

A prophecy come true

'NOT GOOD-BYE, BUT AU REVOIR' — these were the words with which the late Edo Fimmen, the greatest General Secretary the I.T.F. has had during its half century of existence, concluded the announcement that, as from June-July 1933, the monthly Journal of the I.T.F. would cease publication.

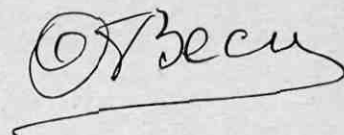
It was the year in which Hitler came to power and seemed to be sweeping all before him in his bid for world domination. The I.T.F. had suffered a heavy blow by the loss of more than half a million members in Germany and Austria and had to curtail its activities in various respects.

Edo Fimmen meant that the setback of the I.T.F. was only temporary, that it would make good the ground lost and advance further towards the attainment of the goals which millions of transport workers had set themselves.

Much has happened in the intervening years, which have indeed been ones of great anxiety and tribulation for man-

kind, and dark clouds still cast their shadow over the world. Nevertheless, the I.T.F. and the cause for which it stands have survived, and can today claim to be a greater force in the world than ever before. I.T.F. membership has not only reached the figure at which it stood before the setback of 1933 and soared far beyond it to upwards of five millions, but, in addition, the I.T.F. is today firmly entrenched in those parts of the world where it formerly had no more than a precarious foothold and is breaking ground in regions where previously international trade unionism was scarcely known.

The prophecy of Edo Fimmen has indeed been fulfilled and it is fitting that we should recall this in that issue of our Journal marking its return as a monthly publication. Let us renew our promise to play our part in the common struggle until those ideals which inspire the millions of transport workers in all corners of the world have been realized.



GENERAL SECRETARY

Death of a Union

By T. G. McManus (Former Secretary-Treasurer C.S.U.)

We reproduce below, with permission, a full length article on the Canadian Seamen's Union which originally appeared in the 1 December issue of Canada's National Magazine, Macleans. It is the first inside story of a most serious attempt made by the Communists to use the trade unions of the Western world as tools in the Communist campaign to gain control of the vital industries of the free and democratic world.

At the time, the I.T.F. played an active part both in meeting and defeating this threat. Although no justification of the correctness of the policy then followed by the I.T.F. is necessary, we publish the article which follows.

FIVE YEARS AGO the Canadian Seamen's Union had nearly 10,000 members. It held contracts on more than 300 ships sailing the Great Lakes, the salt-water coasts and the high seas. Its revenue was \$ 30,000 a month. On the cold, bloodstained North Atlantic the men who carried its cards had finished fighting their share of a war in which no combatant won more honor than the merchant seaman. No union's stock was ever higher.

Today the Canadian Seamen's Union has no more than 600 members. Its crews are working on barely a dozen ships. The union has been expelled from the Trades and Labor Congress of Canada and from the International Transport Workers' Federation. The respect in which it was

as a telling exposé of the methods employed to further the Communist cause. If anything proves the value of free trade unionism as an indispensable bulwark against totalitarianism then it is surely this depressing account of the last days of a once powerful and respected union.

The facts related therein square with our own knowledge of them as well as with our estimate of what went on behind the scenes in the C.S.U.

The whole story may serve as an object lesson to those who still need to be convinced that tampering with democratic principles or democratic methods can under no circumstances be allowed.

once held by employers, governments and other unions has turned to hostility and contempt. In every way that matters to a labor union the Canadian Seamen's Union is dead.

The primary cause of its death is already known or strongly suspected by most of the people who saw it happen or have read about it. Only a handful know the details and I am one of them. Until last July I was secretary-treasurer of the union, a position second in authority only to that of the president. I was also a member of the Canadian Communist Party which dictated — at every step and in every particular — the events which led to the union's bitter, inglorious ruin.

Obviously I could not, even if I wished to, evade my own full share of the responsibility. In every one of the series of strikes from 1946 through 1949 which culminated in the C.S.U.'s downfall, I obeyed the Communist Party's direct and specific orders, both in helping to call the strikes and in helping to run them. Even though I thought the last of these strikes (called in March, 1949, at the secret request of the British Communist Party to create an artificial strike issue for the workers of London) was tactically insane, it wasn't because of this that I quit the party four months ago. I quit because, after 19 years as a dedicated and well-disciplined Communist, I found I could not stomach the pro-Russian and anti-Canadian party line in Korea.

I will not pretend that the allurements and visions which first led me into the party and kept me there in the face of many doubts have altogether lost their power. Politically I am still of the extreme Left. Spiritually I am still a union man. I believe in trade unions as firmly as I have always believed in them. I believe it is the job of trade unions to fight as hard and intelligently as they can to win the highest possible standards of living for the working man.

If I thought it would hurt the cause of unionism I would not be saying the things I shall have to say here. But it's my earnest belief that not one Canadian union man in a hundred has a clear picture of how a 'Communist-dominated' union is run and I think it is vital to their own interests that union men should have such a picture.

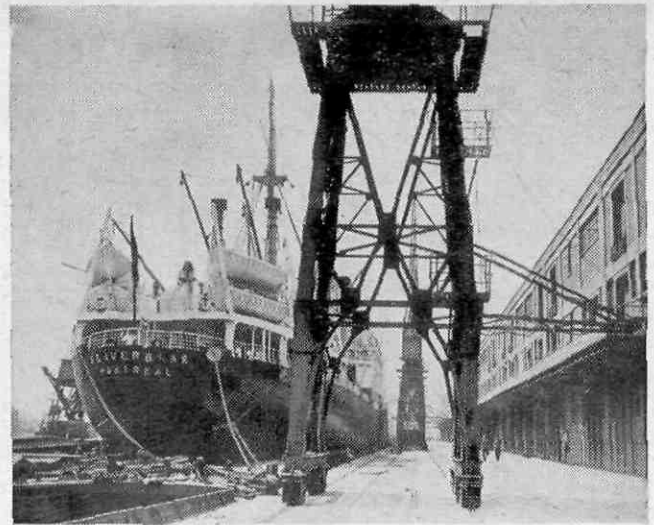
In strict accuracy there is no such thing as a Communist-dominated union. Once it falls under Communist domination a union ceases to be a union. It becomes a branch of the Communist Party. Often the party will lay down objectives for it and prescribe courses of action which are perfectly sound and valid from the point of view of the union's rank and file. But where the interests of the party and interests of the union diverge it must be the party's interests that prevail, even though — as in the case of the Canadian Seamen's Union — this means that the union must die.

The C.S.U. was founded in 1936 at a meeting in the Communist Party's national headquarters. At its peak 90% of its members were non-Communists, but most were content to leave the union's control in the hands of the Communist leaders. It was their belief that the union's objectives were honest and legitimate, as I believe they were until they conflicted with the party's objectives. When they did the union was wrecked.

I joined the Canadian Seamen's Union in 1945.

Neither the union nor I had anything to do with my joining. When the war ended I was a medical sergeant in the Canadian Army. I had enlisted on the Communist Party's instructions in 1942 and as I waited for my discharge in Montreal I took it for granted that my next job like every job I'd held for nearly 15 years — would be on assignment from the party. (Now it's called the Labor-Progressive Party but the old name is the only accurate one).

When my discharge came through I reported to the party's Montreal headquarters. Fred Rose, the federal member of parliament who was later to go to jail as a leader of the Communist spy ring, instructed me to go to national headquarters in Toronto and gave me transportation and expense money.



The Canadian s.s. Beaverbrae - here shown at the deserted quay - was the source of the trouble in the Port of London. Labelled 'black' by the Communist it was used by them to further their attack on the economic life on democratic Britain.

In Toronto I reported to Sam Carr, then the party's national organizing secretary, now also serving a prison term for conspiring to forge a passport for a Russian agent. Carr told me the Political Bureau, the party's 11-man inner cabinet, had already decided my future. A few members of the bureau had suggested that I return to political work in Saskatchewan where before the war I had been the provincial leader and had served as an alderman in Regina. The P.B. finally ruled that I'd be more useful in trade union work.

I ran an election campaign for Buck and then Carr sent me to Ottawa where I saw Pat Sullivan, then president of the Canadian Seamen's Union and secretary of the Trades and Labor Congress. Sullivan, who broke with the party three years ago, was then a member and had been instructed to give me a job.

I worked for a few months on the Montreal docks as a partolman, equivalent in a shore-side union to a union steward. I worked hard both for the party and for the union. I was appointed a delegate to the 1946 convention of the union in Montreal.

This meeting followed the exact pattern of every C.S.U. meeting I have attended. Since the C.S.U. was founded by the party and has been a party captive throughout its career I believe it's safe to assume the C.S.U. has never held a meeting that followed any other pattern.

Officially, the officers for the next year were elected at a meeting of some 80 C.S.U. delegates and officials. Actually they were appointed at a party caucus held the night before. The only C.S.U. members who attended this preliminary meeting were the 18 or 20 union delegates and officials who were members of the Communist Party. The meeting was run by J.B. Salsberg, a well-known Ontario Communist politician who is a member of the party's Political Bureau and its trade union director.

Salsberg went over the slate of officers in the C.S.U.,

commenting on the work of each man. Then with the off-hand assurance of a baseball manager naming his starting lineup he announced the new slate.

'Sullivan will continue in office as president,' he said. 'Davis (Harry Davis, now C.S.U. president and the man who 18 months ago dealt the C.S.U. its coup de grâce) will be first vice-president. Cyril Lenton will be treasurer. Gerry McManus will be secretary.'

All we keymen, of course, were party members. A few members of the C.S.U. executive — men like Theodore Roy and Eddie Reid — who were not party members but who had not opposed the party in the C.S.U. were approved by Salsberg for re-election.

'Party is Always Right'

The next day, though we were outnumbered nearly four to one by the non-Communist delegates, those who had attended the party caucus got Salsberg's slate through the C.S.U. convention without a casualty. Salsberg naturally didn't attend the meeting for he is not and never has been a member of the Canadian Seamen's Union.

At the next convention — or rather at the party caucus Salsberg called the night before the convention — I was 'elected' secretary-treasurer. From then until July of this year I shared with Harry Davis the job of running the C.S.U. to Salsberg's and the party's satisfaction.

In each of the three years from 1946 through 1948 the C.S.U. went on strike. I don't propose to go into the issues or the details. It's not that I wish to hide anything. I simply think the position laid down for union by the party in each of those strikes was a good position — a fair and reasonable position for a trade union to follow.

Contrary to general belief it was not at the party's instigation that a wave of violence and lawlessness accompanied the 1948 strike on the Great Lakes. Even now — with the advantage of the second guess and freed of the blinding necessity of telling myself over and over again that 'the party is always right' — I cannot remember that the party asked me to do anything which a conscientious trade union leader could not have done.

I see now that the 1948 strike was a tactical mistake. It played straight into the hands of Pat Sullivan, who had quit the party and the C.S.U. to form the rival Canadian Lake Seamen's Union. It strengthened the hand of the large shipowners who had invited the strike by locking out C.S.U. crews. And, although the union still had so much support in the trade union movement that Frank Hall suffered a total defeat in his first attempt to have it read out of the Trades and Labor Congress, even the most easygoing non-Communist labor leaders were beginning to wonder if we weren't getting 'strike-happy'.

Bruised But Not Beaten

All these points could be argued interminably. The reason I'd rather not argue them here is that I want to make this a statement not of opinion but of fact. The fact is that the party ordered and ran the strike. As secretary-treasurer I reported daily to Joe Salsberg on the progress of the strike and took my orders from him. In the early stages of the strike I moved my headquarters from Montreal to Toronto so that I could be in constant personal contact with Salsberg.

The C.S.U. came out of that 1948 strike badly bruised

but by no means beaten. It was the 1949 strike which sealed its doom — completed the dispersal of most of its members to the Seafarers' International Union and brought the C.S.U.'s expulsion from the Trades and Labor Congress.

I want to tell what I know about this in some detail for it was the first strike in which even I — still a staunch toe-the-party-liner — had difficulty in persuading myself that the party had the nation's interests at heart.

In the fall of 1948 we began negotiating for a new contract with the shipping companies that control Canada's deep-sea merchant fleet. A three-man conciliation board brought down a report in April 1949. The report suggested concessions on both sides. I personally considered it as good a settlement as we could reasonably hope to get in the prevailing atmosphere. I was in favor of accepting its basic recommendations on wages and working conditions and trying to bargain further on a question involving union hiring halls.

Davis, the president, was in England when the conciliation board brought down its report. I called a meeting of the executive in Montreal and wired Davis to come back right away. The meeting followed the customary blueprint. Joe Salsberg didn't attend the C.S.U. sessions but he took a room in the hotel in which they were being held. The night before the C.S.U. executive met, the Communist executive members reported to Salsberg's room.

To Strike the World !

For once Salsberg wasn't prepared to lay down a final directive. That wasn't altogether surprising. Deep-sea sailing is an international activity. A deep-sea strike by the C.S.U. would have ramifications in many countries outside Canada. The Canadian party wasn't anxious to rake a stand without having the views of the party in other parts of the world. It was to get those views that Harry Davis left Canada. Salsberg told us to go ahead with the union meeting as scheduled but not to allow any decision to be made until Davis returned.

We were in session when Davis arrived. He had attended two major meetings in Europe — one a meeting of the executive members of the Communist-controlled World Federation of Trade Unions; the other a special meeting of the dock workers' fraction of the British Communist Party. He had been assured that if we struck we could get fighting support in virtually every deep-sea port in Europe.

'We can strike the world!' Davis said exultantly.

I got up. 'Wait a minute', I said. 'What about Canada? If we strike again I don't think we'll get support from any important section of the Canadian trade union movement.' Without the support of Canadian labor I felt any support we might get in foreign ports would be meaningless.

We adjourned and took our disagreement to Joe Salsberg. Salsberg asked Tim Buck to come down from Toronto. The next day the Communist members of the C.S.U. dumped the question in the lap of the party's top man.

I was still holding out for peace. Davis was very persuasive. He repeated his assurance of support from the party and from party unions all over the world. He said he found demand for a strike. Ever since the Labour Party had come to power in Britain, Davis reminded us, British labor had lacked 'militant leadership' — in simpler terms, the British Communist Party had difficulty in promoting strikes on domestic issues. A strike on the waterfronts of Great

Britain might arouse the whole British trade union movement. Davis made it clear that the cost to the Canadian seamen was irrelevant in the eyes of the British Communist Party.

Buck finally ordered a saw-off. The Canadian National Steamships' Lady Rodney and Lady Nelson were in or bound for Halifax. Buck told us to tie up those two ships, and those two ships only, as a sign to the Government (their owner) that we meant business.

Davis ordered the ships struck and at the same time wrote a letter in the union's name flatly rejecting the conciliation board's report. This was farther than the party had authorized him to go and Buck and Salsberg were plainly worried. They were afraid a strike would hurt the party's position in Canada and they were afraid if there was no strike it would hurt the Canadian party's position abroad. They ordered Davis to go to Ottawa and try to work for a settlement with Arthur McNamara, Deputy Minister of Labor, and Percy Bengough, president of the Trades and Labor Congress. I went with him.

On the chief issue of hiring halls we began making progress. We worked out a complicated formula that looked satisfactory. Some features of the formula required government assent. McNamara, an able negotiator who will try to work with anybody if he thinks it's in the public interest, agreed to lay it before his superiors. When he came back his face was grave. 'It's too late, boys' he said. 'The owners have just signed with the Seafarers' International Union'.

We broke up. Davis was beside himself with elation. 'I told you there was to be a strike,' he said. 'The strike is on!'

Davis telephoned the Ottawa Press Gallery and announced the C.S.U. was striking. Then he telephoned C.S.U. representatives at the Canadian ports and ordered them to call all men out. He wired the men he had met at the Paris meeting of the World Federation. He had already appointed his brother, Jack Pope (the family's real name is Popovich), a member of the British C.P., as a walking delegate for the C.S.U. in London. He wired Pope to report the situation to the London dock workers..

What happened from then on is a matter of public rec-

ord. When the CPR ships Beaverbrae and Agramont arrived in London, Pope called the crews out. True to its promise to Davis the dockers' fraction of the British C.P. induced thousands of British dock workers — both Communists and non-Communists — to go on strike as a demonstration against the 'black' ships from Canada. Strikes and disorder flared briefly but violently across half the world.

Davis' star soared. He had called the strike without even going through the empty formality of consulting the union executive or asking for a vote from the members. He had not even waited for an official go-ahead from Salsberg and Buck. This could be an unforgivable offence. In fact it became a triumph when the official journal of the Cominform and Bible of Canadian Communists, 'Democracy and Lasting Peace', applauded the strike as an example of 'international working-class solidarity'. But that strike broke the C.S.U.

Today the C.S.U. stands ruined and repudiated in the eyes of everyone except the party. And even the party knows the C.S.U. is dead. But the party does not mourn its corpses.

Labor has made a start in the fight against Communism. But it's only a start. At the level where it really counts, down in the locals, the party is still strong.

During my last few months as a party member one of my assignments was to get signatures for the Stockholm Peace Petition demanding the banning of the atom bomb. One of the locals I worked on is affiliated with the international railway brotherhoods who spearheaded the fight to kick the Reds out of Labor. This local has more than 150 members but not more than eight card-holding Communists. I called in two of the Communist members, gave them copies of the petition and told them the party wanted 100% response. That's exactly what they got. This remember, was in a union whose top leaders are implacable anti-Communists.

Within that union Communism was receiving direct and powerful aid from many members who are not Communists but who are still listening to their Communist stewards. That's what I mean when I say that labor's ultimate fight against Communism - the fight in the union local is still to be won.

Resolution adopted

by the Stuttgart Congress of the I.T.F. justifying the exclusion of the Canadian Seamen's Union

'This Congress,

'Having considered the refusal of the I.T.F. to show solidarity with the striking Canadian Seamen, and the suspension of the affiliation of the Canadian Seamen's Union by the Executive;

'Takes into account the following facts:

'From April to July 1949, the Canadian Seamen's Union (C.S.U.) conducted a strike when need for recourse to this

final weapon for the defence of the interests of the members, did not exist.. To induce members to come out on strike the Communist leaders of this Organization lied to them. Moreover, they gave out strike instructions which conflict with all tradition of maritime trade union action and also with Canadian law, thus laying the members open to legal proceedings and severe penalties.

'The leaders of the Canadian Seamen's Union called for the

assistance of the I.T.F., but systematically hid the truth about the alleged dispute by deliberately refusing to furnish information which, in accordance with the Rules of the I.T.F., they were under an obligation to provide. Instead of informing the I.T.F., and through it the Organizations whose support was desired, the Communist leaders of the Canadian Seamen's Union, with the active assistance of agents of the Communist Parties, conducted a campaign of lies among the workers in the different ports throughout the world and exploited in a shameless fashion the sentiment of solidarity of the latter. They thus did grave injury to the water-side workers whom they led astray and to the economy of the countries affected.

'On the other hand, the leaders of the Canadian Seamen's Union conferred secretly with the so-called World Federation of Trade Unions and this instrument of the Cominform supported their campaign against the I.T.F. and the Organizations affiliated to it. The leaders of the Canadian Seamen's Union conducted their campaign by means and according to methods which demanded large financial resources, but they left their members on strike in foreign ports to the charity of the sympathising workers.

'The strike was conducted, contrary to all the rules of Trade Union strategy, by methods aiming at dragging uselessly and wickedly, in all parts of the world, the greatest possible number of workers into the dispute.

'Whereas everything points to the fact that the strike of the Canadian Seamen's Union was decided by an outside power of which the leaders of the C.S.U. are the lackeys; This Congress,

'Approves the decision of the Management Committee, the Executive Committee and the General Council to refuse, for the first time in the history of the I.T.F., assistance to an affiliated Organization engaged in a dispute;

'Decides to expel the C.S.U. from the I.T.F. for having harmed the interests of its own members and those of other affiliated Unions;

'Notes with satisfaction that the vast majority of the members of the Canadian Seamen's Union have turned their backs on this Organization so unworthy of their confidence and have re-joined the ranks of a free trade union;

'Invites Transport Workers throughout the world to ponder this example of shameful exploitation of the noble sentiment of working class solidarity for unavowed political ends.'

Road Transport in South America

THE PAN-AMERICAN HIGHWAY CONFEDERATION is now 26 years old and 16,000 miles of route - some 15,000 ft. high — are connected to the Pan-American system, although 2,000 miles of this are impassable in the wet season. Road transport today plays a most important part in the economies of practically every country from the Gulf of Mexico and the Caribbean Sea to Cape Horn.

(Modern Transport)

25,000 times round the world!

LONDON TRANSPORT, despite a decrease in receipts, last year carried 2,000,000 more passengers daily than before the war. Rail and road vehicles operated by London Transport staff in one year cover a distance of more than 25,000 times round the world and the number of passengers carried in the year equals more than twice the population of the world.

Lord Latham,

Chairman of London Transport, in a message to the staff

The Norwegian Whaling Industry

THE NORWEGIANS WERE PIONEERS in modern whaling and first explored the possibilities and perils of Antarctic whaling. As other nations appeared on the seas, Norway's share in the catch gradually declined, but Norwegian expeditions are responsible for half the whale oil ever taken in the Antarctic.

During the war Norway lost eight of her thirteen floating whale factories. The exiled but alert Norwegian Government ordered one early replacement in Great Britain, which was

ready in the autumn of 1945. Following the liberation three more floating whale factories were bought and came into use during the 1947/48 season. In addition, Norway has taken over one of three ex-German whaling combinations.

