with so many people? Parts of the media have certainly latched on to the phrase and there is clearly unease across the political spectrum about how society is changing. For some, the state of society as they see it points towards moral decline and a collapse in community spirit. Others

see the use of the term as another way of “blaming the victim”, deflecting attention from fundamental problems such as poverty and inequality. Either way, divorce and addictions amongst successful professionals rarely provoke the same response as do lone-parent families and substance abuse in poorer parts of society.

Whatever the reason for its wider appeal, politicians using the term “a broken society” have clearly presented it as the result of a failure of policy. By implication, therefore, policy can help to “mend” it. But the causes of many social problems are unclear and/or disputed, and the evidence that government policy can influence behaviours in the intended direction is patchy at best.

Referring to a “broken society” may therefore be of little help when drawing up an effective agenda to tackle diverse and complex social issues. The test is whether new approaches will succeed where others are seen to have failed.

PART FOUR: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS AND PERSONAL STAND

CHAPTER SEVEN: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS AND PERSONAL STAND

After this broad study of the United Kingdom, we can point out many things and draw some conclusions.

The United Kingdom is an island. This geographic different feature confers to it some particularities. Its climates, exceptional, considering its position (not far from Labrador in Canada) allow it to cultivate many crops (barley, wheat, oats etc...) which are further processed for home consumption and export.

Even if it is part of the European continent, it is outside the continent. The country is self sufficient in many domains due to the fact that it is an island. It is different of many countries because of its quality of "island". The British way of looking things, acting and speaking is affected by the fact that they are islander as Thomas More said:

Great Britain in the old times was a peninsula which inhabitants had spontaneously cut the isthmus linking them to the mainland. In doing such a thing, they have the feeling that they isolated themselves but they never renounced to the wish of intervene in the mainland affairs. In other words, the United Kingdom is part of Europe, is the extension of Europe but as it wants as for its part

As far as those who live in the United Kingdom are concerned, it is noticed that they are different in their customs, languages, religions and others. The United Kingdom is a mixing of people coming from many horizons: Celts, Jutes, Angles, French and Danes. Their main language, English, even if it is based on Angles language contains words borrowed from many other languages (originating from Africa, Asia and Europe). Apart from English, we have languages particular to each country (Wales, Scotland, Northern Ireland and England). The facility of access to the country allows the migration of people from many countries throughout the world. Except the Established churches of the country, many religions and faith communities are settled in it. The

culinary habits, the traditions and the ways of doing of those people are also different.

At this stage of our study, we can say first of all that the geographic difference of the United Kingdom (an island) with regard to other countries is a big one and it may be considered as strength. Strength because the country is opened to tourists but in case of invasion, the country can easily protect itself.

Secondly, with its population coming from diverse origins, the country is one of the most composite of the world. This confers to the country a certain power because, instead of their differences, they consider themselves as one people, one country. They are united. Thirdly, the awareness of being islanders had influenced their mentality which is particular to them.

In the 19th century, the United Kingdom was an Empire possessing around the one-fourth of the world's superficies. They remained linked to their old territories through the Commonwealth. This latter is an organization or an association regrouping 54 countries, potential allies of the V in case of conflicts. All those countries recognize United Kingdom as Head of the Commonwealth and 14 countries of this Organisation are under the Sovereignty of the Monarch. United Kingdom is the Head of those "realms".

The structure of the Government – the Queen, her Majesty's Government, the government departments, the Civil Service, the local Government and the Pressure groups – ensures to the country as good management. The democracy that prevails in the country gives to the British a total freedom in respect of the law. The United Kingdom does not have a written Constitution but it has some constitutional documents (Magna Carta, 1215; Bill of Rights, 1689 and Reform Act, 1832) and the Common Law. The multiple reforms permitted by the flexibility of their constitution help the country to adapt itself to the worldwide growth.

In the field of education, there is a national curriculum to which each country of the V adds its particularity. The children are educated in a way so as to respect each other and their differences. The United Kingdom citizens benefit of many privileges and have some rights. The State protects them a lot.

Member of the United Nations (founder member), one of the five Permanent Members of the Security Council, member of North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO), Member of the Group of Eight and Council of Europe, the United Kingdom is a founder member of the International Monetary Fund and the World Bank. The United Kingdom belongs to many organizations and has its word to say in the ruling of them.

Once again, we can recognize a certain strength to the United Kingdom which belongs to most of the leading organisations of the world, those which play important roles in maintaining peace in the world and cooperation (economic, military and political).

CONCLUSION

The United Kingdom is a country of variety of landscape, variety of its inhabitants, variety in the customs, languages, life habits, variety in its productions, variety in all characteristics features of the country. And as Monica RELICH said in her book entitled “*Everyday England*”,

The more one is prepared to for variety in Britain, variety of landscape or place names or whatever else it may be, the more chance one has of seeing the richness of the underlying pattern that goes to make up the Britain of today.

People and things have a history in the United Kingdom. The British are very tied to their traditions and proud of them. They have many ancient monuments in their country-Stonehenge (built around 3,000BC), Hadrian Wall (begun in 122 AD), the Tower of London (begun in the 11th century – precisely seventeen which are registered on the World Heritage List created with the World Heritage Convention of 1972. They have also a rich literature with authors renowned all over the world for their writings (William Shakespeare, Charles Dickens, Bronte Sisters). The particularities of the United Kingdom are numerous. For instance, the Queen has two birthdays: the “true” one on April 21st and an official one on the second Saturday in June.

The British are superstitious and some continue to speak with metaphor and image to express their mind. Those idioms or sayings are traditional or withdraw from Shakespeare, Dickens, Pope Writings or the Bible.

The people of the United Kingdom like their country. They are nationalists and they work so as to develop it more and to conserve their identity in the same time.

The transport and the communications are developed in the country. The use of mobile phones is widespread and it exists in the country many means of transport (roads, ports, airports, railways, tramways, inland waterways). One of the main characteristics features of the British is that they adapt themselves to

any change and these help them to evolve and to follow easily the worldwide growth. The British scientists are second after the United States ones to win Nobel Prizes in science (more than seventy). Physics, Chemistry, Biology and Medicine are branches of science in which excels the United Kingdom. It is Sir Joseph Thomson who established the existence of electron in 1897 and Sir Ronald Ross who confirmed the theory of his colleague Sir Patrick Manson that mosquitoes transmit malaria.

The country offers good conditions to the investors and many overseas firms are settled in the United Kingdom. With the City of London, one of the leading financial markets of the world, the country attracts financiers from all parts of the world.

In the domain of sports, British are tenants of world titles in sports such as athletics, professional boxing and others. The country is the one in which is held each year the Wimbledon tennis championships and in some sporting competitions (football hockey), there are four teams representing the four components of the United Kingdom (England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland).

The fund allocated by Government to environmental protection has increased because the threats of environments destruction are numerous. Pollution of water, atmosphere and other is growing and developed nations are looking for solutions to it.

Economic, political and social aspects in the United Kingdom combined to give a wealthy country with inhabitants who is different from their status of islander and whose mentality is different from the countries of the mainland, and as said by Siegfried, a geographer and sociologist: *This insularity, which expresses so profoundly the claim of independence of each Englishman.*

The United Kingdom, towards the mainland has a double vocation of European and islanders and they assume it. And Thomas Moore said: one way of expressing the British dilemma is “the hardness of the head and the softness of the heart”.

In its history, the v passed through many events (wars, industrial revolution, and conquests) and this confers to it as a solid background in the management of human and other resources.