The efforts of Norwegian whaling to regain its old place in international whaling are most impressive, when one takes into account the enormous cost of building the complicated whaling ships.

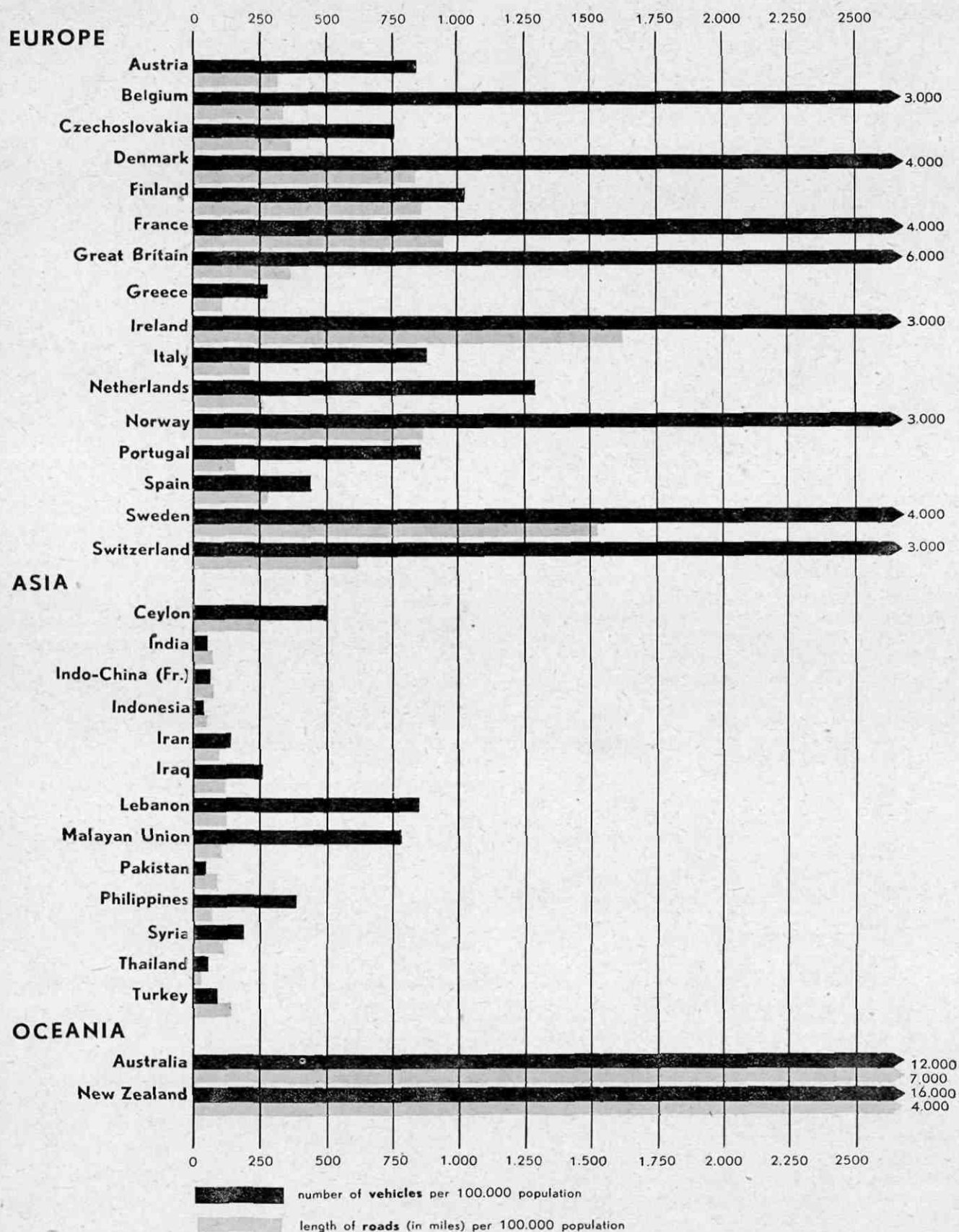
Unlike the Japanese, the Norwegians have always cooperated in whaling agreements designed to protect and preserve the stock of whales, and it was natural that the Norwegian Government should adhere to the international convention for the regulation of whaling concluded at Washington in December 1946. Excessive killing of whales in northern waters destroyed the Arctic whaling industry by the end of the 19th century. In 1937/38 Norwegian Arctic whaling amounted to only 0.6% of the total world catch.

The Norwegian whaling fleet is now nearing its pre-war size. Two new factory ships and eleven catchers were delivered in 1947, and one factory ship and eight catchers are under building. Each factory ship costs £1,500,000 and catchers £100,000 each. It is expected, however, that a post-war season of whaling will produce nearly £12,000,000 in much-needed foreign exchange.

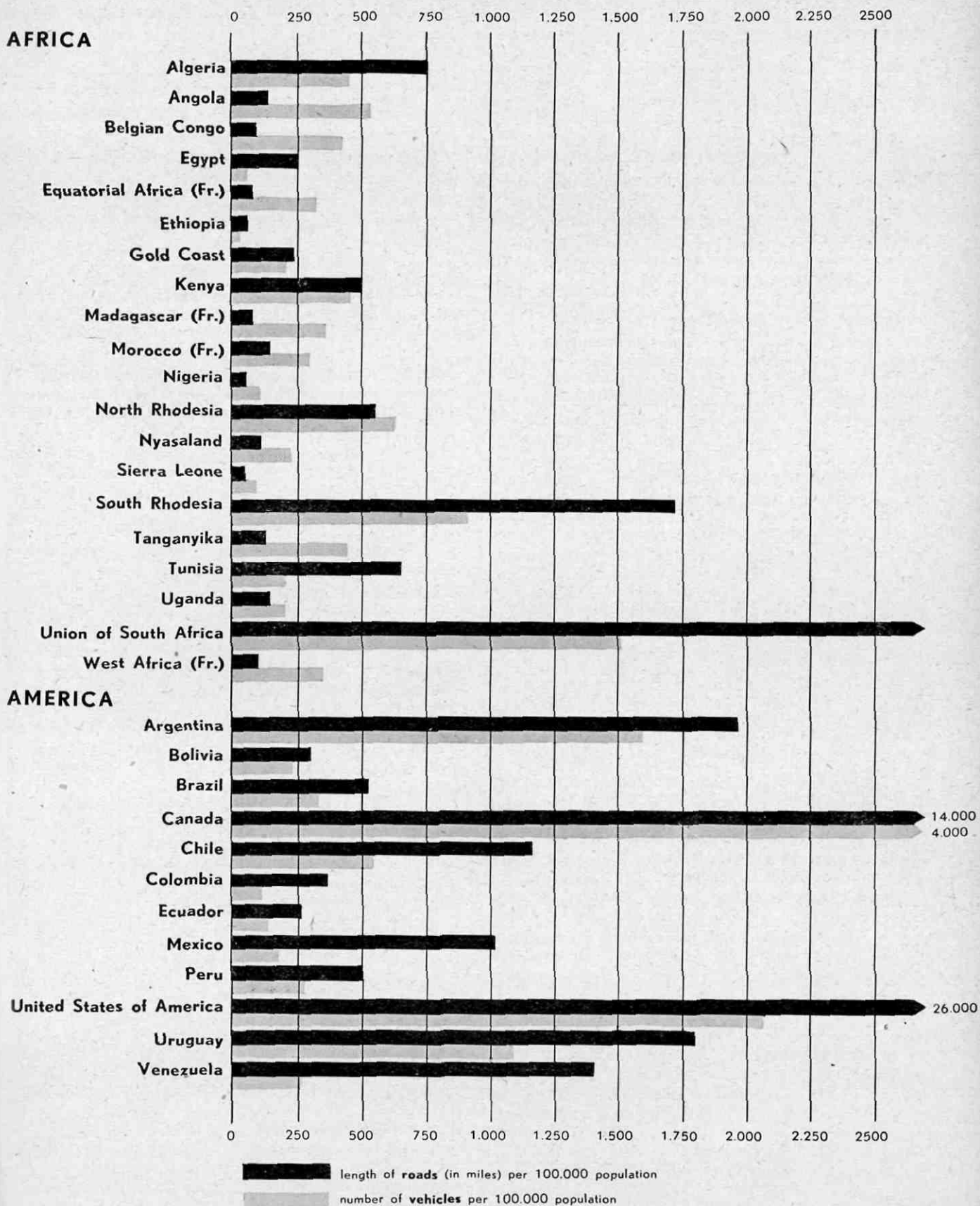
Transport Steel Requirements

SOME RECENT STATISTICS issued by the British Iron and Steel Federation, giving a rough estimate of the amount of steel required for various purposes show that for a ship of 10,000 tons deadweight (riveted) 3000 tons of steel are required, while a mainline locomotive requires 75 tons, a railway carriage 20 tons and a railway wagon 7 tons. A double-decker bus takes 6½ tons, and a ten h.p. car 1 ton.

RATIO OF VEHICLES AND ROADS TO POPULATION 1947



From "World Road Statistics", a new publication issued by the International Road Federation. This highly informative chart, derived from above mentioned publication, is reproduced by kind permission of the International Road Federation, whose co-operation in



this matter we gratefully acknowledge. In addition, this most valuable publication contains essential statistics concerning the world's roads which have never before been available to such a gratifying extent. We propose to reproduce some of this data on a future occasion.

Conditions of employment

On the Trinidad Waterfront

THE SEAMEN'S AND WATERFRONT WORKERS' Trade Union of Trinidad (affiliated with the I.T.F.) has in recent months concluded two more collective agreements and now has five agreements covering a wide range of port workers.

Provisions common to all the agreements deal with the port registration scheme for casual workers, recognition of union delegates, and a joint conciliation procedure, in the final phase of which there is appointed an Arbitration Tribunal under the Trade Disputes Arbitration and Inquiry Ordinance. All five agreements will run for the two-year period 1 August 1950 to 31 July 1952.

Stevedores, coopers, coal trimmers

The basic hourly wage for stevedores and coopers employed by the Shipping Association of Trinidad is 42 cents. This is the rate for the two main shifts (7 to 11 a.m. and 12 to 4 p.m.). Time and a half is paid for work outside these hours, except for work during the four recognized meal hours (11 a.m. to noon, 5 to 6 p.m., 1 to 2 a.m. and 6 to 7 a.m.) for which double time is payable. Time and a half is also payable for work between 12 noon to 4 p.m. on Saturdays. Further time and a half is payable for work on Sundays and seven public holidays and double time on the three religious holidays.

These rates do not include the cost of living bonus provided under an agreement dating back to April 1940, according to which an addition of half a cent an hour shall be made to the wages of stevedores, lightermen and launchmen for every five points rise in the official cost of living index number (base 109, the figure for September 1939). The Trinidad dollar is worth about 4s. 2d.

The normal working day is 7 to 11 a.m. and 12 to 4 p.m. on Monday to Friday and 7 to 11 a.m. on Saturday. A minimum of four hours is guaranteed for work starting between 7 and 11 a.m. or 12 and 4 p.m. Men starting at 11 a.m. are paid for the break hour plus four hours. A minimum of three hours' overtime is guaranteed for work after 6 p.m.

Other provisions lay down minimum periods for which night work rates are payable, extra rates for penalty cargoes (cement in bags, sulphur in bulk, hydrated lime, etc) and deal with matters such as adequate lavatory accommodation and other hygiene measures, medical treatment, safe transport between shore and ship, protective clothing and gear, normal size of gangs (8 men). Analogous conditions are provided for the tally clerks, chief clerks, lightermen and launchmen employed by the Trinidad Shipping Associations.

There is a separate agreement for the stevedores and coal trimmers employed by the Archer Coal Depot Company. Here the basic rate is 54 cents an hour, with time and a half for work outside the main shifts (7 to 11 a.m. and 12 to 4 p.m.) and double time for work during the recognized meal hours. For the rest the conditions provided are analogous to those prescribed above. An additional feature is the provision for a payment of \$15 in lieu of vacation pay to stevedores who have been on the payroll for 12 months. This is a token payment, and in case of steady employment throughout the

year a stevedore gets one week's holiday with pay (56 hours or \$30.24).

Launchmen

The agreement with the Trinidad Pilots and Berthing Masters Association provides for the following conditions of employment:

Weekly wages: captains \$25, engineers \$20, bowmen \$14, plus a lump sum of \$5 for work in excess of the normal working week (seven days of 8 hours). Time and a half for work on the seven public holidays and double time on the three religious holidays. Provision is made for 21 days' sick leave per year and 21 days' annual vacation with full pay.

Launchmen covered by the agreement with the Trinidad Shipping Association have a minimum weekly wage of \$14 for captains and engineers and \$9 for bowmen. Here the normal working week is 7 to 11 a.m. and 12 to 4 p.m. and a half day on Saturday, with overtime at prescribed rates for work outside these hours. Men with not less than twelve months' service are entitled to an annual holiday of twelve working days on full pay.

Crews of vessels operating in territorial waters

The following are the main provisions of the agreement covering this group:

	Per Month	Overtime Rates
Bosun	110.40 \$.66 \$
Able Seaman	96.00	.60
Ordinary Seaman		
Up to 2 years service	60.00	.45
Over 2 years service	72.00	.45
Motorman and pumpman	105.60	.60
Greaser	100.80	.60
Fireman	98.40	.60
Cook		
Up to 25 hands	108.00	.60
Over 25 hands	120.00	.60
Messman/assistant cook	85.00	.60
Messman	81.60	.60

The normal working week is 56 hours at the rate of 8 hours per day, including Saturday afternoons and Sundays. Work in excess of these hours is paid for at the above-mentioned overtime rates. The first eight hours' work on public holidays is paid for as time and a half and double time thereafter.

Provision is made for an annual paid holiday of 14 consecutive days and a total of seven days' sick leave

Port Service Departement

The fifth agreement of the Trinidad Seamen's and Waterfront Workers' Trade Union covers the regular and casual

employees of the Port Services Department. Like the previous agreements it lays down normal working hours, guaranteed pay, extra pay for dangerous and dirty cargoes, size of gangs, port registration, protective clothing and gear, injured workmen and medical treatment, safety precautions, annual and sick leave, recognition of union representatives, disputes procedure.

The normal week for weekly employees is 44 hours and wages range from \$25.19-27.61 for wharf foremen (wage group 1) to \$19.36-21.12 for engineering charge hands (wage group 7). For daily employees wages vary from 53-

61 cents for crane drivers (wage group 8) to 31 cents for labourers, markers and runners in wage group 21. For long-shoremen the rate is 39½ cents per hour. In addition to these rates, a cost of living allowance is payable amounting to 50 cents for the first 94 cents earned per day rising to 74 cents for the part of daily earnings between \$5.10 and \$ 5.29.

Men having worked 250 days during the preceding twelve months are entitled to 14 days annual holiday with full pay.

Men having worked 125 days during the preceding twelve months are entitled to 14 days sick leave.

Stockholm Taxi-Drivers'

Pension Fund

STOCKHOLM WAS THE FIRST, and, until recently, the only Swedish town in which a Taxi-Drivers' Union has succeeded in supplementing the State social insurance scheme by an insurance scheme of its own in which the employers participate. The scheme provides for the payment of retirement pensions, widows, and orphans' pensions and disablement pensions, as well as death benefit. The benefits provided under the scheme are supplemented, in case of need, from a Distress Fund. A Savings Scheme is also operated in conjunction with the scheme as a whole.

In February, 1950, a similar agreement was secured for the Gothenburg taxi-drivers and the conclusion of yet another is pending in Malmö, Sweden's third largest town.

In Stockholm there are four taxi-cab companies, employing a total of 200 drivers and with 81 cabs on the road. Most cabs, however — some 878 in number — belong to small men, owning mostly only one taxi and employing as a rule only two drivers, who take turn and turn about. These small men are themselves usually former taxi-men who continue at this work even when they have bought their cab, till they are too old to do so.

The Pensions Fund began to operate in 1946. At first the number of members was small. The same year the demand was made, in negotiations with the Taxi-Cab Proprietors' Association, that all cab-drivers employed by it should come into the Fund. The Association, which at that time was affiliated to the Swedish Employers' Federation, would not at first — on the advice of the Federation — agree to this. When, however, the Swedish Transport Workers' Union gave the Stockholm Taximen's Union permission to threaten a strike, and, if necessary, to carry it out, the Taxi-Cab Proprietors' Association left the Employers' Federation.

Nothing then stood in the way of an agreement to come into the Pensions Fund. By 1 January, 1947, all their drivers were in the Fund. Membership was 1,500.

The pensions payable are graduated according to age at joining. A member joining the Fund at thirty would, provided contributions had been paid regularly, receive a single payment of 698 kr. at age sixty-five and an annual pension of 1,745 kr.

A married couple, once both had passed sixty-seven and thus become entitled to State old-age pensions, would be in the following position: (see table below).

There is a cost of living bonus of 5 per cent to be added to the State old-age pension that has not been taken account of here. The amount of the State and Municipal Rent Bonuses depends on the remaining income and on the cost of living classification for the area lived in.

On the death of a member who came into the Fund at thirty, Death Benefit to the value of 698 kr. is paid. If death ensues before pension age, the amount which would have been payable on reaching age sixty-five is added to this sum. This raises the total for Death Benefit to 1,396 kr.

Widows' and Orphans' Pensions are calculated on the basis of the Retirement Pension of the deceased. The Allowance is as follows: widow without children under 21, 40 per cent; widow with child under age, 60 per cent of the retirement pension. For each further child under age the allowance increases by 8 per cent.

If the person dying leaves behind no widow but children under age, the orphan's pension in the case of one child is equal to 40 per cent, in the case of two children 60 per cent of the retirement pension. For each additional child under age the allowance increases a further 8 per cent.

Age at Joining	Retirement Pension	State Old-Age Pension	State Rent Supplement Bonus	Municipal Rent Supplement Bonus	Total
25 years of age	2,164 kr.	1,600 kr.	18 kr	218 kr.	4,000 kr.
30	1,745	1,600	227,50	427,50	4,000
35	1,391	1,600	404,50	604,50	4,000
40	1,082	1,600	559	759	4,000

G. B. S. puts the railwaymen's case

THE LATE GEORGE BERNARD SHAW, who was always ready to place his talents at the service of the workers, was a great friend of the British railwayman.

During the railwaymen's strike of 1919, G.B.S., commenting on the reasons for the stoppage in his own inimitable manner, wrote in the now-defunct 'Daily News' of 3 October 1919:

'At midnight on Friday, September 26th 1919, a number of private persons employed on the railways, having accumulated sufficient money to enable them to take a month's holiday, ceased working and went home. Their object was to make the community, which had seriously underrated their labour, realize its value by experiencing the discomfort and loss which its withdrawal would cause.'



The Colombo Plan and transport development

THE REPORT by the Commonwealth Consultative Committee for Co-operative Economic Development in South and South-East Asia (Cmd. 8080) was published on November 28th. The governments represented at the meeting at which the report was prepared were: Australia, Canada, Ceylon, India, New Zealand, Pakistan and the United Kingdom. There were also present delegates from Cambodia, Laos and Viet-Nam and the Ambassadors in London of Burma and Indonesia..

The plan consists of six-year development programmes for India, Pakistan, Ceylon, Malaya, Singapore and North Borneo (including Brunei and Sarawak). The total cost is estimated at £1,868 million and the external finance requires £1,084 million, of which £246 million would come from sterling balances.

The Report points out that the standard of living in the area is extremely low, the average annual income per head

over most of the area, for instance, being £20 as compared with £400 in the United States, and that economies are gravely under-developed. The following table gives some idea of the levels of economic development in the field of transport for the area compared with those reached in the United Kingdom and the United States; (see table below).

The importance assigned to transport development in the plan becomes obvious when an analysis of the individual programmes is made. In the case of India, for instance, the largest percentage of the total amount which it is proposed to spend will go to transport and communications, in the case of Pakistan the second largest, in that of Ceylon the third largest, whilst in the case of the British Territories the figure is again the second largest.

	Units per thousand Population	India	Pakistan	Ceylon	Malaya	U.K.	U.S.
Locomotives	number*	22	16	32	31	410	309
Carrying capacity of railway wagons	tons	10	8.8	4.5	13	276	556
Rail freight	'000 ton-miles	65			32	446	4,568
Load carrying road vehicles	number	0.18	0.17	1.41	3	16	43

* Per million population

Pakistan transport workers shun political ties

THE ATTITUDE of the Pakistan Transport and General Workers' Federation (an I.T.F. affiliate) towards the question of political affiliations was recently made clear by the Federation's Chairman who, speaking at the First Annual General Conference of the All Pakistan Confederation of Labour (APCOL), said:

'The Pakistan Transport and General Workers' Federation has been affiliated to the All Pakistan Confederation of Labour, for the attitude of both has been the same, the main significant fact being that neither APCOL or PTGWF

is dominated by, or is tied to the chariot wheels of, any political party. In other words, labour is left to awaken and develop its own consciousness unhampered and untrammelled by any political programme of doubtful utility or success. The Pakistan Transport and General Workers' Federation has always felt that it was prepared to help any political party that had a beneficial labour programme, but it had refused to act as a Punch and Judy show or to dance like a marionette to the tune of endlessly changing moods of a political body at the cost of its own submergence.'

Trade Union Work in India

THE 1949-50 REPORT of the General Secretary of the Baroda, Bombay and Central India Railway Employees' Union, Bro. G. B. Sukhee, is a modest but appealing document.

The Union has 16 branches with over 150 and up to 2500 members and 15 smaller ones; the total membership being 16,000, 2000 of whom were enrolled between April and October 1950. The receipts from contributions amount to Rs. 30,242 from which it can be deduced that the members pay about 2 rupees (3 shillings) per year. That is too little, but the Union leaders would be content if they could induce the workers concerned to form a large regular dues-paying membership. Other data in the report seem to indicate that from wages amounting from 40 to 60 rupees per month for shunters in big marshalling yards it is hardly possible to deduct a bit more trade union contributions.

The list of matters dealt with during the year contains items that could be found in the report of any railwaymen's union, but some have a specific Indian colour. For instance:

'Reinstatement of Railwaymen :

A number of Railwaymen were arrested in connection with the threatened strike in 1949 sponsored by the Communists. It was with great difficulty that the Union was able to secure the release and the re-instatement of most of such Railwaymen with arrears of pay.

Recoveries of Loan from Sureties :

Due to the partition of the country a number of Muslim staff had opted for Pakistan. Many of these persons had taken loans from this Railway, the recoveries of which were being made from railwaymen who stood sureties for them, involving an amount of about Rs. 4 lacs. On representation to General Manager, further recoveries were immediately stopped and an order to that effect was gazetted on our request.

Harassment of Staff at Gangapur by Rajsthan Police :

In this year a number of cases of harassment, by way of assaults and arrests by Railway Police at Gangapur were reported. This created an atmosphere of fear and a sense of insecurity amongst Railwaymen at Gangapur. The staff were forced to resort to 'TOOL-DOWN' for two hours on 28th April 1950. As a result of representation to the appropriate authorities by the Union and the Administration, a Police Inspector in charge of the station was transferred with his staff and Railway Police were instructed to behave with the Railway staff strictly in accordance with the rules. In the case of Driver Gillispie against whom proceeding are going on in the Jaipur Court, the General Manager has agreed to make arrangements for his defence.

Educational facilities :

It is regretted that instead of giving more educational facilities to the children relatives of Railwaymen, the Administration has not only increased the fees but have decided to close down the middle school at Gangapur and Ratlam. The number of school-going children has increased and they were expecting the opening of high schools. The

Administration has not taken due notice of our representations on this point.'

The reading of the report conveys the impression that relations between the Union and the Railway Administration are fairly good. However, there are difficulties to contend with which originate outside the railways. The main problem of Indian Railwaymen seems to be how to keep body and soul together. There is an instructive extract from the report:

'In the month of October there was a spontaneous and lightning strike in the workshop at Ajmer as a result of the sudden and steep increase in the price of wheat ordered by the local Administration. The workshop remained closed for 5 days and even the running of trains was affected for more than a day. The local Administration had provoked the strike and yet they replied to it by a charge and a tear gas attack and the wholesale arrests of all the active workers of the Ajmer branch. Immediately on receipt of information the Head Office sent Jagdish Ajmera for on the spot inquiries. On his return to Bombay the President, Jagdish Ajmera and the General Secretary had an interview with the General Manager as a result of which most of the workers' grievances were satisfactorily redressed. The three then proceeded to Ajmer and the strike was called off and all the arrested persons were released. The strike was a spontaneous demonstration of workers against the highhanded action of the local Government. By their solidarity and strength they have succeeded in securing a lowering of the increased price of wheat.

The incident in Ajmer brings to my mind the grave problem that has been created for all Railway workers by the steep rise in prices of all essential commodities. The Government had given an undertaking when the last increase in dearness allowance was sanctioned that they would not allow the prices to rise and would take all measures to bring them down appreciably. That undertaking has not been honoured. There has been a large increase in prices causing untold miseries to Railway workers and their dependents. This has made it obligatory upon the Union to develop a powerful movement for an adequate increase in dearness allowance.'

Lathi charges, tear gas and arrests as a remedy against increases in the cost of living. It's a telling illustration of the opening paragraph of the report which reads as follows:

'It is very difficult to give a complete picture of the humiliating conditions of the working class in India where any struggle for the betterment of their service conditions is being viewed as unpatriotic by the present rulers and where due to unplanned and pro-capitalist economic policy of the Government resulting in high prices and lowered standards the lot of toiling millions is getting worse and worse. In addition to this the Government are determined, against the organized opposition of all free trade unions, to pass the two anti-labour Bills, the Black Bills. If these Bills are passed, it will sound the death knell of the Free Trade Union Movement in this country.'

Any struggle for betterment viewed as unpatriotic! If we are rightly informed, the Indian rulers are worried by

the Communist menace. Assuming that Brother G.B. Sukhee tells the truth - and we have every reason to believe he does - then these same rulers are preparing a rude awakening for themselves. If they brand the struggle for justice as unpatriotic and treat the fighters for justice with hostility,

then the toiling masses will be driven to believe that the Communists are after all, their defenders. Lathi charges, tear gas and arrests will not help the Indian workers to detect the lie in Soviet propaganda!

P. T.

Medical and first-aid attention for Merseyside dockers

UNDER THE AUSPICES of the British Ministry of War Transport, the Liverpool and Birkenhead Docks were, during the war, supplied with five medical centres whose administration has been passed across to the local board. The number of attendances, mainly for dressing and redressing injuries received by dockers at work, now runs to about 90,000 a year and steps are being taken to increase the number of centres, so that dockers who may have a minor accident will be within easy reach of one of them no matter where their job in the docks may be. Each centre is fully equipped with a surgery and surgical appliances for dealing with everything except major accidents which must go to hospital.

An experienced nursing sister is in charge of each, with junior nurses under her. In charge of the whole system is a doctor who is a specialist in the field of industrial accidents. A very large proportion of the cases handled are finger injuries, which the inexperienced docker is liable to treat rather lightly, but which can give infinite trouble if they are not dressed immediately. The dockers themselves are very appreciative of the services rendered, as are the crews of visiting ships who also benefit from them.

At the moment, and owing to increased port activities, there are 18,500 dockers employed on Merseyside. This represents the largest labour force so far employed.

The Norwegian Fishing Industry

THE NORWEGIAN salt water fishing industry is one of the largest in the world. Today the Norwegian industry is probably exceeded in size only by that of the United States. In fish exports Norway is in the first position; about 90% of Norwegian fish production is sent overseas amounting to $\frac{1}{4}$ of the total exports of goods. Over 100,000 men are employed, of whom only about a third make fishing their sole livelihood. The typical Norwegian fisherman combines his fishing with other convenient occupations such as farming and forestry. Most Norwegian fishing takes place off the long coast line, although some is also done off Greenland and on the banks of Iceland and Svalbard (Spitsbergen). The cod fisheries are to the north and the herring fisheries mainly in the south below Trondheim. Besides these main catches, halibut, haddock, flounders, sardines and mackerel are also taken. A limited amount of coastal whaling is done, but this is nothing in comparison with the great Norwegian whaling activity in the Antarctic.

The Norwegian fishing industry operates no less than 80 thousand fishing boats. Of these the greater part are small craft, many not equipped with mechanical means of propulsion; only about 1600 are sea-going vessels. This use of small boats is peculiar to Norwegian-fishing, being

bound up with the individualistic, small man, part-time nature of the industry. For that reason, trawling is regarded with suspicion by the average Norwegian fisherman; it is regulated by law and only about a dozen vessels have been issued with trawling licences. The organized fishermen hold that trawling, if and when it is introduced, must be under cooperative control and must come gradually, as alternative employment becomes available for the fishermen who are displaced. Under these circumstances the introduction of trawling is likely to depend largely on the progress made with industrial development, based on electric power and the exploitation of minerals, in northern and western Norway.

South American Road-technique

ON THE PAN-AMERICAN HIGHWAY in recent years some notable engineering projects have been carried out. For example, El Salvador in 1942 completed across the Lempa River a suspension bridge of 1,305 ft. total length with a central span of 820 ft. Another bridge in the same country is a 481 ft. three-span continuous deck truss structure spanning the Goascaran River and connecting El Salvador with Honduras; this structure was built in 1943 by an American company.

(Modern Transport)

Irish Road-Rail Experiment

AN INTERESTING EXPERIMENT was inaugurated on 27 November, 1950 when Coras Iompair Eireann (the nationalized Irish transport concern) began to operate road services in addition to the railway service between Claremorris and Ballinrobe, a distance of twelve miles.

During an experimental period of six months, the public is being invited to select either road or rail on the basis solely of suitability for needs. This area has been selected because Claremorris, an important railhead for the surrounding district, is typical of many other railhead stations on the C.I.E. It is hoped that the experiment will produce facts having a bearing on the general question of the economic working of branch lines.

Railway Electrification Economics

THE MOST ECONOMIC SYSTEM for an electrification may be estimated approximately from the traffic density, or — in electrical terms — the linear density of annual energy consumption. Detailed calculations covering capital costs and annual operating costs are required before making a final decision.

S.A. Vince, A.M.I.E.E. in the
Railway Gazette (London)

Peron's 'justicialismo' rejected

Argentine railwayman resort to strike action

In its Press Report No 1 of 1 January 1951, the ITF published an account of the above-mentioned strike based on information obtained from various reliable sources. In so doing, we were satisfied that, on this occasion as on others, the transport workers of the Argentine, who, through their one-time free trade unions, were formerly convinced members of the rank and file of the ITF, had

IN 1943, ON THE INITIATIVE of the then Colonel Perón - the man who, behind the scenes, was directing the military revolutionary movement -, so-called 'interventors' or Government administrators were put in charge of the two big Argentine railwaymen's organizations, *La Fraternidad* (the Locomotivemen's Fraternity) and the *Unión Ferroviaria* (Railway Union), organizing the remainder of the railwaymen. The first of these was a naval man, Captain Puyol, who was later replaced by the then Lieutenant Colonel Mercante, who is now a Colonel and Governor of the Province of Buenos Aires.

After a lapse of time the management of the two unions was ostensibly restored to the railwaymen, but the Government nevertheless saw to it that among those elected to positions of responsibility were men in its pay, who obeyed its orders and disregarded the legitimate claims of the workers whom they were supposed to represent.

In 1947, the railwaymen, tired of promises which were never honoured, struck work for three days. Although the Executive Committee of the Railway Union opposed it, the strike was a success. Upset by the failure of his henchmen on the Executive, General Perón engineered the dismissal of three of its members - Girola, Luna and Solito. Faithful to totalitarian practice, however, they were officially reported as having 'resigned'. Following this purge, Pablo C. López and others whose harmful activities are described below, became members of the Union Executive.

The strike of November 1950

Towards the end of October 1950, the workers belonging to the Tafi Viejo (Province of Tucuman) branch of the Union called a number of strikes in protest against certain deductions from their wages. Well aware that discontent among the railwaymen was growing, the Government decided to concede their demands, hoping at the same time that the Executive Committee of the Railway Union would be able to prevent any further strikes. On 16 November, however, the porters and crossing keepers on the General Roca Railway called partial stoppages in order to express dissatisfaction with the fact that they had not received any increases to meet the high cost of living. On the same day, the Executive Committee of the Railway Union denounced the strikes, declaring that they had been started by persons opposed to 'Peronist justicialismo' - the alleged basis of the present régime in Argentina.

The strikers refused to give ground, and on 20 November they were joined by the guards. By the morning of the 21st the stoppage was complete, but the Railway Union con-

not allowed themselves to become complacent victims of the dictatorship prevailing in their country. The following story of the railwaymen's strike shows how the Perón régime is trying desperately, by hook or by crook, to 'manage' the workers whose interests it pretends to serve. As yet the story has no end, and this is fittingly symbolic of the position of the Perón régime itself.

tinued to repudiate it. On the morning of the 23rd porters, crossing keepers, signalmen and guards on the Mitre, Sarmiento and San Martín Railways also came out on strike. This meant that all main lines of communication within the country were blocked. On the previous day the Railway Union had begun to close union offices in order to prevent the workers from meeting. This was done even in the case of the Buenos Aires branch. At the same time, the Union issued a communiqué claiming 'that elements of the Democratic Party (an opposition political body) and Bradenists (Braden was a former US Ambassador to the Argentine who is accused of having plotted against Perón) opposed to "justicialismo" have provoked this movement for what are obviously political purposes; that these elements have already been identified, and the Executive Committee and the public authorities have already taken such steps as the circumstances warrant to secure a rapid return to normal of railway services.' Nevertheless, the dictatorial régime was beginning to realize that matters were serious, and it therefore decided on a trick to undermine the strike. After the Minister of Transport had issued a threat to dismiss any man who did not return to work, the Government agreed in principle to give consideration to the workers' demands as presented by an Emergency Committee not recognized by the Executive of the Railway Union. In view of this promise it was decided, on the afternoon of 23 November, to return to work. At the same time, it was agreed to call for the resignation of the members of the Executive Committee of the Union. One of the points of the agreement was the re-instatement of all men dismissed and the release of those who had been arrested.

Perón gains time

In this way, the Government had gained time, and it proceeded to let the matter drag along. On 27 November, General Perón and his wife received the Executive Committee of the Railway Union, accompanied by representatives of the General Confederation of Labour, for the purpose - as the official communiqué issued afterwards put it - 'of confirming once more its complete support of the President of the Republic'. It was then 4.45 p.m., and at 7 o'clock the same evening, on the occasion of a celebration of the seventh anniversary of the establishment of the Ministry of Labour and Welfare, Perón said: 'They will try to bring their Trojan horses in to say, as was said only a few days ago, that the Executive Committee of the Railway Union is betraying Perón. However clever that statement may be, it will not deceive the workers, for I declare publicly that

the members of that Executive Committee are some of the staunchest Peronists who exist today.'

Seizure and closure of offices

By 30 November nothing had yet been done about the workers' demands, and the Emergency Consultative Committee - which was acting in complete independence of the Railway Union Executive Committee - was obliged to ask the workers to give them a few more days in which to try to reach an agreement. In the meantime, the ultra-Peronist members of the Executive Committees of the Railway Union and the General Confederation of Labour attended an official lunch which served as an opportunity to vilify the 'rebels' and their activities.

On 1 December, the Emergency Committee announced that 'the members of the Executive Committee of the Railway Union, José Lebonato and Ignacio Rosendo, accompanied by their paid assistant Juan Ruiz, attacked and dismantled the premises of Kiletre 5 branch, at 1583 de Pinedo Street, Gerli.' On the 2nd, the same Committee announced that people from the Railway Union had closed the workers' premises in Quilmes.

Eva Perón arbitrates

On 5 December, the Railway Union announced that it had decided to submit the dispute to arbitration by Mrs. Eva Perón, and on the 6th the Secretariat of Information of the President of the Republic took it upon itself to draft and issue a communiqué in the name of the Railway Union, which read: 'The wife of the First Magistrate (President), Mrs. Eva Perón, and the Minister of Transport, Colonel Juan F. Castro, received the members of the Bureau of the Railway Union late this afternoon in one of the offices at Government House. A solution of the problem of the porters and crossing keepers was arrived at by reducing to ten years the period required to reach their maximum.'

On the 7th, the Railway Union seized the premises of the Olavarría branch, on the grounds that its members had taken part in the strike.

On the 8th, the railwaymen met at the offices of the Burzaco branch. They called for the resignation of the Executive Committee of the Railway Union and declared their support for the action taken by the Emergency Committee. On the following day, the Emergency Committee announced that the new scale of wages was no solution to the problems raised, and stated that up to then the authorities had observed none of the provisions of the agreement which had ended the strike. It gave the Government 72 hours in which to satisfy the railwaymen's demands. On the 12th December a big meeting was held by the Haedo branch to consider a circular issued by the Railway Union. The terms of the circular were rejected. Meanwhile, General Perón's police had arrested 26 railwaymen at a single meeting. Their comrades only heard of the arrests, through the Press, three days after the events.

The December strike

Early in the morning of the 13th, after the period of 72 hours given to the Government had expired, work was stopped on all railways because the wage increases asked for had not been obtained. 'The exclusively economic and trade union character of this movement, headed by the

porters and spontaneously supported by the rest of the railwaymen', was confirmed. On the same day, the Railway Union, following orders issued by the President, again repudiated the strike, and called upon railwaymen to listen to a speech to be made by the Minister of Transport. At this point talebearers within the organization informed the Government that a strike was brewing in the Tramwaymen's and Busmen's Union because their request for improvements had not been heeded. The Secretariat of Information of the President of the Republic thereupon issued an announcement, supposedly emanating from the Tramwaymen's Union and the General Confederation of Labour, to the effect that a favourable decision in respect of improvements had been reached 'through the mediation of Mrs. Eva Perón with the President of the Republic.' This was a clever move designed to avoid further complications.

Dismissals and further arrests

The strike continued on the 15th and 16th, during which time the Locomotivemen's Fraternity offered to mediate. The Minister of Transport decided to dismiss all those who did not resume work by midnight on the 15th. The Executive Committee of the Railway Union was obliged to resign, but the police arrested more workers, among them Escalante Roberto Rosaqui and Antonio Santos of the Victoria, Toluca and Buenos Aires Roca branches.

The Government yields conditionally

Early on the morning of the 17th, the Emergency Consultative Committee announced that it was continuing its efforts. Later, it called a meeting for mid-day at which it was announced that the Government had yielded. The Perón Government, however, is very clever at wriggling its way out of embarrassing situations. It put out a statement - very patently a lie - to the effect that 'what is clearly evident is the patriotic spirit of conciliation on the part of the officials who have dealt with the matter and their favourable disposition within the framework of General Perón's social justice, a disposition which was brought to nought by the intrigues and machinations of the Executive Committee of the Railway Union.' So that, exactly twenty days after General Perón's public declaration that the members of the Executive Committee of the Railway Union were among the staunchest Peronists alive, those same Executive members were, by an adroit movement of the helm, thrown overboard and accused of intrigue.

Another turn of the helm

On 18 December, railway services were returning to normal. In the meantime, the retiring Executive Committee had wired to those delegates who had attended the last annual congress, calling them to an extraordinary congress to be held on Thursday the 21st. The Emergency Consultative Committee had also held several meetings and had taken steps to organize a rally, at 4 p.m. on the same day, in front of the offices of the Railway Union in order 'to recover for the railwaymen the headquarters of their organization and to accept the resignation of the Executive Committee in the event that it has not yet been handed in.'

On the 19th the radio broadcast a message from the Director of Labour and Direct Social Action of the Ministry of Labour 'calling the representatives of the Ministry

of Labour and the General Confederation of Labour, the latter in representation of the railwaymen, to a meeting at his office at 5 pm on the same day, in order to initiate measures tending to resolve the problem of the railwaymen.' Later, the same official issued a new statement, postponing the meeting until the 20th.

As for the leaders of the Railway Union, they issued the following statement to the press: 'The Railway Union informs the railwaymen and public opinion in general that enemies of the country, assisted by detractors of "justicialism" and agents of the former Democratic Union who have been egged on by certain higher railway officials, are attempting to trick the railwaymen into coming to the headquarters of the Union at 2880 Independencia Street, at 2 pm on Thursday the 21st, and there induce them to commit an abominable act which, should it actually be committed, would lay them open to the inevitable penal consequences. No Peronist railwaymen should lend himself to such low-down action. Railwaymen should remember that while we must all be the artificers of our common destiny, no-one should allow himself to become the instrument of someone else's ambitions.' In another document the same leaders 'declare publicly that the recent railway conflict was instigated and led by high officials of the Ministry of Transport who, with the open collaboration of the greater part of the higher officials on the railways, encouraged the stoppage of railway services. This with the main purpose of destroying the Railway Union, obviously with intent to serve interests which are foreign to the mass of the workers and contrary to the "justicialist" principles of Peronism.'

More arrests and interventions

On the same day, the 19th, in the city of San Martin, the police prevented a meeting of strikers from taking place, and arrested 25 railwaymen. In the morning, General Perón, speaking to the clerical workers, had said: 'Recently the railwaymen declared a very unjust strike. I was advised to put them in prison, but I said: "No, they will manage things

for themselves - I am not going to send the police. We will not put anybody in prison; they will fix things up themselves. They will discuss their grievances, will come to an agreement and will then return to work.'

On the following day, the General Confederation of Labour put administrators in charge of the Railway Union, and the Minister of Labour and Welfare decided to investigate personally the workers' demands to which the Government had previously agreed. He summoned the administrators of the Union and officials of the Ministry of Transport to a meeting. So far nothing of what happened there has leaked out.

The Secretariat of Information of the President of the Republic has now issued a communiqué, ostensibly from the General Confederation of Labour, denouncing the above-mentioned rally which the Emergency Consultative Committee has arranged for today (the 21st).

Resignation of the Minister

In the meantime it has been learned that the Minister of Transport, Colonel Castro, had handed in his resignation. It is also learned that Pablo C. López and Antonio Taccone of the Railway Union have resigned from their positions as Vice-President and member, respectively, of the Board of Directors of the Railways.

Once more the police

Today (the 21st), at the appointed time, groups of workers began to concentrate in front of the Union headquarters in Independencia Street in response to the call made by the Emergency Consultative Committee. The latter had requested that only men who were not on duty should attend, so as to avoid upsetting traffic. There was an enormous display of police force, and tear gas equipment had been conveniently placed. When the workers advanced the police attacked with truncheons and made use of the tear gas. Many were injured and there were some arrests. At the time of going to press the police are clearing the streets in the neighbourhood of the Railway Union offices.

ERP assistance for Congo road plan

THE RAPID ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT of the Belgian Congo has not gone hand-in-hand with the equally rapid development of a network of roads, and a point has now been reached where the lack of modern highways constitutes an obstacle to further economic expansion.

The Congo possesses large navigable rivers which facilitate cheap transport over long distances. The main task of the Congo railways, therefore, is to act as connections between these rivers.

There is, however, as has already been stated, an urgent need for a good network of roads to meet the requirements of modern road transport facilities. As part of the Ten Year Plan for the Belgian Congo it is proposed to construct five main highways, which will traverse the colony and be served by 'feeder' roads.

These are:

Costermansstad - Stanleystad, 668 km.; Matadi - Costermansstad 3,000 km; Libenge - Lisala, 524 km; Malonga-Stanleystad, 1,979 km; Elisabethstad - Aba, 2,292 km.

With the help of an allocation of \$ 1,768,000 in Marshall Aid, a start is now being made with the implementation of the plan and it is expected that work on the construction of the road linking Costermansstad with Stanleystad will shortly be commenced.

This highway will connect the Eastern Congo with the Atlantic Ocean. At the moment, the Eastern provinces are cut off from the West and the import and export of goods is only possible by making use of non-Congo ports with access to the Indian Ocean. A further link between the Eastern Congo and the West will be effected by the construction of a railway line from Kabalo to Kamina.

Inscrutable ways of international capital

IT IS REPORTED FROM ROME that Italians are asking how it comes about that the tiny independent republic of San Marino - total area 25 square miles and with a population slightly exceeding 12,000 - happens to be the headquarters of 87 international companies. Six of the latter are stated to be steamship lines, although San Marino has not a single inch of coast which it can call its own.

A communist Putsch foiled

Austrian railwaymen won't play the Russian game

ON 26 AND 27 SEPTEMBER 1950 the Austrian Communists launched a general strike. Beginning in the Russian Zone and Vienna, where it had little success, the strike spread to a number of large industrial establishments in the Western Zones. Here it had a substantial initial success, mainly owing to the reluctance of Austrian workers to counter Communist terror and violence with force.

In the Russian Zone, the Austrian Government could do nothing to resist the Communists, whilst in the Western Zones it proceeded with extreme caution in order to avoid bloodshed. In Vienna heavy clashes occurred after Communist demonstrators had made an attack on the police.

The Austrian trade unions dealt with the situation so rapidly and effectively that on 27 September the general strike collapsed. The Communists thereupon ordered a resumption of work. They then organized 'conferences' and later issued an ultimatum due to expire at midnight on 3 October. This latter was disregarded by the Government and with its expiry the strike was due to be resumed on 4 October. However, by the afternoon of that day it was obvious that the action was a failure. As a result, the Communists again resorted to violence, but this time on a larger scale and in a more systematic manner than had been the case during the previous week.

Railway installations were sabotaged, road traffic was blocked, and attempts to seize public buildings were made (in one case a telegraph office was actually occupied). In addition, attempts were made to drive the workers out of the factories and brawls broke out wherever they remained at their posts defiance of the Communists.

The reaction of the Austrian population to the Communist mob action was unanimous and intense. It led to the spontaneous formation of anti-sabotage squads which quickly undid the work of the Communists. When the Austrian Trade Union Federation appealed to its members to meet force with force, the defeat of the Communists was a foregone conclusion.

The following account, furnished by the Austrian Railwaymen's Union, tells of the part taken by the railwaymen of Austria in the struggle:

The subversive plan of the Communists, which aims to secure power over the Austrian state through the trade unions, will have become clear even to the politically inexperienced as a result of the abortive putsch of October last. For years the Austrian Communists have been attacking in their press the Socialist leaders of the trade unions, and trying with the vilest slander and distortions to turn members against them. To sow mistrust of these leaders has long been the main object of Communist propaganda.

What was the purpose of this uninterrupted harrying? That is a question to which the events of last October have given an unambiguous reply. The Communists hoped to make the members of the unions distrust the leaders they had elected, or at least to make them indifferent, so that at the earliest opportunity - and that is not so difficult with Austrian economic affairs in their present state - they could create an atmosphere of panic.

The opportunity came when the farmers demanded the adjustment of the price of wheat in Austria to the level in the world market; and further cancellation of the regulations under which they were paying for food grains for cattle, most of which imported, more than they received for their ordinary grain. There was also a serious danger that grain producers might use their grain as fodder, for the purpose of saving money. It was therefore found necessary to adjust prices by means of what is known as the Fourth Wage and Price Agreement.

It was unfortunately necessary to take this step suddenly, to avoid uncontrolled price fluctuations, and the workers were therefore too little informed about the probable consequences of the new agreement, and the inevitable rise in prices naturally caused a good deal of discontent.

The Communists exploited this circumstance to the utmost and launched a savage campaign against the 'secret bargainers' among the higher trade union leaders, in the hope of causing panic and inciting the workers to ill-considered steps and the setting up of a 'People's Democracy' in Austria. But they had reckoned without their hosts: the Austrian workers saw through the plan and held true to the Socialist leaders of the trade unions.

The tactics followed by the Communists during the putsch were very revealing. They forced the workers in the Soviet-owned undertakings, both men and women, to block the railway lines at key points. Women, often accompanied by their children, sat on the line and stopped for some time the running of the trains. The wireless stations in the Russian Zone thereupon announced that the railwaymen had joined the strike, though not even the Communist railwaymen - who are very few in number any way - had stopped work. At the few places where railway traffic was stopped for an hour or two, this was not done by the railwaymen but by the people from outside the railways. It is characteristic that these stoppages occurred only in the districts occupied by the Russian forces, and in no case where the workers were free to determine their own attitude toward the strike. It is also noteworthy that train movements for the Russian occupying power were never hindered. As soon as a Russian train came along the 'strikers' immediately removed the obstacles, left the track and let the train through, only to re-establish the barrier as soon as it had passed.

Although the railwaymen were well aware of the risks they ran in view of the fact that the Communists were protected by an occupying power, they did not hesitate to expose themselves to resist the Communist endeavours. As a result there were many clashes, and several railwaymen were injured, but the Communists were forced out of railway shops and stations and after short interruptions, traffic was restored in many places.

While the Communists were carrying out their endeavours to block the railway lines, groups of Communist Party members were going round from place to place spreading the report that the Austrian railwaymen were wholly supporting the strike. Some of these groups made their way

into the factories and forced the workers, by the utmost violence where necessary, to abandon their work, where-upon the wireless stations in the Russian Zone promptly announced that the workers in the factories concerned had also joined the strike, while railwaymen in out of the way stations and shops were informed that the workers in practically all factories in Austria were on strike. Similar lies were broadcast from the very beginning of the 'strike' until the very end.

The plan, which failed because of the watchfulness of the Austrian workers, seems to have consisted of four main points: 1. Incitement against the Socialist leaders of the trade unions, as a preparatory measure; 2. Creation of a state of panic by stopping railway traffic, thus interrupting communications between factories, etc., and preventing the distribution of newspapers; 3. Spreading of false reports through the wireless stations in the Russian Zone and through armed groups who forced their way into the factories; 4. Prevention of action by the regular police forces, resulting from direct prohibition by the Russians.

The key point in this plan was the stoppage of communications, particularly by railway. Had the Communists succeeded in bending the railwaymen to their will, stopping railway traffic completely, it is probable that their putsch would have succeeded. But they failed to stop it completely even on secondary lines in Russian-occupied Lower Austria. The first check to the putsch came when it was obvious to the workers, in spite of the statements of the Communist

propaganda groups that the railwaymen were on strike, that trains were actually running, even though they might be delayed. Practically all newspapers reached their destination in all parts of the country with very little delay, and food supplies were maintained without difficulty. This meant, of course, that many of the railwaymen were unable to take their clothes off for days, as they were aware that the railways were the key to the situation and were keen to keep a watchful eye on them. Their exemplary conduct prevented the development of any feeling of panic, and workers were able to go to their places of work to protect the industries. This would not have been possible if railway traffic and the distribution of newspapers and food supplies had been interrupted.

In the circumstances it will be understood that the railwaymen have been in the Communists' bad books ever since. This, however, does not worry the railwaymen, who are proud of what they did during a most difficult period for the second Austrian Republic. They are strengthened in this feeling by the knowledge that they have acted in the interests of the internationally organized workers, and that they could count throughout on the approval of the ITF, the International of the class-conscious railwaymen. Communist attacks are following an international plan, and it is the duty of every national group of organized workers to put forward all their efforts to prevent the threatening general enslavement of the working class the world over by a totalitarian dictatorship.

ECA strives for economic integration of Europe

THE NOVEMBER ISSUE of the ECA Labour News Letter 'Transatlantic' contains the following statement of ECA, policy regarding the economic unification of Europe:

'ECA is working towards the creation of a single, dynamic, expanding economy in Western Europe within a larger North Atlantic framework. ECA wants to replace Europe's present division of 18 jealously independent, sovereign nation-states by a modern economy that will permit mass production and mass marketing. That is the principal purpose of the Organization for European Economic Co-operation.'

The role of transport in raising asian economic standards

ADDRESSING THE AD HOC COMMITTEE of Experts on Inland Transport of the Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East, which met at Bangkok from 24 October to 4 November, the chairman, Dr Abdul Kader, said:

'Most of the countries¹ represented here have regained

their independence within the last few years. It is a gigantic task for those countries not only to change their economies from colonial to national ones, but also to devise measures in the context of world affairs in order to enable us to keep pace with other countries. Our primary duty is to raise the economic standards of this part of the globe and it is a truism that these can never be raised unless the means of transport and communications of all types are so established and brought up-to-date as to ensure the agricultural, social and industrial development of these areas. Fortunately for us we can achieve these aims not only by our sole endeavour but also with the co-operation, good will and the technical and financial assistance of the United Nations.'

ITF affiliated union demands establishment of German Transport Council

IN A STATEMENT OF POLICY addressed to the Federal Minister of Transport, Adolf Kummernuss, President of the German Transport and Public Service Worker' Union (an ITF affiliate), has demanded the immediate establishment of a German Transport Council. The statement points out that it is now high time that an end be put to the chaotic conditions in the field of transport and that the aim of the proposed Transport Council would be that of effectively co-ordinating the various existing means of transport.

1. Australia, Burma, Cambodia, France, India, Indonesia, Laos, Malaya and British Borneo, the Netherlands, the Philippines, Thailand, UK, USA, and Viet-Nam.



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ITF meetings in January

Maritime House was the scene of five international conferences between 15 and 31 January

1 and 2 - Session of the ITF's *Seafarers' Section* in the Board Room of the National Union of Seamen on 18 and 19 January - Chairman Mr T. Yates

3 Session of the ITF's *Dockers' Sectional Committee* on 16 and 17 January - Chairman Mr R. Dekeyzer.

4 Session of the *Boycott Committee* dealing with sub-standard Panamanian flagships, on 15 January - Chairman Mr T. Yates

5 This fine building, *Maritime House*, belonging to the National Union of Seamen, also houses the ITF headquarters

Apart from the above-mentioned meetings a conference of the *Civil Aviation Section Committee* (Flying Staff) took place on 23 January, and a meeting of the ITF's *Executive Committee* on 29 - 31 January

The Joint Maritime Commission of the ILO

Its origins, procedure and work

The article below, reproduced from the ILO 'International Labour Review', comes at an opportune time. Containing a clear and detailed picture of the achievements of the JMC during the thirty years of its existence, and of the circumstances which led to its constitution, the article will no doubt be especially welcomed by those who are directly or indirectly interested in the work and the activities of this body.

The question which arises for us is whether, from the seafarers' point of view, the results of the JMC have been satisfactory and whether it has answered its purpose.

By the uninitiated, by those who are not sufficiently familiar with the work of international bodies and the innumerable difficulties they have to contend with, the question would no doubt be approached in a critical vein at the slowness with which the different problems have been dealt.

The more initiated, though they will form their opinion in a more objective manner, will no doubt also feel that there are grounds for disappointment and further conclude that the JMC has only partly satisfied their expectations.

This is particularly the case if the record of the JMC is judged in terms of concrete and positive results, and if

one recalls the numerous occasions when the two sides on the Joint Maritime Commission have failed to reach agreement on important problems.

It must not be overlooked that maritime problems are very different from those of workers in general, and that they are highly technical in character. It is for this reason that the practice of holding special maritime sessions of the International Labour Conference has been adopted. It is indeed difficult to see how practical results could be expected if decisions on maritime matters rested with general labour conferences overwhelmingly representative of non-maritime countries and interests. The same logic led to the constitution of the JMC.

In this respect the seafarers are in full sympathy with the existing arrangements. In their opinion it is imperative that for an industry so technical as maritime shipping, specialized machinery such as the special maritime labour conferences and the Joint Maritime Commission exist. Hence they regard it as an instrument the value of which cannot be overestimated and a platform from which their interests can be represented with ultimate success.

OMER BECU

The International Labour Organisation celebrated its thirtieth anniversary in 1949; now, in 1950, its oldest industrial committee—the Joint Maritime Commission—has been in existence for a like period of time. The Commission has the distinction of being the only bipartite body in an otherwise tripartite organisation doubtless because it was set up on the model of the bipartite negotiating bodies which already existed in

the shipping industries of certain countries before the Organisation came into being. In a sense, the maritime work of the Organisation has always formed a special field of activity, in which the Commission has played an important part. It has therefore been considered of interest to review the work and achievements of this body against the background of the maritime activities of the Organisation as a whole.

IN HIS WELCOMING ADDRESS to the Thirteenth Session of the Joint Maritime Commission, held in London in January 1945, the Rt Hon. Ernest Bevin (then Minister of Labour and National Service of the United Kingdom) said:

'Shipping has always been one of the most international of all industries. It has been one of the vital means of surmounting the barriers which keep the nations apart. The more the shipping industry can do to bridge the gap which separates the nations, the more hope there will be for the future of the world. In view of the eminently international character of the industry, it was natural that the International Labour Organisation should set up a Joint Commission in that industry. The success which has always attended its work has drawn attention to the desirability of similar joint bodies being set up in other industries'.¹

The establishment of the Commission dates back, in fact, to the Third Session of the Governing Body of the International Labour Office, in March 1920, when it decided that—

A joint commission of twelve members should be appointed, consisting of five shipowners and five seamen chosen by the Genoa Conference (the second International Labour Conference, and the first such conference devoted entirely to maritime questions) and two members chosen by the Go-

verning Body. This commission will assist the technical maritime service of the Labour Office and will be consulted on questions of maritime labour. It will meet when convoked by the Chairman of the Governing Body, who will preside at its deliberations.

During its thirty years of existence, the Commission has held a total of fifteen sessions. Despite a provision in its original standing orders that it should 'in principle' meet in Geneva, only five sessions have held there: the First (November 1920), Seventh (January 1927), Eight (March 1928), Fourteenth (December 1947) and Fifteenth (November 1948). A short meeting also took place at Geneva in November 1935, in conference to consider revision of the Minimum Age at Sea Convention (No 7). The French Ministries of Labour and of the Mercantile Marine were hosts in Paris to the Second (March 1922), Fifth (April 1925), Sixth (May 1926), Ninth (April 1929), Tenth (December 1933) and Eleventh (March 1935) sessions. The Ministry of Labour of the United Kingdom received in London the Third (December 1923), Twelfth (June 1942) and Thirteenth (January 1945) sessions. The Fourth Session (September 1924) was held in the Provincial Council Buildings at San Sebastian, Spain.

Historical Background

In reaching its decision to set up the Commission, the Governing Body was influenced by views which had been expressed in 1919 when establishment of the International Labour Organisation was being considered.

As early as February 1919, the International Congress of Seamen's Organisations had adopted a proposal, presented by the French delegation, urging that it was as necessary to effect a speedy improvement in the conditions of work of seamen as in the conditions of work of shore workers; that in all maritime countries there existed special legislation and separate Government departments to administer the legal provisions relative to maritime workers; and that as it did not appear that maritime labour questions fell within the competence of the International Labour Organisation which was about to be set up, the Congress pressed for the establishment of both a "permanent general conference for the international regulation of maritime labour", and an "international regulation of maritime labour", and an "international supervisory office for maritime labour" controlled by a governing body, which would function in respect of seamen in the same manner as the ILO was to function for shore workers. The representatives of the employers and the workers would be, respectively, those of shipowners, heads of shipping or fishing concerns and those of different grades of seamen and of fishermen.

The International Federation of Seamen* transmitted this resolution to the Commission on International Labour Legislation appointed by the Peace Conference in 1919. The Commission examined it carefully, but decided, on the sug-

gestion of the French delegate, that the creation of two permanent labour organisations, one dealing exclusively with the conditions of workers on land and the other with the conditions of work of seamen, should be avoided. It therefore adopted a resolution stating that 'the very special questions concerning the minimum conditions to be accorded to seamen might be dealt with at a special meeting of the International Labour Conference devoted exclusively to the affairs of seamen'. When the International Labour Conference itself met in its First Session at Washington in the autumn of 1919 and adopted the Hours of Work (Industry) Convention, it included transport by sea and inland waterways within the scope of the Convention, but added to Article 1 a paragraph stipulating that the detailed provisions for applying the principle of the eight-hour day and forty-eight hour week to transport by sea and on inland waterways should be determined by 'a special conference dealing with employment at sea and on inland waterways.' Thus, the international seamen's organisations obtained satisfaction for their demand for an international conference, but the question remained open whether their claims for an autonomous maritime labour office would be pressed. Albert Thomas, the Director of the International Labour Office, discussed this point with representatives of the seamen's organisations, which decided to renounce their request for a separate maritime labour organisation on condition that a maritime section of the Office and a joint commission of shipowners and seamen were set up. These were the circumstances in which the question was brought before the Governing Body, and in the light of which it decided to establish a Joint Commission to advise the Governing Body on maritime questions.

The final stage in the establishment of the tradition that maritime questions require special consideration and special machinery was the adoption by the International Labour Conference in 1921, at its Third Session, of a resolution in the following terms:

Seeing that misunderstanding may arise as to the position

* This organization, founded during the First World War by the National Sailors' and Firemen's Union of Great Britain, was the opposite number of the International Shipping Federation. In 1921, at the height of its influence, it comprised some seamen's organizations which, one after the other, soon joined the ITF. It virtually ceased to exist as early as 1922, when the French Seamen's Union, almost its last affiliate, withdrew from the Federation. (Ed. ITF Journal)



Session of the JMC held on 8 November 1920 at Geneva. On the left are the workers' representatives, the first in the left-hand corner being Johann Döring, a former vice-President of the ITF who at 86 was a guest of honour at the Stuttgart Congress of the ITF in July last. Sitting on the left at head of table, Albert Thomas, the first Director of the ILO. On the right are the shipowners.

of those employed in the mercantile marine with regard to Conventions and Recommendations to be passed by the International Labour Conference, it is hereby resolved that no such Conventions or Recommendations shall apply to those employed in the mercantile marine unless they have been passed as a special maritime question on the agenda. All questions on maritime affairs put forward for consideration by conferences should be previously considered by the Joint Maritime Commission of the International Labour Office.

During subsequent years, this resolution has been interpreted to mean that, as a general rule, Conventions and Recommendations applying to seafarers will be considered by maritime sessions of the Conference, and that only exceptionally will such questions be referred to general sessions of the Conference, and then only after their previous submission to the Joint Maritime Commission. Maritime sessions proper were held in 1920, 1926, 1929, 1936 and 1946.² The General Conference has considered maritime subjects on two occasions only, in 1921 and in 1919; whereas in 1921 it adopted two Conventions on such subjects,³ its maritime work in 1949 was limited to the adoption of minor revisions to Conventions which had been adopted previously at maritime sessions.

Since its First Session in 1920, the Joint Maritime Commission has been regularly consulted by the Governing Body on all matters of maritime interest. Thus for thirty years representatives of shipowners and seamen have met with members of the Governing Body in the Commission and with Government delegates in the Conference to discuss matters affecting employment at sea, and as a result of their joint labours the Conference has adopted twenty-five Conventions and twelve Recommendations for the regulation of maritime employment.

Composition and Procedure

In accordance with the decision taken by the Third Session of the Governing Body in 1920, the Second (Maritime) Session of the International Labour Conference approved the nomination of five shipowners and five seafarers to be members of the Joint Maritime Commission, and the Governing Body at its Fifth Session approved the nomination of two members to represent its employers' and workers' groups respectively. The countries represented by shipowners' members at the First Session of the Commission were Belgium, Canada, Japan, Sweden and the United Kingdom. The seafarers' members came from France, Germany, Italy, Norway and the United Kingdom. It was agreed that the Commission would adopt the standing orders of the Governing Body, in so far as these were applicable, to regulate its debates and procedure. However, owing in part to the continued absence of the Italian workers' member, several procedural problems arose immediately. No provision had been made in the resolutions constituting the Commission for the appointment of substitute was not designated by the absent member himself. To preserve the joint nature of the Commission, it was imperative that the voting strength of the two sides should be maintained on an equal basis, and at the First Session the shipowners' members therefore offered to reduce their total voting strength by one to compensate for the vote of the absent seafarers' member. It was further decided at this session

would be taken by a simple majority, and that representatives of the Governing Body, except the Chairman, would be entitled to vote. It became evident at an early stage that when difficulties arose regarding questions of procedure, it would not always be possible to resolve them in the spirit of the standing orders of the Governing Body, and in 1924 (Fourth Session), the Commission asked the Office to prepare draft rules of procedure for submission to its next session. A revised text was finally agreed upon in 1926 (Sixth Session) and was subsequently approved by the Governing Body. These standing orders provided, *inter alia*, that the Commission would meet when convened by the Director of that Office with the approval of the Governing Body; it would consist of the Chairman and two other members of the Governing Body, together with five shipowners' and five seafarers' members plus two deputy members for each group, appointed respectively by the shipowners' and seafarers' groups of an International Labour Conference session dealing with maritime questions; the deputy members, whose expenses would be paid by the Office, could take part in meetings of the Commission without the right to vote; if a regular member was absent and had not appointed a personal substitute, or if he had vacated the seat through resignation or death, he would be replaced by a deputy member who would enjoy full rights as a regular member.

A proposal to make the sittings of the Commission public was submitted at the same session, but the discussion showed a divergence of opinion on this question. The shipowners considered that if the sittings were public, the members would be reluctant to speak as frankly and openly as they had done previously; they would tend to address their constituents rather than to seek practical solutions for the problems under discussion. Some of the seafarers, on the other hand, felt that the greatest possible publicity should be given to the work of the Commission, and that public sittings would cause the members to be more prudent when speaking. The Commission finally decided, by a vote of 9 to 3, that its sessions would continue to be held in private, that the minutes and other documents would be confidential, but that press releases would be issued at the end of each session, giving a full account of the decisions.

(to be continued)

1. Such committees, but organised on a tripartite basis, have now been set up for nine other industries: building; civil engineering and public works; coal mines; inland transport; iron and steel; metal trades; petroleum; plantations; and textiles.
2. For an account of the proceedings of these sessions (except that in 1920), see *International Labour Review*, Vol XIV, No 4, October 1926, pp 508-551; 'The Ninth Session of the International Labour Conference'; Vol XXI, No 1, January 1930, pp 1-44; 'The Thirteenth Session of the International Labour Conference'; Vol XXXV, No 1, January 1937, pp 3-30, and No 2, February 1937, pp 141-176; 'The Twenty-first and Twenty-second (Maritime) Sessions of the International Labour Conference'; and Vol LIV, Nos 1-2, July-August 1946, pp 1-28; 'The Twenty-eighth (Maritime) Session of the International Labour Conference: Seattle, June 1946'.

3. The Minimum Age (Trimmmers and Stokers) Convention (No 15) and the Medical Examination of Young Persons (Sea) Convention (No 16). The other items on the agenda concerned industry and agriculture.

CORRECTION In the table 'Ratio of Vehicles and Roads to Population 1947' contained in our January issue, the figure 4,000 was inadvertently omitted from the end of the line indicating the number of vehicles per 100,000 population for South Africa. In addition, the captions to the key on page 7 were unfortunately transposed.

Dutch transport worker's unions federate

by H. J. Kanne President of the Dutch Federation of Transport Workers' Unions.

AN ACT OF PARLIAMENT recently passed in Holland makes it possible so to alter the economic structure of the country that industrial activities can be planned and organized in the joint interests of the owners and the community. The Act embodies the principle of participation by the trade union movement in the direction of social and economic affairs to an equal extent as the employers' associations. For purposes of implementation it enables the different branches of industry to set up public bodies with regulative powers. The powers envisaged, which are granted in each case by Royal Decree, are the following:

The regulation or further regulation of:

- 1 The registration of the undertakings coming within the jurisdiction of the body concerned, and of the persons working for such undertakings.
- 2 The provision of the information the body needs for the purpose of fulfilling its task.
- 3 The inspection of such books and documents, and the inspection and survey of such industrial equipment and stocks of the undertakings, as the body may need to effect for the purpose of fulfilling its task.
- 4 The production, sale, distribution and use, including the storage processing and utilization of goods and the rendering of services.
- 5 Social, economic and technological investigations.
- 6 Competition.
- 7 The mechanization and rationalization of undertakings coming within the jurisdiction of the body.
- 8 The standardization of products and equipment.
- 9 The management of undertakings coming within the jurisdiction of the body.
- 10 Wages and other working conditions.
- 11 Recruitment, engagement and dismissal of personnel.
- 12 Vocational training and retraining, and the determination of the ratios of different grades of personnel in undertakings coming within the jurisdiction of the body.
- 13 Prevention and remedying of shortages of manpower.
- 14 Provision of work and prevention of unemployment.
- 15 Provision for alleviating the consequences, direct or indirect of unemployment.
- 16 Funds and other beneficial institutions for persons engaged in the industry.

Other powers can be added by special Act of Parliament.

The carrying out of the tasks of these industrial bodies is entrusted to boards composed of equal numbers of representatives of the organizations of employers and workers which are recognized by the Government as representative. The chairman is nominated by the Minister concerned or chosen by the members of the board from among themselves. In the latter case the nomination is subject to the approval of the Minister.

Above all the different industrial bodies there is a Social and Economic Council whose task it is, among other things, to advise the Government on social and economic ques-

tions and to coordinate the activities of the bodies themselves. The members of the Social and Economic Council are appointed one third by the Government, one third by the central employers' associations recognized by the Government and one third by the similarly recognized workers' trade union centres. The Social and Economic Council is already in existence.

It now remains to be seen whether there will be the cooperation from the employers' associations which the law requires before the Royal Decree is published setting up one of these industrial bodies for a particular branch of industry; and whether an early start will be made. If necessary the trade union movement in general, and the trade unions of the workers in particular branches of industry, will have to bring pressure to bear on the employers for they are convinced that without economic order and planning, no economic recovery, and certainly no security of livelihood for the great mass of the workers, are possible. And they believe, also that there is no longer any reason to deny the workers equality of rights with the employers to decide on how productive efforts are to be made, and to pronounce on the result.

The full task that is likely to be allotted to an industrial body for transport will be a big and exceedingly difficult one. Even assuming that subsidiary bodies will be set up to deal with the interests of particular branches of transport, there will still be questions which are common to more than one branch, or even all of them, and that can only be settled by a central body for the whole of transport. Examples are the question of the coordination of inland transport by railway, tramway, inland waterway and road; that of the development of and cooperation between shipping, railways and civil aviation; and that of the ports and international channels. In many of these, questions of tariff policy, investment policy, wages policy, provision of opportunities for work, etc., are concerned.

It is therefore very desirable that the trade union movement should take advantage of every opportunity to become fully acquainted with these problems, and that its representatives should as far as possible be of one mind when they meet the representatives of the undertakings and administrations concerned.

To ensure this, the Dutch trade union movement is trying to organize the workers into trade union bodies covering the whole of the workers, by both hand and brain, in a particular branch of industry.

In so far as transport is concerned there are in Holland four trade unions belonging to the Labour trade union centres (the Dutch trade union movement is very much divided, and there are Labour, Roman Catholic, Protestant, Communist, etc. trade unions and trade centres): the *Centrale Bond van Transportarbeiders* (transport workers), the *Nederlandse Vereniging van Spoor- en Tramwegpersoneel* (railwaymen and tramwaymen), the *Centrale van Kapiteins*

en Officiëren ter Koopvaardij (mercantile marine masters and officers) and the *Federatie van Verenigingen van KLM-Vliegers, Radiotelegrafisten en Boordwerktuigkundigen* (a federation of unions of pilots, radio officers and flight engineers of the KLM line). Discussions have been held between these unions to determine what organizational changes might be necessary to enable them best to play their part in the appropriate public industrial bodies, and they have come to important decisions. They considered not only what requirements would be necessary in connection with the possibility of workers' participation in economic decisions, but also the fact that it would be necessary for the movement to fulfil, at least as well as under the present form of organization, their original task of looking after the direct social interests of their members; and further the importance that the special attractive power that the present organization has for particular groups of the workers should not be sacrificed.

For these reasons it was agreed that the time for forming a single centralized union out of the four existing ones has not yet come. Instead of this a Federation of Transport Workers' Unions (*Verbond van Werknemersverenigingen op Vervoersgebied*) has been set up which will take over the functions of each of its affiliated organizations in so far as relations with the public industrial bodies are concerned.

The unions will be completely autonomous in so far as their other tasks and functions are concerned.

Leadership of the Federation will be in the hands of a council composed of three members of the management committees of each of the affiliated unions, with a Management Committee of its own composed of one member appointed by each union. The General Meeting is the supreme governing body of the Federation. It will be composed of the members of the central governing bodies of the four unions, and will choose the chief officials from among the members of the management committees. The constituent congress chose as such: H. J. Kanne (Dutch Railwaymen's and Tramwaymen's Union) as Chairman; T. Smeding (Central Transport Workers' Union) as Secretary; and P. de Vries (Union of Mercantile Marine Masters and Officers) as Vice-Chairman. The four unions who joined the Federation on its foundation, being all the transport workers' unions belonging to the *Nederlandse Verbond van Vakverenigingen* (Dutch Federation of Trade Unions), have altogether 70,000 members. It is expected that the *Bond van Grondpersoneel bij de Luchtvaart* (Union of Aviation Ground Staff), at present in formation, will also join.

In trade union circles it is expected that the Transport Federation, as it is called for short, has a great and important future before it.

Increase in size of World Fleets in 1945

FIGURES RECENTLY ISSUED BY the American Merchant Marine Institute show that all of the ten leading maritime nations of the world, with the exception of the United States, have registered substantial increases in the size of their active fleets since the end of World War II. The United Kingdom, Norway, Panama, the Netherlands, France, Italy, Sweden, Greece and Soviet Russia have expanded their fleets to a size anywhere between one half to five times greater than was the case in 1945. These nine nations acquired approximately 23,300,000 deadweight tons of shipping during the period, this figure not including another 786,000 tons of lease-lend shipping retained by the Soviet Union.

The United States on the other hand registered a sizeable decline. Its active fleet dropped from 4,000 vessels of some 43,000,000 deadweight tons to 1,145 vessels of 14,800,000 tons in 1950.

The Merchant Marine Institute notes further that those maritime nations receiving assistance under various American aid programmes today possess larger tonnages of merchant shipping than in 1939.

This revival has taken place in spite of the fact that each of the nations concerned had considerable deficits of merchant shipping at the end of 1945 as a result of heavy wartime losses.

Country	July 1950		Oct. 1945		Sept. 1939	
	No	DWT	No	DWT	No	DWT
UK	2,586	22,0	1,771	15,5	2,850	21,9
USA	1,145	13,8	4,000	43,3	1,379	11,7
Norway	945	7,6	465	3,9	1,072	6,9
Panama	485	5,0	118	1,0	130	1,1
Netherlands	493	3,7	272	2,0	537	3,4
France	511	3,6	213	1,3	555	3,0
Italy	406	3,4	123	,7	667	3,9
Sweden	539	2,7	252	1,7	484	2,0
Greece	227	1,9	130	,9	436	2,8
USSR*)	437	1,8	251	1,2	354	1,6

Deadweight in millions of tons

*) Post-war figures do not include 83 US vessels of 786,000 DWT retained under Lend-Lease

Steps towards greater safety on the roads

THE ALARM FELT BY THE UNITED NATIONS at the fearful number of road accidents is a matter of common knowledge.

It was one of the reasons for the action by the Inland Transport Committee of the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe in convening a meeting of the Working Party on the Prevention of Road Accidents at the Palais des Nations from 4 to 8 December, 1950.

To determine exactly the real causes of these accidents, the prime essential is to have access to uniform and comparable international statistics. These, when analysed, will provide a basis for increasing road safety by the adoption of a series of suitable international measures to eliminate the causes of accidents.

During its brief session, the Working Party arrived at the conclusion that international statistics should be supplied by governments and should be compiled monthly and published annually. It reached agreement on the form to be adopted for the various standard tables on the basis of which the statistics would be supplied, and on the various headings to be included in the tables.

Definition of accidents

The working Party decided that the term 'road accident', for the purposes of international statistics, shall mean 'any accident to a road user on a road open to public traffic which causes death ¹, injury ² or material damage ³, provided that a vehicle (including bicycles with or without engine) or an animal, whether in motion or not, is involved.'

The Chairman of the Working Party, Mme Liger (France) pointed out, incidentally, that a distinction should be drawn between the 'circumstances in which the accident occurred' and the 'causes proper'. The former were easy to ascertain in view of their objective character, whereas the latter, necessarily involved a subjective element, with its inherent liability to error, and would take time to elucidate. Accordingly, the item on its agenda on 'Causes of Accidents' was not taken up by the Working Party.

It was nevertheless decided that the various countries engaged in research into road accident prevention should

get into direct touch with one another with a view to exchange of information. It was also decided that the ECE would circulate details of any future measures introduced in any one State to other States.

Drunkenness as the cause of accidents

After a discussion which brought out the profound divergences in the existing regulations of the various countries on the question of penalties to be imposed on drivers responsible for accidents when under the influence of drink, the Working Party adopted the following recommendation:

'Apart from penalties imposed in the case of accidents, any driver who has been duly found to be under the influence of drink will be liable to have his licence withdrawn, as an administrative measure, for a period which shall be left to the discretion of each State.'

Future studies

The Working Party decided to take up the study, or take note of the studies made by international bodies, at forthcoming sessions, on (a) the organization of exchanges of views and information between governments regarding improved non-skid surfaces; (b) road markings; and (c) improvement of technical equipment of vehicles, especially braking efficiency, lighting, emission of fumes from internal combustion engines, technical equipment of vehicles for the prevention of accidents or the mitigation of their effects (safety glass, height of seats, etc.)

Education on road safety

The Working Party decided that an 'international handbook on road safety' should be drawn up for distribution by governments to all road users and to children in particular. The international organizations concerned should agree on the basic features of the handbook, and their proposals would, thereafter, be examined at the next session of the Working Party.

The Working Party also requested the organizations to consider the possibility of instituting international propaganda campaigns on road safety.

Participation at the session

Representatives of the following countries attended the session of the Working Party: Belgium, Denmark, France, Italy, Netherlands, Sweden, Switzerland, United Kingdom and United States of America.

The following international organizations also took part in the discussions: International Chamber of Commerce (ICC), International Road Federation (IRF), World Touring and Automobile Organization (TAO), League of Red Cross Societies, International Road Transport Union (IRU) and the Permanent International Association of Road Congresses. The next session of the Working Party is to be held on 30 April 1951.

1. A person shall be considered as having been killed if death results from accident within thirty days.

2. Fractures, concussion, internal lesions, crushing, severe cuts and laceration, severe general shock requiring medical treatment and any other lesions entailing hospitalization. Secondary injuries such as sprains or bruises. Persons complaining of shock, but who have not sustained other injuries, should not be included in the statistics unless they show very clear symptoms of shock, have received medical treatment or appeared to require medical attention.

3. Material damage for which a statistical form must be completed shall be considered to mean any damage the repair of which entails an expenditure of more than 200 Swiss francs, it being understood that accidents causing material damage only may not necessitate the completion of such a form.

Co-operation between North Sea ports

The Hanseatic Towns in a New Context? by Johan Brautigam

Johan Brautigam, born 10 May 1878, is not only a prominent Dutch trade unionist but also a labour politician who has held many high offices in both the national and municipal life of his country. Within the Dutch trade union movement he distinguished himself as a fierce opponent of the anarcho-syndicalist tendencies with which, in its early days, that movement was rife.

In 1909, Brautigam - who was himself a seaman - founded an independent seamen's union at Rotterdam in opposition to the anarcho-syndicalist union. By means of a series of amalgamations, Brautigam led his union, on 1 January 1918, into the present national union catering for all transport workers save railwaymen and tramway personnel. Immediately following the end of the first World War, Brautigam played a major part in the reconstitution

of the ITF. From then on and until 1935, when he decided to devote himself fully to his duties as alderman of his beloved port town of Rotterdam, Brautigam was a member of the Management Committee of the ITF. He was a guest-of-honour at the post-World War II congresses of the ITF.

As an authority on questions concerning the maritime and waterside industries, Brautigam recently published two studies in which he proposed their fundamental re-organization.

We are happy to be able to print a contribution from his able pen in our Journal, dealing with a proposed new measure of integration of the activities of the North Sea ports which may be conducive to the achievement of the economic integration of Western Europe as a whole.

NORTH-WEST AND CENTRAL EUROPE have since olden times depended upon the continental ports of the North Sea for their imports from and exports to overseas countries. The traffic through these ports, already considerable in the Middle Ages, flourished enormously with the industrial development of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. It temporarily reached its peak during the period between the two world wars which lie behind us.

The region which relies on these ports for its traffic across the seas is chiefly composed of Germany, Czechoslovakia, the two Low Countries (Holland and Belgium), Luxembourg, North-East France and a part of Switzerland. The heart of the region is the Rhineland and the Ruhr basin with its rich coal and industrial resources.

There are, apart from a few of minor or moderate importance, seven ports of varying size which are the main links in this traffic, viz, three German (Hamburg, Bremen and Emden), two Dutch (Rotterdam-Vlaardingen and Amsterdam), and two Belgian (Antwerp and Ghent).

The traffic between the ports and the hinterland is preponderantly waterborne. The rivers Rhine, Elbe and Weser constitute the main arteries, which are continued along their tributaries and canals, of which some inter-connect the three main rivers. Naturally these rivers and canals serve not only the traffic to and from the seaports, but also that between the countries and regions in which they are situated.¹ The total volume of the traffic which passed through the above-mentioned ports fluctuated heavily during the years of the inter-war period. In the early years it was substantially below the volume of the years 1912 and 1913. By the end of the twenties it had soared above it and reached upwards of 100,000,000 tons. The figures slumped heavily again during the depression years between 1931-3, to recover again in 1937-8 and rise to 125,000,000 tons.

Naturally this traffic was very badly hit by the war, eventually dwindling to practically nothing. Immediately after the war it began to recover again slowly, so slowly that today, nearly

six years later, it is still considerably below its former volume.

The total volume of goods traffic during 1950 may be estimated at roughly 80,000,000 tons, and 1950 was a very favourable year compared with those immediately preceding it, to which the otherwise unhappy events in Korea and the grim need for the rapid rearmament of Europe contributed in no small measure. Also there has been a considerable redistribution of traffic between the different parts of the hinterland. The Low Countries, Luxembourg and Switzerland show a marked increase in the volume of their overseas export and import trade compared with 1937 and 1938. Germany and Czechoslovakia, on the other hand, show a marked decrease, and the question arises whether these two countries will ever again reach the old volume of their overseas trade through the North Sea ports. The causes of this decrease, some of them probably of a more temporary, others of a more permanent character, are easily seen. In the case of Western Germany it is the reduced standard of living of the population in general and of the Ruhr district in particular, and, further, the destruction and dismantling of industrial plants. In the case of Eastern Germany it is the location behind the iron curtain, causing imports and exports to be orientated eastwards, viz. towards Poland and Russia.

The incomplete recovery of the volume of traffic has affected, in varying degrees, all the continental ports of the North Sea. Taking them in the order of their geographical location, the drop in the volume of traffic can be seen from the following figures (1937-8 = 100%): Hamburg 42%, Bremen 69%, Emden 62%, Amsterdam 98%, Rotterdam-Vlaardingen 63%, Antwerp 80%, Ghent 63%.

The lagging behind of Bremen, Emden, and Rotterdam-Vlaardingen is largely due to the fall in the German exports of coal and imports of ore. Hamburg has been especially hard hit by the drop in its general cargo traffic, consequent upon the changed policy behind the iron curtain.

The fact that the above-mentioned ports largely depend on the same hinterland - only Hamburg had little to fear from competition from the others as far as the eastern part, and Antwerp as far as the south-western part of this region was concerned - has always given rise to serious rivalry between them. This rivalry existed not only between the ports of different countries, but also between ports of the same country, though the differences of national interests of course tended to accentuate it.

1. The importance of the Rhine as a transport artery may be gauged from the fact that the multi-national fleet which operates up and down this waterway exceeds an aggregate of 5,000,000 metric dead-weight tons.

It will be conducive to a proper understanding of the rivalry and of the way in which the struggle was carried on to explain the dualistic kind of system under which the continental North Sea ports are operated.

The ports themselves are municipal property.² Construction, maintenance, fixing and collection of harbour dues and rents for the use of quays and harbour sites are in the hands of the municipal authorities. In other matters practice differs. In some cases the municipal authorities are partly or wholly responsible for the construction and maintenance of sheds and warehouses, erection and equipping of cranes and other appliances, etc., in other cases they confine themselves to the long-term leasing of quays and sites and leave the building of sheds and warehouses, the erection of cranes, etc., to private firms. All the ports in question, however, have this feature in common – apart from a few exceptions which confirm the rule – that the municipal harbour services do not concern themselves with the actual handling of ships and cargoes. The loading and unloading of ships, the storage of goods, in short the stevedoring work is in the hands of private firms who carry on their business on quays and sites hired from the municipality, in sheds and warehouses and with equipment which is either their own property or hired.

It is these firms, the stevedores and warehouse owners, the shipping and forwarding agencies, who continually exert pressure on the municipal authorities concerning the level of harbour dues. Playing one port off against another, threatening to switch traffic to another port, are the methods commonly employed. Further they air real or imaginary grievances about the inadequacy or the excessive length of communications with the hinterland compared with rival ports, try to bring influence to bear upon the national government to engage in costly plans for building waterways and highways or to introduce preferential transport rates, all with the object of improving their connections with the hinterland at the expense of other ports.

This resulted in unfair competition which in the first place took the form of artificial harbour charges and uneconomic rents for sites, buildings and appliances. Or it led to the construction of costly, sometimes unjustified, canals. In international transport the railways invented the special home port rates, which are below cost price. Canal dues were levied which on a long run to a homeland port represented a quarter or a fifth of those charged on a short run to a port outside the national frontiers. Or again, transport by inland waterways was subsidized by State funds in order to bridge the gap between carrying goods via a home port or that of another country.

Then there was rivalry between the municipal authorities of the ports themselves. If it became known that some big industry or enterprise was being established at or near a port, all the harbour authorities would vie with one another in seeking to attract the new undertaking by offering the most favourable terms. That the party whose patronage was sought held all the trumps in the negotiations needs no emphasis.

All this results in heavy demands on the public means of towns which operate a port, as well as adding to the burdens of the national exchequer of the country concerned. It is exceptional for any of the ports which have been mentioned to be self-supporting for a while. Some of the authorities of these towns even voice the opinion that 'ports always show a deficit'.

2. Strictly speaking Bremen and Hamburg are state-owned, since both towns have that status. In practice, however, this differs little from the municipal status of the other ports.

This pessimistic view, however, must be challenged. The above-described methods of attracting traffic to a port are based on an unsound concept: protection. They give producers, shippers, carriers and others an advantage at the expense of the community. Generally speaking, the communities concerned badly need the money thus spent for meeting the cultural and social requirements of the region and the population. Such methods are all wrong. Every port should, without discrimination detrimental to others, aim at maintaining and justifying its existence on the concept of self-sufficiency.

There is another defect in the dualistic system of port operation to which brief reference may be made. All ports aim to be equipped to meet peak traffics. Individual stevedores in their turn aim to have an equipment which can cope with peak periods. The result is that the total amount of equipment is many times what it need be. At the busiest periods there are still many yards of unoccupied quayside, nearly empty sheds and warehouses and numbers of idle cranes to be seen. This makes port operations unnecessarily expensive, as each stevedore in calculating his costs must allow for non-utilized premises and equipment.

It is a senseless waste. With a proper organization of port facilities under a centralized system, the ports would be able to achieve an enormous saving on capital investment, interest and amortization charges, which would permit of a substantial lowering of port costs.

The foregoing sketch of the situation in the continental North Sea ports relates to the pre-war period. Developments since the war have tended in the same direction, and indeed the changed conditions threaten to cause the competitive struggle to be waged more fiercely than ever.

Remember the figures showing the percentage of pre-war traffic which the different ports handled in 1950. Some of the ports have nearly reached the pre-war level, but are naturally eager to exceed it. Others are still far below that level and will strive desperately to reach it. They all know not only that the hinterland is smaller than it was (iron curtain), but that this smaller hinterland will for a long time to come produce and consume less than in the past. An old Dutch proverb says 'the more pigs the thinner the swill'. The swill is already thinner than it was, and the general scramble for as big as or a bigger portion than formerly leads to louder squabbles and scuffles.

Nevertheless, the recognition that none of the ports benefits from such a struggle, that on the contrary all are adversely affected, is gaining ground. The idea of consultation, and ultimately cooperation and coordination, is coming to the fore as an idea which not so much inspired by as reminiscent of the old Hanseatic League.

There is another motive which is a serious inducement to take this road. The cooperation in the coal, iron and steel industries according to the Schuman Plan will make for a strong concentration of these industries, making it likely that the transport of raw materials and industrial products will more than hitherto be centrally controlled. The commercial policies of the different countries likewise tend towards greater concentration. If the port industries, and more especially the individual employers in these industries, should have to face these concentrated forces singly, then it is clear who will come off second best and who will pay the piper. That would be fatal for the port populations, for after all the point is not so much to handle the greatest volume of traffic possible, but to safeguard the people's daily bread. Nor is it a matter of trying to squeeze or break one or more of these ports, which would be bound to fail any way. It has been

said 'all the ports must live', and port authorities are faced with the fact that large sections of the population of their townships to a greater or lesser extent depend upon the prosperity of the port industry for their livelihood.

The general line which port authorities should take in working towards cooperation and coordination is clear enough. Port industries exist primarily to render service, not to make profits. On the other hand, the policy of the industry should be to pay its own way. Attempts aiming at open or concealed protection of shipping or other interests should be checked, and likewise there should not be discrimination of any kind. Harbour and quay dues, pilotage charges, highway and waterway charges, railway rates, etc., all must be mutually adjusted to one another.

The fortunate fact that the continental North Sea ports are municipally owned and administered makes it easier to arrange talks and to try to bring about coordination on the lines suggested. Nevertheless the port authorities will encounter many obstacles on the path towards agreement.

There are the conflicts of national interests: three nations must try to come to terms;

There are the private undertakings in all the ports, which will all try to exercise pressure upon the authorities of their ports and will be all too prone to demand priority for their particular interests in the negotiations;

There is the unavoidable necessity of discussing the scales of charges of the private stevedores, brokers, forwarding agencies, etc., and considering them in the agreements to be concluded. Otherwise it may happen only too easily that an agreement come to after difficult negotiations is undermined or destroyed by a selfish policy on the part of certain firms.

The most drastic solution would be the outright nationalization or even socialization of the facilities and services of all the continental North Sea ports. For the time being, however, this must be ruled out. Apart from the fact it would have to be done in the three countries simultaneously, there is no political group in them sufficiently strong to carry through such a programme.

But the very fact that nationalization or socialization is at present not feasible is a cogent reason why the continental North Sea ports should, out of self-preservation, come to some mutual agreement bringing order into the activities and practices of the free undertakings of the port industry.

The tentative efforts which are being made to bring about consultations between the continental North Sea ports are all to the good. But they need to be pursued with more vigour and boldness, and especially they must emerge from the semi-official into the official sphere, from under the cloak of secrecy into the full light of publicity. And above all, care must be taken that the initiative does not fall and remain in the hands of private interests in the ports concerned to enter into agreements dividing the cake the way they think fit. Though no one should be excluded, and all groups interested in a healthy policy for the port industry have a right to be heard in the negotiations as to any new arrangements, the employers of the industry, having regard to their past behaviour and record, are the last ones who should be in charge of the proceedings.

FOOTNOTE

That the employers are trying to take the initiative appears from a report published in the Dutch press since the above article was written, to the effect that the Rotterdam Chamber of Commerce intends to invite the continental North Sea ports to take part this spring in discussions concerning cooperation on a European regional basis. That is not good enough. The municipal authorities who run the ports are more immediately concerned than the port employers. The interests of those who earn their living in the industry, and indeed the port populations at large, demand that the leaders of the labour organizations or the industry shall have a full voice in both the discussions and the decisions which are arrived at.

3. Since 1945 there have been talks on some of these matters between representatives of the Benelux ports and though not completely satisfactory, have in a few cases led to improvements.



Meeting of ITF Executive Committee - London, 29 to 31 January, 1951.

Seated left to right: A. E. Lyon USA, T. Yates UK, I. Haugen Norway, O. Becu (General Secretary), R. Bratschi (President) Switzerland, H. Jahn Germany, A. Deakin UK, G. Joustra Netherlands, T. Gómez Spain, P. Ferri-Pisani France.

Standing left to right: P. Tofahrn (Asst. Gen. Secretary), D. H. Tennant UK, Miss T. Asser (ITF Secretariat), G. R. Glutterbuck (ITF Secretariat).

A Railwaymen's Union's Anniversary

The Danish Private Railway Employees' Union 1901-51

IN THE AUTUMN OF THE YEAR 1900 the employees of one of Denmark's private railway companies appealed to their colleagues on the other private railways to join hands with them in a special trade union for the staffs of private railway undertakings. The move met with immediate response and on 18 January 1901 there was duly founded, at Roskilde, the Danish Private Railway Employees' Union, which at first organized all categories of railway staff except office grades. In 1903 the latter also joined the Union.

In those days it was not so easy to start a trade union, and the little union's struggle for decent wages and working conditions met with the stiffest opposition from the employers' side, who were outraged everytime the union came forward with a new programme of 'insolent' demands. Sometimes railwaymen, too, viewed the union's efforts with misgivings, seeing the risk of being branded as 'revolutionary' and sacked. Some of them even hoped to obtain better wages and conditions as a personal reward for good conduct without the risks and inconveniences of trade union action and solidarity.

Fifty years have elapsed since then, and today every Danish railwayman takes decent wages and working conditions for granted. It is hard nowadays to appreciate the determination and the courage which were needed for the Union's pioneers - men like Th. Brix, F. Fischer and J. M. Herlak - to put an end to the wage slavery and social bondage which existed on the private railways in the 'good old days' and to secure, by dint of years of hard bargaining with the employers at the conference table, for private railway staffs the same conditions as those enjoyed by staff on the Danish State Railways.

Apart from the slump of the early thirties, the private railways encountered other economic difficulties, not least of which was the increased competition from the side of road transport. Denmark is a densely populated country and consequently well suited for the transport of passengers and goods by road. But road transport was paralyzed when Hitler took Denmark under his 'protection' on 9 April 1940, and when liberation came on 3 May 1945 the country's private railways were economically stronger than before, which helped the private Railway Employees' Union to realize the long-standing demand for equalization of their wages and conditions with those of State Railway staffs.

Duty on Sundays and holidays, however, is one of the problems which has still not been satisfactorily solved, and the private railways are once more beginning to feel the competition from other branches of the transport industry.

The Union has during its half century of existence established a good basis of cooperation with the other trade unions, in particular with the Danish Railwaymen's Union, the Danish Locomotivemen's Union and the Danish Federation of Trade Unions. When in 1918 the Union joined the Federation of Trade Unions, part of the office grades refused to go along and formed a union of their own, the Danish Private Railway Clerks' Union, and in 1925 the locomotive grades also broke away and formed their own union. Broadly speaking, however, these organizations pulled together in the course of the years, for instance, through the joint machinery set up with the Locomotivemen's Union in 1931. Apart from these breakaway tendencies, union work was handicapped by the necessity of conducting negotiations with every private railway individually whenever a rise in the cost of living necessitated a demand for higher wages or shorter hours. The agreement signed for the State Railway staff guided the Union in deciding its policy.

On the occasion of its fiftieth anniversary on 18 January last the Union could claim that the conditions of service of its members have been largely brought into line with those obtaining on the State Railways. The greatest credit for this is due to the Union's President, J. M. Herlak, a former locomotive driver who, from 1932 on, indefatigably championed staff interests against the obduracy of the companies. Herlak, now seventy-two years old and on the eve of retirement, has by his understanding and knowledge of railway affairs and staff problems show himself both a successful and skilful negotiator in his long struggle with the employers. He can now confidently look forward to the day when he enters upon a well-earned retirement and hands over the leadership to a younger colleague, in the knowledge that the fifty-year long struggle to improve the social conditions of private railway staffs has been conspicuously successful and that as a consequence thereof the future of the Union is assured.

The ITF joins the whole of the Danish Trade Union Movement in paying a warm tribute to a great fighter and a fine Union.

Transport organization in France

by R. Bodeau, Secretary of the Force Ouvrière Railwaymen's Federation

DEFICITS ARE THE USUAL THING on the French railways and Parliament has regularly to provide the money required to fill the gap. A Decree of 14 November 1949, providing for the co-ordination of transport, has so far only been timidly applied, as many of the necessary implementing measures have still to be taken. Apart from that, the inadequacy of the Decree has become so rapidly and clearly evident that the Government has

already drawn up a new plan for the reorganization of transport, and has submitted it to Parliament in the form of a Bill.

During the discussions which prefaced the drafting of the Bill the *Force Ouvrière Railwaymen's Federation* was called into consultation, and its views have been embodied in a memorandum submitted to the Minister of Public Works. The Federation proposed that road transport should be given public service status,

with all the obligations that that implies, so that the railways should be able to compete with it on equal terms. As far as the SNCF (*French National Railway Corporation*) was concerned, we maintained that far-reaching administrative reconstruction – not to include any measures of an anti-social character – was the only way in which it could effect the economies required of it. We called, for instance, for the abolition of the six regional administrations, which we regard as quite unnecessary intermediaries between the Head Office and the local administrations. But the Minister of Public Works has had to bow to so many different opinions that his plans clearly show the mark of compromise, and the railwaymen are likely to suffer.

The Government's proposals can be divided into two parts:

1. measures for coordinating road and rail transport; and
2. measures which are applicable to the French National Railway Corporation.

The first part is an attempt to equalize the burden for maintenance of the roadway borne by the railways and carriers by road. If Parliament supports the Government's proposals, the greater part of the cost of maintaining the railway track will be carried by the National Budget, and the Railway Corporation will pay instead a tax on its turnover amounting to 2% for the years 1951-3, rising by 2% a year commencing with 1954, subject to the proviso that it may in no case exceed the amount voted by Parliament for the maintenance of the railway track.

At the same time owners of road goods vehicles, both public and private, will pay an annual tax of 30,000 francs per ton of carrying capacity. The tax will be reduced by 50 per cent in the case of vehicles operating within a short distance zone. In the case of passenger vehicles the annual tax will be 2,000 francs for each seat in excess of thirty. On top of these State taxes there may be others imposed by the provincial authorities for the maintenance of their local road systems.

This first part of the scheme meets, in principle and at any rate in one direction, the old claim of our organization for the equalization of the burdens borne by the two means of transport.

Among other proposals, one worth noting is that which provides for four-year programmes of railway investment. An annual programme has been the rule hitherto. And finally it is proposed to modernize the smaller lines and reorganize their operating methods. It is hoped that this will make them pay in the future.

Such railway lines as are hopelessly uneconomic will undoubtedly be replaced by road services. Our Federation had asked that the Railway Corporation should be given the right to run these road services itself, but this has been turned down. The Corporation will still be responsible for these services, but the work will be done by private carriers who will be paid by the Corporation under contract. Only in one case will the Corporation be authorized to run the road services itself, and that is if the private carriers quote too high a price.

The second part of the Bill affects the railwaymen more directly, and seriously endangers their interests. It provides among other things that the personnel establishment shall no longer be drawn up by the Board of Administration of the Corporation, as hitherto, but by the Ministers of Public Works and Finance, who will submit them to Parliament. We are raising objections to this proposal, as its tendency would be to check normal promotion, on the grounds of economy.

There is also a plan to reduce personnel, which the trade unions succeeded in modifying in the course of the preliminary discussions. Originally it was intended to dismiss all temporary

personnel, as well as many of the permanent employees having less than fifteen years' service, but finally it was agreed that an endeavour would be made to reduce the number through voluntary withdrawals and the pensioning off of employees who have already qualified for full pension.

But the proposal that has aroused the greatest amount of opposition from the railwaymen is that which provides for extending by five years the pensionable age limit. It has led to urgent representations being made to members of Parliament and there is no doubt that it will meet strong opposition in Parliament itself, as it involves a unilateral breach of a contract freely entered into between employer and employee.

Finally, where hitherto the railwaymen have been subject to a special social security scheme providing free medical and dental treatment, it is now proposed that only eighty per cent of the cost shall be met, on the grounds that the scheme at present shows a loss – though it is only a very small one. To prevent this our Federation, backed by the immense majority of the railwaymen, is suggesting a slight increase in the contributions paid.

During the discussions which preceded the drafting of the Bill, our Federation was the only trade union organization to come forward with a plan of reconstruction. Following its custom, the CGT railwaymen's organization took up an entirely negative attitude, making a lot of noise but no constructive proposals. But happily the French railwaymen no longer take this tool of the Communist Party seriously.

Parliament will be coming to a decision on the matter in the course of the next few weeks.

US reserve tonnage for ECA cargoes

THE UNITED STATES FEDERAL MARITIME BOARD has approved a request made by the Economic Co-operation Administration for the withdrawal of ocean tonnage from the national reserve fleet in order to carry Marshall Plan cargoes.

The ECA had asked for more ships to be used on various trade routes in order to 'loosen' the market on rates and tonnage.

Single transport authority for USA

DURING THE MONTH OF DECEMBER, the US Department of Commerce announced in Washington that it is to place all its transport departments under a single authority, to be known as the Transportation Council.

The departments affected by the organizational measure include the Federal Maritime Administration and the Federal Maritime Board.

American railway to install new safety device

THE TRUSTEE-DESIGNATE of the Long Island Rail Road, scene of a recent serious collision in which 78 persons lost their lives, has announced the immediate installation on all Long Island trains of a new and simple device for protection against rear-end collisions.

Its principal element is a red glass lens which fits over the face of a white headlight when needed. It is so designed that the red lens covers the backward-facing headlight of a standing train. When a train comes to a stop, the red lens automatically slips into place over the rear headlight of the last car. The railway official states that a headlight so equipped would emit a strong red beam visible for one half to three-quarters of a mile.

The Joint Maritime Commission of the ILO

Its Origins, Procedure and Work (II)

During the Ninth (Maritime) Session of the Conference in 1926, the members and deputy members of the Joint Maritime Commission were elected in conformity with the new standing orders. At the same time, a desire was expressed both by shipowners' and by seafarers' delegates that the size of the Commission should be increased by adding two regular members for each side, thereby giving a broader representation to the chief maritime interests of the world. In order to make it possible for the Governing Body to meet this request without waiting for another maritime session, the Conference appointed two substitutes in each group, in addition to the five regular and two deputy members. The Governing Body approved this change in composition in 1927, and in its resolution recommended that 'in order that the Commission should be truly representative of maritime employers and workers in all parts of the world, at least four of the fourteen regular members shall, from the date of the next elections, be nationals of non-European countries'. Thus, the Commission elected by the 1926 Maritime Conference and reconstituted by the Governing Body consisted of shipowners' regular members from Belgium, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, Norway and the United Kingdom and deputy members from Canada, Netherlands and Spain, and of seafarers' regular members from Belgium (two), France, Germany, the Netherlands, Sweden and the United Kingdom and deputy members from France and Japan. The expenses of one deputy member of each group were to be paid by the Office.

The next election took place at the Twenty-first (Maritime) Session of the Conference in 1936, where once again a strong desire was expressed that the number of seats

should be increased by two for each group, to take account of the entry of new States Members into the Organisation. The groups therefore again nominated a larger number of regular members and double the number of deputy members provided by the standing orders. This change was approved by the Governing Body in 1937. As again reconstituted, Australia, Denmark, Greece, India and the United States were added to the countries represented by shipowners' members and deputy members and Germany and Spain were dropped; Germany was also dropped from the list of countries represented by seafarers' members and deputy members and Argentina, Australia, China, were added to it.

The Joint Maritime Commission held two sessions in London during the war, one in 1942 and the second in 1945. The organisation of these meetings presented many difficulties, largely because many members of the Commission were not accessible owing to war conditions. It was agreed beforehand by the members who could be reached that vacancies due to inaccessibility or absence should be filled by substitutes appointed by the respective groups, applying by analogy the provision of the Commission's standing orders which left to each group full freedom as to the manner of filling vacancies.

The most recent maritime session of the Conference was that at Seattle, in June 1946, when new elections to the Commission were held. A resolution was also adopted, and later approved by the Governing Body, to increase the size of the Commission to a total of twelve regular and five deputy members for each side. The broadly representative nature of the Commission in its present form appears from the following tabulation of the countries represented:

Shipowners		Seafarers	
Regular members	Deputy members	Regular members	Deputy members
Belgium	Australia	Australia	Argentina
Canada	Finland	Belgium	Chile
Chile	Italy	Canada	China
China	Portugal	France	Denmark
Denmark	Sweden	Greece	Finland
France		Netherlands	
Greece		Norway	
India ¹		Pakistan ¹	
Netherlands		Poland	
Norway		Sweden	
United Kingdom		United Kingdom	
United States		United States	

¹ The election took place before the partition of India. The table shows the present situation.

The same resolution asked the Governing Body to consider the desirability "of amending the standing orders of the Commission so as to permit the respective groups as wholes to appoint the substitutes who shall take the place of regular members unable to attend the proceedings of the

Commission". This suggestion, together with other amendments submitted by the Office, was referred by the Governing Body to the Fifteenth Session of the Commission, and the revised standing orders, as approved by this session and adopted by the Governing Body in December 1948,

contain the following substantive changes: if the Chairman of the Governing Body is unable to attend a session of the Joint Maritime Commission, he shall nominate a substitute from among the members and deputy members of the Government group of the Governing Body to preside; in the absence of the Chairman during the course of a session, the representatives of the employers' and workers' groups of the Governing Body shall preside at alternate sittings; if a regular member is unable to attend a session, the group to which he belongs shall have full freedom as to the manner of appointing a substitute; representatives of the United Nations and the Intergovernmental Maritime Consultative Organisation (when the latter body is set up) shall be invited to participate in the proceedings of the Commission without the right of vote; representatives of other intergovernmental organisations may be invited by the Governing Body or its officers, after consulting the Commission, to participate in discussions in which they have an interest, without the right to vote.

Provision for Tripartite Subcommittees

Article 13 of the standing orders deals with subcommittees and deserves special mention. It provides in paragraph 2 that "the Commission may also recommend to the Governing Body that *tripartite* subcommittees be convened to discuss any matter appropriate for consideration by such a subcommittee." This provision was adopted as a compromise procedure in an effort to conciliate, for the present at least, the differing points of view held by the two groups concerning the inclusion of Government members in a reconstituted, tripartite body.

From the very fact of its strictly joint basis, the Commission had on several occasions been equally divided on some of the most important questions submitted to it, and had therefore been unable to supply the Governing Body with majority decisions for its guidance concerning maritime matters. Various remedial methods to correct this situation had been advanced, and at the special Conference of the I.L.O. held at New York in 1941 a resolution was adopted authorising the Acting Director "to consult the Joint Maritime Commission regarding the desirability of the inclusion therein of Government representatives". The question was discussed by the Commission in 1942, when the seafarers' group submitted a resolution stating "that the Joint Maritime Commission is of the opinion that it is desirable to include Government representatives in its composition". The spokesmen for the seafarers pointed out that the Commission was the only bipartite body of its kind in the I.L.O., all the others being tripartite. They expressed dissatisfaction with the rate of progress achieved in the consideration of maritime problems, and attributed this in large part to the composition of the Commission, which, they said, tended to lead to deadlocks. There was no third element either to assist in securing agreement or to ensure that a decision of some kind was reached. While it appeared to them that some matters might be satisfactorily dealt with by bipartite discussions, all important problems required action by Governments, and these should be represented at the initial stages of discussions as well as during the final stages.

At this point it became clear that the shipowners' group was unanimously opposed to the inclusion of Government

members in the composition of the Commission. The spokesmen of this group took the view that the fact that the Commission was unique in having a bipartite composition was not a valid argument against the continuance of such a system. The fact that agreement could be reached in a bipartite body had been amply demonstrated by the unanimity that had been developed at many sessions of the Commission. The shipowners, they said, were no less anxious than the seafarers that the problems of the industry should be adequately dealt with, but they were convinced that the surest basis for real progress lay in frank and entirely unhampered discussions between representatives of the two parties directly concerned. After informal discussions, the seafarers' representatives announced that, having regard more particularly to the importance of ensuring the effective continuance of the work of the Commission until more was known about the post-war work and organisation of the I.L.O. as a whole, they decided to withdraw their resolution for the time being, reserving their right to submit it to a future session of the Joint Maritime Commission.

The question came up again at the Thirteenth Session, in 1945, when a spokesman for the seafarers repeated the proposal that the Commission should be made tripartite, although he considered that there were many questions which could be dealt with in bipartite meetings. The shipowners stated that they had no objection to having separate committees on special subjects in which Governments would be represented, but they wished to preserve the fundamental principle that the Commission itself was, and should remain, bipartite.

A resolution submitted by the seafarers' group to the Seattle Conference in 1946 requested the Governing Body to consider the desirability 'of reconstituting the Commission on a tripartite basis while continuing to provide for bipartite discussions wherever suitable or desirable'. The Conference adopted this proposal by 59 votes to 19, with 8 abstentions, after a discussion in which the spokesman for the shipowners' group stated that 'so far as the shipowners are concerned, they value the Joint Maritime Commission and they think it has good work still to do, but if it is decided to make the Commission tripartite, then the shipowners' group has decided quite unanimously not to appoint representatives'. To meet the difficulty, the Governing Body decided to invite the Commission to consider whether some questions could best be dealt with by tripartite subcommittees, and this proposal was submitted to the Fourteenth Session in December 1947. The discussion showed clearly that the opinions held by the two groups concerning the inclusion of Government members in the Commission itself had not changed. Agreement was finally reached on a resolution which, without touching on the composition of the Commission, suggested that as a general rule the following matters were suitable for discussion by tripartite subcommittees:

1. the review of the progress of ratification of Conventions, including the consideration of obstacles to ratification and the possible desirability of revising a Convention;
2. technical questions in the practical application of which Governments have a substantial part to play *inter alia*, social insurance measures, crew accommodation, etc.

These were the considerations which led to the adoption

in 1948 of article 13, paragraph 2, of the standing orders, concerning tripartite subcommittees.

Treatment of Maritime Questions

All maritime questions which form the subject of international labour Conventions or Recommendations, except those adopted at Genoa in 1920, were first considered by the Joint Maritime Commission. Before the Maritime Session of 1929 the maritime Conventions and Recommendations were introduced and approved at one and the same session. In that year the double-discussion procedure introduced in 1927, that is to say, the discussion of proposed Conventions and Recommendations by two consecutive sessions of the International Labour Conference, was applied and a first discussion took place on four subjects, namely: (1) the regulation of hours of work on board ship; (2) the protection of seamen in the case of sickness, including the treatment of seamen injured on board ship; (3) the promotion of seamen's welfare in ports; and (4) minimum requirements of professional capacity in the case of captains, navigating and engineer officers in charge of watches on board merchant ships.

During the course of the discussion, the shipowners' representatives objected strongly to the presence in some non-governmental delegations of persons who they considered as lacking the requisite technical maritime qualifications necessary for considering the items on the agenda in a competent manner. The Conference therefore adopted the following resolution:

In view of the difficulties which have arisen at the special sessions of the Conference devoted to maritime questions, including the composition of non-governmental delegations, the Conference invites the Governing Body to seek all appropriate means of avoiding in the future a repetition of such difficulties.

The Governing Body was thus confronted with the problem of finding a procedure that would not only be consistent with the Constitution of the Organisation, which requires that all Conventions and Recommendations shall be adopted by sessions of the International Labour Conference, but would at the same time ensure that, before Conventions or Recommendations were adopted on maritime questions, these would be examined by experts of the widest maritime experience and competence, in other words by representatives of Governments, shipowners and seafarers of the important maritime countries.

The Governing Body therefore decided, in April 1930, to convene a meeting in 1931 of a tripartite preparatory committee composed of Government, shipowners' and seafarers' representatives from the twenty-one principal maritime countries to discuss the reports which had been prepared for the second discussion of the four maritime items held over from the 1929 Conference. This meeting could not be held, however, until 1935. In 1931, the Governing Body authorised the Director to convene a maritime session of the Conference in 1933, but this was later postponed to 1936 for reasons of economy. When the Joint Maritime Commission met in 1933, the seafarers' members were highly critical of the delay which had occurred in the consideration of the items held over from the 1929 Conference and of other matters concerning seafarers' conditions. They were opposed to the convening of a tripartite prepara-

tory meeting or of a special maritime session of the Conference if such procedures would involve further delay. However, the shipowners' representatives maintained their position that competent consideration of these questions was a matter for experts, and the Commission finally agreed to the holding of the preparatory meeting in 1935 and the Maritime Conference in 1936, to consider, in addition to the four items previously mentioned, the questions of manning and of holidays with pay for seafarers.

At its session in 1945 the Commission had before it the proposals for an International Seafarers' Charter framed in 1944 by the International Transport Workers' Federation and the International Mercantile Marine Officers' Association. The Commission was unanimous in its view that every effort should be made to secure the widest possible effective agreement among maritime nations to ensure the best practicable conditions of employment for seafarers, and it regarded the proposals in the Charter as a valuable contribution to this end. It decided, however, not to make a detailed study of the provisions of the Charter, but requested the Governing Body to convene for this purpose a preparatory tripartite technical conference of maritime countries towards the end of 1945 and a maritime session of the International Labour Conference in 1946. The Governing Body agreed to this procedure in January 1945, and decided that the questions which it referred to the preparatory meeting should also be placed on the agenda of the maritime session to be held at Seattle in June 1946, for consideration under the single-discussion procedure. Twenty maritime countries were invited to send representatives to the preparatory meeting, which was held at Copenhagen in November 1945. Any member of the Commission who was not a member of his national delegation was entitled to attend the meeting in an advisory capacity, and the Governing Body appointed three of its members to represent it. All the countries which had been invited sent delegations, including sixteen complete tripartite delegations (one Government representative, one shipowners' representative and one seafarers' representative). A review of the work of these and other meetings is given below, in the description of the technical subjects dealt with by various sessions.

When the Commission met in December 1947, its main object was to consider the progress of ratification of the Conventions adopted by the Conference at Seattle. During the general discussion on this point, the seafarers' spokesmen showed dissatisfaction because ratification was not proceeding more rapidly, whereas the shipowners felt that in view of all the circumstances the progress reported by a number of countries towards ratification was satisfactory. Both groups agreed that the Commission must have full information on the reasons which made ratification of any of these Conventions impossible in certain countries, before it could usefully discuss what action might be necessary to expedite ratification. Reference was made to the possibility that certain minor technical adjustments in some of the Conventions might eventually prove necessary in order to permit general ratification and application. A resolution was therefore adopted requesting the Governing Body, in the first place, to invite Governments to report at early date on the reasons which prevented them from ratifying any of the Seattle Conventions, and, secondly, to convene for study of the replies a



Seafarers' representatives of the JMC at seaman's welfare meeting in London June 1942

From right to left at the table: J. Tudehope (Australia), M. Weisberger (USA)

O. Becu (Belgium), I. Haugen (Norway), S. Lundgren (Sweden), and, in the corner, Capt. W. H. Coombs (UK)

tripartite subcommittee consisting of the shipowners' and seafarers' members of the Commission and Government representatives from twenty-seven important maritime countries. This tripartite meeting was held in November-December 1948, and found that the possibilities of ratification of three of the Conventions would be greatly increased if minor amendments to their provisions were made. Its suggestions were considered by the Conference at its general session in 1949, and three new Conventions which embodied the desired changes were adopted by means of the single-discussion procedure, revising the Seattle Conventions concerning crew accommodation, holidays with pay, and wages, hours and manning.

Achievements

The Joint Maritime Commission is an advisory body, that is to say, it makes recommendations and paves the way for progress by the International Labour Organisation in maritime matters. It is for the Governing Body and the conference to take action, if they think fit, on these recommendations. Consequently, any attempt to assess the achievements of the Commission must necessarily be linked up with a survey of the results ultimately obtained by other bodies. The following review of its activities therefore deals mainly with its preparatory work leading to the adoption of international labour Conventions or to other measures for the improvement of seafarers' conditions. The subdivisions correspond in the main to the subjects that have been dealt with in the different maritime Conventions.

Wages - Hours of Work - Manning

The question of hours of work, either in isolation or linked with the questions of manning and wages, has been discussed at every session of the Commission with the single exception of that in 1942, which was concerned mainly with

certain wartime safety measures and welfare. Hours of work and wages are topics on which it is normal for employers and workers to disagree internationally, and it is therefore not surprising that the Commission has so frequently reached a stalemate on these subjects. Moreover, the question of hours is a particularly complex one in the case of seafarers because of the special nature of their work.

Before the Joint Maritime Commission came into existence, the question of hours of work at sea had been discussed for the first time at the Genoa Session of the Conference, where an attempt was made to draft a Convention to apply to seafarers the principle of the eight-hour day accepted by the First Session of the Conference a year earlier. The proposed draft Convention finally just failed to gain the necessary two-thirds majority for adoption. Thereafter the question came before successive sessions of the Commission. On each occasion the seafarers pressed for early action, while the shipowners objected that the general economic crisis had so severely affected shipping that no reduction of hours could be contemplated.

For several years this deadlock continued. A suggestion that the regulation of hours should be placed on the agenda of the Maritime Session in 1926 was lost because both in the Commission and in the Governing Body the voting was evenly divided. Eventually the question was placed on the agenda of the 1936 Session, coupled with the question of manning. After a preliminary discussion at the preparatory meeting in 1935, a Convention based essentially on the eight-hour day for seamen was adopted in 1936. Owing to conditions immediately before and during the war, this Convention never received a sufficient number of ratifications to bring it into force.

The International Seafarers' Charter of 1944 contained demands for improvements in wages, hours and manning. When hours and manning were dealt with together in the

1936 Convention, the shipowners took the view that it was useless to attempt to regulate hours unless wages were regulated in the same instrument. They still held this view when the question was discussed by the Commission in 1945, and both sides agreed that an effort should be made to deal with wages, hours and manning together. There are many countries which do not normally legislate on wages and hours, preferring to leave these matters to be settled by collective bargaining within each industry. The international labour Conventions, however, usually require ratifying States to introduce legislation to give effect to their provisions. The Commission therefore urged that some means should be found whereby effect could be given to this particular Convention by collective agreement.

After a preliminary examination at the Copenhagen Preparatory Conference in 1945, the question of wages, hours and manning was the object of a very lengthy and at times heated and confused discussion at Seattle in 1946. A new Convention, replacing the 1936 text, was finally adopted and was modified slightly in 1919. It is noteworthy for two reasons. It is the only international labour Convention which fixes a cash figure for wages, and it was the first (along with two other Seattle Conventions) to make provision for ratification on the basis of collective agreements. These innovations, which may prove of great importance for future Conventions in other fields, have for the time being tended to be obstacles to ratification. The wage figure is fixed in two currencies, one of which has since been devalued; and a procedure is laid down for determining the equivalent in other currencies, but the possibility of violent and unexpected exchange fluctuations makes certain countries hesitate to accept this system. Others have doubts as to the wisdom of binding themselves for five years on the basis of collective agreements on wages and hours, which may be revised within that time and provide for conditions below the Convention standards. For these and other reasons therefore it cannot be said that an entirely satisfactory international solution for the problem of seafarers' wages, hours and manning arrangements has yet been found. Consequently, it may well be that this fundamental but thorny question will again appear on the agenda of the Commission.

Articles of Agreement Repatriation

The Genoa Conference adopted a resolution concerning the establishment of an International Seamen's Code which would, by means of Conventions and Recommendations, lay down standards regulating all aspects of seafarers' conditions of employment. During the past thirty years this task has been very largely accomplished. The first step suggested by the Genoa Conference was to codify internationally the rules concerning seamen's articles of agreement—their contract of employment which governs the conditions under which they serve. This highly technical question was discussed at several sessions of the Commission, which consulted a number of legal experts on it. A Convention prescribing the standard form and content of seamen's articles and the procedure for signing them was adopted in 1926 and has now been ratified by thirty countries.

The same session of the Conference adopted a Convention on the repatriation of seamen who for any reason are left behind in a foreign port. Draft proposals on the sub-

ject were considered by several sessions of the Commission before finally being submitted to the Conference. Nineteen Governments have ratified the resulting Convention.

Competency Certificates

In 1928 the International Merchant Marine Officers' Association drew the attention of the Office to a dispute arising out of a collision between the French vessel *Lotus* and the Turkish *Bozkourt*. The captain of the latter ship was found to have no certificate, and the Association pointed out that there should be some international rules requiring officers to be properly qualified for their work. The matter was clearly one which affected the safety of crews in the course of their employment. The Commission was therefore unanimous in proposing that action should be taken, with the result that a Convention was adopted in 1936, which has been ratified by twelve Governments. The details of the examinations whereby officers are granted certificates of competency are left to national legislation.

Two similar Conventions were adopted in 1946—one laying down rules for the certification of able seamen and the other for the certification of ships' cooks. In these cases also, the desirability of putting the items on the agenda of the Seattle Conference was previously discussed by the Commission in 1945.

Annual Holidays with Pay

The Joint Maritime Commission first discussed this question in 1927, but it was considered impossible to deal with it at the Maritime Conference in 1929, the agenda of which was already very heavy. The matter was raised again in the Commission in 1933, when the seafarers urged early action - if need be, at a general (non-maritime) session of the Conference - while the shipowners held that the question was not ripe for international action and that in any case it must be dealt with at a maritime session. Eventually the item was placed on the agenda of the preparatory meeting in 1935, and in the following year a Convention was adopted providing for a minimum annual holiday with pay of twelve days for officers and nine days for ratings. The Seafarers' Charter of 1944 called for a revision of this Convention to bring it into line with the progress made in many countries. As a result, the Commission accepted this as one of the items for the Copenhagen and Seattle Conferences, and a revised Convention was adopted, increasing the minimum length of the paid annual holiday to eighteen days for officers and twelve for ratings. A further minor revision took place in 1949. Three countries have so far ratified this Convention.

(to be concluded)

CORRIGENDA We must apologize to readers for the fact that a small number of misprints and omissions occurred in the text of our February issue.

The most important of these are as follows:

On page 20, line 4 of the footnote, the word 'ten' should be read before the word 'seamen's'.

On page 21, line 53 should have read '... the Commission for the appointment of substitute members when a personal substitute ...'

On line 60 of the same page, the words 'that decisions' should follow 'It was further decided at this session ...'

'Striking improvements' in Sofia railway station

LE SYNDICALISTE EXILE (The Trade Unionist in Exile) is a journal which prints information about trade union and social conditions behind the Iron Curtain. We are indebted to it for the item which follows.

In October last the Bulgarian newspaper *Trud* severely criticized the conditions under which railway employees were working at Sofia station. Since then the trade union committee and the station master have 'dealt with the matter', and the following, according to the 19 December issue of the same paper, are the present conditions, as a result of numerous conferences, resolutions and negotiations:

'The smithy is always full of smoke, like the repair shop. The engineers maintain that the smoke cannot be prevented under present conditions. There is too little space in the foundry, and the air is almost unbreathable. The electrical installation is not

properly insulated and the electric switches have no insulators. The electrician reports a complete absence of fuse boxes. The engine drivers wear rubber shoes which slip on the engine, and workers are exposed to accident risks.'

And has trade union and administrative action produced no results two months after the public announcement of this deplorable state of affairs? Oh yes! according to *Trud* of 19 December 1950 it has led to the following 'striking' improvements:

'All buildings at Sofia station have been painted a bright red, so that they can be seen from afar. The walls and all rooms have been adorned with slogans and portraits of the Communist leaders.'

And if the railwaymen in Sofia are not satisfied with now being able to see their station from far away and to admire the portraits of their masters, they must really be very difficult!

A glimpse behind the Iron Curtain

DURING THE WAR the Swedish railwaymen set up a Relief Committee that rendered help in a number of countries after hostilities ended. This was often of a permanent character: at Sotteville, for instance, there are seven Swedish timber houses and a big cooperative shop, a gift from the Swedish railwaymen to their French comrades in that sorely tried place. In Finland there is a children's hospital and in Norway a holiday home for children, set up by the Swedish railwaymen's Relief Committee.

Since 1946, too, the Swedish Railwaymen's Union has had relations with its counterpart in Hungary, and it was able to arrange for the Hungarians to buy a large quantity of surplus military stores for a token price, thus enabling them to equip 200,000 railwaymen. On that occasion representatives of the Union visited the Railwaymen's Hospital in Budapest and promised medical supplies that were badly needed. The matter was placed in the hands of the Relief Committee, and in January of this year a quantity of medical appliances, to the value of 50,000 Swedish crowns, was sent to Budapest. They were conveyed in a railway wagon that was granted diplomatic privileges during its journey behind the Iron Curtain. Henry Kjellvard, Editor of the Swedish Railwaymen's Union's journal *Signalen*, and Edvin Eliasson, Secretary of the Union, went to Budapest to hand over the supplies to the medical staff at the Hospital. In the 10 February 1951 issue of *Signalen* Kjellvard reports on his experiences:

'After the handing over, we two Swedes were invited to the offices of the *Hungarian Railwaymen's Union* which we had already visited in 1947. At the reception the President of the Union made a speech glorifying Stalin and Rakosi. That is of course, part of the usual ritual. After that we were each presented with a white marble plaque on which was sculptured the badge of the *Hungarian Railwaymen's Union*.

'Since I returned to Sweden many people have asked me why the Swedish railwaymen give help to a régime that exterminates those who hold other opinions than its own, terrorizing and imprisoning non-Communists. My answer is what I said quite openly and clearly in Budapest: that when a Swede gives a promise it is a matter of honour with him to keep it. The Hospital was

given a promise of help in 1947, before Hungary became one of Moscow's satellite states. I also said in Budapest, and I repeat it now, that in this muddled world, full of hate and mistrust, the railwaymen must be the last to give up trying to maintain relations between the peoples. Fellow-feeling is in a sad plight nowadays, but so long as it is still possible one must give expression to it, regardless of ideological differences.

'One little scene has struck in my memory. It was something that might have happened anywhere. Just as we were leaving the hospital a mother with a little girl three or four years old, left the row of waiting patients and brought it to the doctor. The child was crying as pitifully as only a sick and frightened child can. I thought to myself that perhaps there might be in one or other of the many Swedish cases we had brought something that might bring it relief ...'

'We have been asked to say something about our impressions, for naturally one brings back impressions even of so short a stay. One thing that very much impressed us was the number of times that people we met on our journey asked us - often in a lowered voice - when the war would break out, and what we thought about it generally. It is obvious that over there they are convinced that a war is inevitable and is drawing nearer. This fatalism gives one a feeling of constriction, in spite of the Picasso peace doves which one finds stuck up everywhere, and in spite of the slogan "We defend peace." The people have lost their belief in the possibility of peace.'

'And finally, how about the standard of living? We saw enough with our own eyes to be able to say definitely that materially the people - the little, ordinary people - find things difficult, even very difficult. It is a pity that railway carriages on the international lines are running almost empty. Only an occasional diplomat or courier is able to travel by them nowadays. It would be very useful if some of the discontented people who are always complaining how bad things are could have an opportunity of travelling there. They would come back to Trälleborg with their values completely changed. And of one thing I am quite sure - they would not want to change places.'

Norwegian Fishing Co-operatives

THE SALE OF NORWEGIAN FISH is almost wholly carried out through cooperative organizations, to which all the fishermen in a given area belong. The founding of these organizations, which took place mainly in the years immediately before the war, has been of great importance for the prosperity of the fishing industry and the raising of the living standards of the fishermen, who before their formation were one of the poorest and most exploited sections of the community. Under the conditions prevailing before the establishment of cooperative selling, fish prices were subject to tremendous fluctuations, so that the returns received by the fisherman from his efforts were little more than a gamble; the fishermen themselves had virtually no influence on the prices they received, which were settled by the local fish merchants, and rarely did more over a period of any length than just keep the fishermen alive. The fish merchants often had great power in their districts, as they were the only source from which fishermen could secure nets and other equipment on credit, and it often happened that fishermen had to mortgage boats, houses and even a

share in future catches to reimburse the merchants, so that the fishing population came into a state of complete economic dependence. The poverty of the fishing districts led in turn to their inability to provide normal social amenities, such as meeting halls, libraries, suitable school buildings, etc.

Cooperation among the fishermen, to better their conditions, began in 1915 in northern Norway, supported by the Landsorganisasjon (T.U.C.); some progress was made in the following years in developing cooperative selling of fish and purchasing of equipment for fishermen, but this had to be abandoned because of economic difficulties. The position of the fishermen was especially difficult in the inter-war years, as a result of falling prices and the resulting increases in the real burden of debts incurred when prices were high. Some State assistance was given during this period for the purchase of new boats and equipment, and also for the cultivation of new land, to provide fishermen with a supplementary source of income. The Government was sympathetic to the idea of forming a national fishermen's organization, and this was finally achieved in 1926, when Norges Fiskarlag was established, with the object of forwarding the interests of fishermen in all spheres, and especially in regard to the development of economic cooperation. Norges Fiskarlag is a non-political organization, though it has close links with the trade unions, and members of the Labour movement have taken and continue to take a leading part in its activities. Affiliated to it are 13 district organizations all round the coast, and there are a large number of local branches. The headquarters of the organization are in Trondheim. At the present time it has about 50,000 members.

Events proved that the fishermen were not strong enough to build up their own sales organizations, against the opposition of the merchants, without legal protection. A Government Committee which issued its report in 1937 recommended extensive State intervention, including a legal basis for organized marketing, State support for the setting up of factories for fish preservation, for the establishment of a fishermen's bank, etc. The first step towards compulsory organized marketing was taken in 1936, when a sales organization was established with legal backing requiring that the proceeds of all winter herring catches should be delivered to it. All who are engaged in this fishing must belong to the organization, and they are paid for their catches according to the average of the prices which the organization can secure; fish is sold at different prices in accordance with the use to which it is to be put. In 1938 a law was passed giving a legal basis for compulsory marketing for all kinds of fish. Under this law a number of cooperative selling organizations have been formed, covering the disposal of practically all the different seasonal catches round the Norwegian coast. The largest of these organizations covers the whole of the north Norwegian coast from Finnmark to south of Trondheim, and all members of the national fishermen's organization in the north are automatically members of this sales organization. The selling associations fix minimum prices, which must be observed



Gutting fish on board a Norwegian trawler

by both purchasers and fishermen; at the present time maximum prices are fixed by the State. The prices received by the fishermen are an average of the prices for which fish is sold for different uses, and transport costs are taken into account — i.e. the fishermen a long way from the market where the fish are sold receive a lower price than those near the market. Special selling organizations have been created to deal with the sale of fresh fish to the Norwegian home market.

Most of the preparation and drying of fish for export is still done by private firms, though the large cooperative sales organization in the north runs a fish products factory, and the herring sales cooperative has a herring oil factory. to be run on a cooperative basis. There is also a large fish preserving factory run by the State.

There is also a fishermen's cooperative society for the purchase of fishing equipment, most of which is imported, and plans are being worked out for it to establish its own factories for producing equipment - i.e. nets, line etc. Another cooperative society deals with bait supplies, arrange-

ments for which were formerly chaotic. This society has the sole rights of supplying bait over most of the country. Plans are now being worked out for the setting up of a Fishermen's Bank, which will assist fishermen with the purchase of boats and other equipment.

Although the movement for fishermen's cooperation has only been in existence for a few years, it has already revolutionised the conditions of life for fishermen; it has provided them with a much more steady and assured income, has greatly raised their standard of life, and freed them from domination by unscrupulous merchants. All the cooperatives are democratically organized, with elected boards of directors, and every member has the right to voice his opinion and make his wishes known. The fishermen's organization, Norges Fiskarlag, has shown great energy in encouraging all forms of cooperative effort, and it is likely that that will bring about a steady increase in the extent of cooperative influence and activities; in this it can count on the support of the Government.

Modern Norway, a Fabian Publication

Shortage of British radio officers

ALTHOUGH ALL MERCHANT NAVY OFFICERS have many things in common, the Radio Officer is particularly affected by conditions which apply exclusively to him as a result of the nature of his employment.

There are undoubtedly many advantages connected with the Radio Officer's job. However, there are likewise many disadvantages, and the drift from the sea and the scarcity of new entrants into the service rather indicate that on the whole it is felt that the disadvantages outweigh the advantages. It might be as well to consider this state of affairs.

Relations with employers are good. The employers' difficulties are understood and it is by no means suggested that they are little concerned about their sea staffs. Nevertheless, good intentions alone are not solving and will not solve the shortage problem.

This short article purports to consider objectively the reason for the scarcity of men. It is beyond its scope to discuss whether remedial measures are necessary or possible.

In the first place the seagoing Radio Officer's prospects are definitely poor compared with those of his colleagues in departments. It is, of other course, true that many Radio Officers have attained high positions ashore in the wireless companies, but it should be borne in mind that sea staff conditions are what are under consideration.

In other departments the promotion ladder is plain to see and one can count the rungs still to be climbed and roughly estimate how long it will take to climb them. In the case of the Radio Officer it is more like climbing a greasy pole. It will normally take the best part of thirty years before the Radio Officer is appointed in charge on a class 1 ship. Purely through the exigencies of the service his stay there be very brief and he may well find himself back on a Class 3 ship with a corresponding reduction in pay. He is most unlikely to be able to feel reasonably sure

of his position as a regular appointee in charge on top rate ships under about 33 or more years' service. When, at long last, he does achieve this distinction, he finds his pay and status somewhat comparable with that of the 2nd (Deck) Officer, who will have had about ten years' service behind him. Apprentices and Junior Engineers who started their careers at the same time as the Radio Officer are either Masters and Chief Engineers or are very near to those ranks. They will be senior officers. The Radio Officer, with few exceptions, will still be regarded as a Junior Officer.

The average youngster embarking on a new career is generally anxious to get on and plans to study to that end. The baker is not interested in whether his delivery man is an expert chemist or a good electrician. He pays for the delivery job. In the same way the wireless companies require only a certain standard from their Radio Officers and so long as the work is done efficiently they do not care whether or not the Radio Officer holds a dozen degrees and diplomas. His value to them is that of a Radio Officer. Therefore, if one wishes to reap the benefit from this study one simply must leave the sea for a shore appointment either with the wireless companies or elsewhere; otherwise there is only one's private and personal satisfaction in possessing these extra qualifications. They are quite useless as regards enabling a young man to advance rapidly to being in charge on a top rate ship. He will be just another Radio Officer and must wait his 30 or 35 years like anyone else.

There are other anomalies in connection with such items as accommodation, foreign service, Eastern Bonus and leave. Shore workers - and some seafarers - have a good idea well in advance of how much leave they will get and when it can be taken. The Radio Officer knows neither of these things. Even when he does get leave it is generally cautiously doled out a little at a time. He understands quite well

that the shortage of men accounts for this, but since it appears to be a more or less permanent feature he can hardly be reproached if he regards the matter with a certain lack of enthusiasm.

Radio and radar may become increasingly important in future years. The Radio Officer's status, pay, etc., may improve too. This is wishful thinking. The marine radio service has been in operation long enough for the merits

of the job to be weighed and the Radio Officer is concerned with things as they are to-day and not with speculation on possibilities in the remote future.

To sum up, it looks as if the reason for the present scarcity of men is that the prospects at sea are so poor and discouraging. Many will not enter the service on this account while others leave it at the first opportunity.

The Signal, organ of the British Radio Officers' Union.

Development of British fishing industry

THE DEVELOPMENT of a White Fish Authority for Great Britain, with an advisory council for Scotland, and also of a White Fish Advisory Council is provided for in the new British Sea Fish Industry Bill, the text of which was published during the first week of January.

The new Bill empowers the Ministries of Agriculture and Food and the Secretary of State for Scotland to advance to the Authority up to £10,000,000 at any one time over a period of ten years and to make grants of up to £1,000,000 for research work.

The Authority will further be empowered to operate fishing vessels, take shares in fishing companies, make regulations regarding the handling, stowage, landing and sale of white fish as well as to require production of records and inspect vessels, premises and vehicles.

Registrations of all persons engaged in the industry will be required and unregistered persons will be liable to a fine of up to £25. Vessels and vehicles kept by registered persons, and all fishing vessels of over 40 feet in length will require a licence.

A white fish industry fund will be set up and the Authority will be empowered to finance it by a general levy of not more than 1d. per stone of white fish landed in Great Britain each year. The Authority's receipts and expenditure will be paid into and out of the fund, and it may also impose levies for special schemes, charge fees for its services and borrow up to £15,000,000 outstanding at any one time.

Easier cargo handling from new ship design

THE BRITISH NATIONAL INDUSTRIAL ASSOCIATION has drawn up preliminary plans for a cargo ship designed to give economic cargo handling in peacetime and to expedite the handling of wartime goods. The propelling machinery is to be aft, a proposal which most ship designers would endorse as being logical.

There will be only four holds, having a total capacity of about 620,000 cu. ft., equally divided between the holds with the exception of the forward hold, which is of slightly less capacity than each of the other three. The arrangement proposed is, viewed from forward to aft, forepeak, a forward hold of normal ship shape, trimming tank between Nos. 1 and 2 holds, with bridge superimposed, Nos. 2, 3 and 4 holds, all completely rectangular in shape, cross bunker, machinery space and after peak. There will be two tweendecks each 12 ft. 6 in. in depth and a hold of about 20 ft. depth.

Most seamen's accidents slips and falls

ACCORDING TO THE ANNUAL ANALYSIS of injuries and illnesses prepared by the United States Marine Index Bureau, merchant seamen last year suffered more slips and falls than any other type of accident.

Licensed US seamen reported 156 slips and falls in 1950, unlicensed seamen 1,367 and passengers 167, bringing the total up to 1,690 or more than fifty per cent of the total number (3,023) of accidents reported.

Being struck by objects took the next heaviest toll among maritime workers in the accident figures by totalling 828. Of this amount, sixty-eight of the injured were licensed seamen, 746 unlicensed seamen and fourteen passengers.

Assault was reported as the cause of 399 accidents and intoxication was blamed for 106 mishaps, the lowest total of the four accident categories listed by the bureau.

ECA aids Indonesian fishing industry

ACCORDING TO INFORMATION issued by the Economic Co-operation Administration, part of the American aid granted to the Republic of Indonesia will be used to purchase sixty small native-type fishing vessels.

The purchase, which will be made in Japan and which calls for an outlay of some \$600,000, will comprise sixty motorized fishing craft and 100 engines ranging from seven to twenty horse power. An additional sixty-two vessels are to be constructed in Indonesian shipbuilding yards.

When constructed, about half of the fishing vessels are expected to operate out of Jakarta, thus more than doubling the number of fishing craft utilized in that area. The remainder are then to be allocated to the fishing ports of Surabaya, Semarang and Pontianak by the Fisheries Service of the government.

The ECA states that the Indonesian Government is making a determined effort to step up fish production and, at the same time, to lift the social and economic status of its fishermen, who, during the year 1949, caught a total of 420,000 metric tons of fish. With the exception of 200 tons exported, all fish caught was consumed in Indonesia itself.

Freight rates double since 1950

AT A RECENT MEETING of the British Chamber of Shipping, the newly-elected President announced that the Chamber's index number of tramp shipping rates for January was 151.9 (1948 equals 100) compared with 115.7 for December and with 78.8 for January 1950.

Human problems on Rhodesian Railways

DURING THE LAST THREE YEARS the traffic on the railways of Rhodesia has increased by leaps and bounds. Coal traffic is 30% greater than in 1947, that of oil 100%, tobacco 80%, chrome 87%, copper 60%. The administration has had to solve all kinds of problems in order to cope with this increase: secure rolling stock, build new yards, improve the track, reorganize and enlarge work shops, improve organization in order to make the fullest use of the equipment.

The expansion of traffic had its repercussions on railway staff. We quote from the *Rhodesian Railway Review*:

The numbers of staff have been increased as follows: Europeans from 4,992 to 6,781, or 36%; non-Europeans from 14,734 to 16,916, or 15%. These increases do not reflect the recruitment of new staff as, in common with so many other concerns, there is serious instability and wastage occur on a large scale. There is a fully organized recruiting campaign in the United Kingdom.

The pay bill has increased from £3,174,115 to £5,242,696.

Housing

Additional staff calls for housing on a large scale. Certain categories are normally, for service reasons, accommodated in Railway houses, but shortage generally, especially in N. Rhodesia, results in the Railway having to house many other employees.

No less than 570 houses have been provided over the period, and 670 single quarters and rest rooms have been built. Houses

may be scattered over many stations, but in certain large centres provision has resulted in the Railways providing complete townships with all that goes with them, e.g., roads, sewerage, electric networks, water supplies, etc.

Houses have recently been provided at the rate of over one per day, and this rate is still being stepped up.

Staff must be trained. A school with suitable equipment has been instituted and, though small, is producing good results.

African Labour

The most effective methods of stabilizing African labour is to provide suitable housing and amenities. No fewer than 2,552 African houses have been provided and the Railway has had imposed on it the obligation to provide housing and medical facilities, etc., for its African staff. Great progress has been made in the design of such housing and many come from far afield to study the Railway methods of tackling the problem. Welfare work has been instituted on a large scale.

African labour is notoriously unstable and unproductive. Job analysis and labour control have been closely investigated for some time by efficiency experts. To effect savings and obtain better service from such labour, mechanization is being introduced. In the Salisbury goods sheds, fork lift trucks have been in use for some time. Other schemes are under consideration and will, it is hoped, be introduced shortly.

United Nations European Road Office

Proposal submitted by the International Road Federation

WHEN THE ECE Inland Transport Committee's Working Party on Main International Traffic Arteries met at Geneva from 15 to 19 January last, it had before it a proposal submitted by the *International Road Federation* (IRF) for the establishment of a European road office.

The gist of the proposal was to guarantee the financing of international road construction work by earmarking for that purpose a proportion of the revenue derived by the Governments participating in the proposed office from road users in the form of various taxes on road traffic, vehicles and fuel.

The advantage of the plan, in the view of the *International Road Federation*, was that the financing of construction work would be covered partly by new money and partly by sums specially earmarked for that purpose, without the decision as to the allocation of sums to road construction being dependent – as was the case at present both as regards national financing programmes and financing by international loans granted to the individual State concerned – on the adjudication of the Finance Minister between various applications for funds to finance different branches of national activity.

In view of the fact that the Federation's proposal had been made at such a late hour, the Working Party confined itself to a preliminary exchange of views on the question. In the course of

this it was pointed out that the principle underlying the IRF's proposal – that certain Government revenue should be allocated to a particular purpose – would be likely, in most countries, to come up against constitutional difficulties rendering it incapable of realization or, at very least, to conflict with the generally accepted principle of non-divisibility of the budget. Nor did it appear possible to contemplate raising the office's funds by establishing a system of tolls.

It was, however, felt that a more detailed study of the problem of financing road construction through the agency of an international office should be made by the International Road Federation itself and the Governments.

An attempt should be made, in particular, to ascertain whether it might not be possible to base the office's funds on more than one source of income. For example, the office might be regarded as a financing medium whereby funds for financing the construction of main highways could be obtained on the international market.

The funds in question might be derived partly from Government contributions (on the understanding that the Governments would be free to make their own decisions as to the method to be adopted to raise the various funds), partly from international financial bodies and partly by calling on private capital.

The Working Party felt unable, at the present stage, to go further than these general observations. It was nevertheless of the opinion that the preliminary discussion had made it possible to define the scope of the problem and to single out several essential points on which the Governments should focus attention,

should they reach the conclusion that the basic idea underlying the Federation's proposal deserved consideration.

It was accordingly decided to submit the proposal, together with the observations made by the Working Party, to the next session of the Sub-Committee on Road Transport.

Indian railwaymen's problems

INDIA IS A VAST COUNTRY and Indian social problems are bound to vary, both in aspect and in gravity, from one region to another. These notes refer to an area and not to the whole of India, being culled from the journal of the Madras and Southern Mahrattah Railway Employees' Union. The M. & S.M. Railway employs some 75,000 men; 26,000 are members of the Union. In September 1950 the Open Line Branch of the Union held a meeting which was attended by 146 delegates out of a possible 186.

What did they discuss? The Union is proud of the fact that in its fight for justice it has never yet resorted to strike action and can, therefore, always confidently appeal to public opinion for support in its disputes with the Railway Administration. For that reason, it bitterly resents the Indian Government's plan to carry through Parliament an industrial relations bill which would deprive the Union of means of action available to trade union in democratic countries.

It resents further a Trade Union Bill that would deprive many railwaymen of the right to belong to a union.

The delegates criticized regulations which are so harsh as to threaten with jail those found guilty of infringement of working rules. They criticized the inequality of treatment given to men doing the same work, the ones for Indian State railways, the others for 'Port Trust Railways'. Reduction of staff is an ever recurring theme of discussion in Indian railway trade unions and causes many heartaches owing to the impossibility for dismissed men of finding another livelihood.

One resolution deals with the problem of cooperation between workers and management in dealing with staff questions and production problems. It reads as follows:

'This Conference feels that in the days of nationalization, railways are assets of the country and for an efficient running of the industry the workers should be made to feel that their interests are being cared for. This can be assured only by the constitution of consultative Committees where representatives of organized labour find a place and details to redress grievances and improve production are worked out'.

Here is a resolution which could have been adopted by a trade union body anywhere in the world, dealing with wages and prices:

'This Conference regrets to note the delay on the part of the Railway Board in implementing the recommendations of the Central Pay Commission in respect of the grant of Dearness Allowance based on the cost of living Index. Further this Conference is very much concerned at the fact that the undertaking given by the Government of India to the Federation as early as January 1949 to keep down the rising prices has not been kept. This Conference therefore urges the Government of India to review the position and grant Dearness Allowance based at the prevailing cost of living index on a flat rate with no variation in rates based on pay drawn.'

It would seem however that a wage and price policy alone is not enough for solving the ever worrying problem of how to

keep body and soul together. An increase in food supplies appears to be most imperative. We quote here the resolution which is headed 'Ration':

'This Conference feels that the reduction in the rice part of the ration to 6 oz. particularly to Railway staff hits them very hard and it is found difficult for Railwaymen to give out their best. This Conference therefore requests the Government of Madras to restore the rice part of the ration to 12 oz. as early as possible.'

Conditions of life and work seem to be hard indeed and to offer opportunities to the political exploiters of grievances and discontent. Two visitors at the meeting, the Deputy Mayor of Madras and a Councillor of Madras Corporation pleaded with delegates not to tolerate any sabotage, to seek redress of their grievances by constitutional means, to follow Gandhi's footsteps in adhering steadfastly to truth and non-violence.

That is in fact what the Union is doing. It is to be hoped that the Railway Administration and the government of India will do their bit by responding to the very reasonable resolutions adopted "in the grounds near Basin Bridge".

Infra-red rays reduce accident risks

INFRA-RED LIGHT, or 'black light' as it is commonly called, has been put to work to add to railroad safety. The infra-red rays are now being employed to inspect the axles of locomotives, tenders and cars.

Even the slightest crack or flaw in an axle may develop into a break and cause serious trouble on a railroad. Hence the necessity for an inspection of the axles to make sure that they are perfect. In the past, such an inspection has required manual handling of the heavy axles and has taken much time. The new automatic device permits an axle to be thoroughly inspected in a period of less than three minutes.

The axle to be inspected is first cleaned to remove any accumulation of grease and dirt. It is then placed on a bracket which feeds it by gravity onto several rollers. As the axle revolves slowly on these rollers, an oil solution containing tiny particles of iron is sprayed upon it. Starting at each end of the axle, two electro-magnetic coils move slowly over it toward the centre.

Meanwhile, the infra-red light is played on the axle. This causes the oil solution to glow with a phosphorescent light wherever there is a small flaw or crack. This slow rotation, combined with the slow sideward movement of the coils, allows the inspector to check all of the axle without any manual handling. As the inspection is completed, the axle is discharged from the rollers onto a conveyor, the whole cycle being completely automatic.

The traffic problem in Belgium

A critical note by Camille Huysmans

THE WRITER of this article is no stranger to the ITF and we have had many proofs of the very great interest he takes in transport questions and in our work generally. This article is yet another, and it is encouraging to learn that in the matter with which it deals his views coincide with the principles which the ITF has always enunciated.

We appreciate this very highly. An authoritative and influential voice such as his can contribute much to the enlightenment of the uninitiated, and to a proper solution of the important problem of the coordination of transport.

Camille Huysmans will be eighty years of age in May of this year. A very full life - he has trodden all the rungs of the ladder of political life in his own country, having been Burgomaster of the great city and port of Antwerp, Minister, and Prime Minister - and an advanced age have not dulled in any way the keenness of his mind.

We wish him luck, and hope we shall have many further proofs that his interest in transport problems is still alive.

OMER BECU

I RECENTLY TOOK ADVANTAGE of an opportunity to touch upon the traffic problem in Parliament, and to ask the Government a question concerning the large number of accidents which occur daily on our main roads. Nothing has been done about the matter since, probably because the responsible authority has its attention occupied elsewhere.

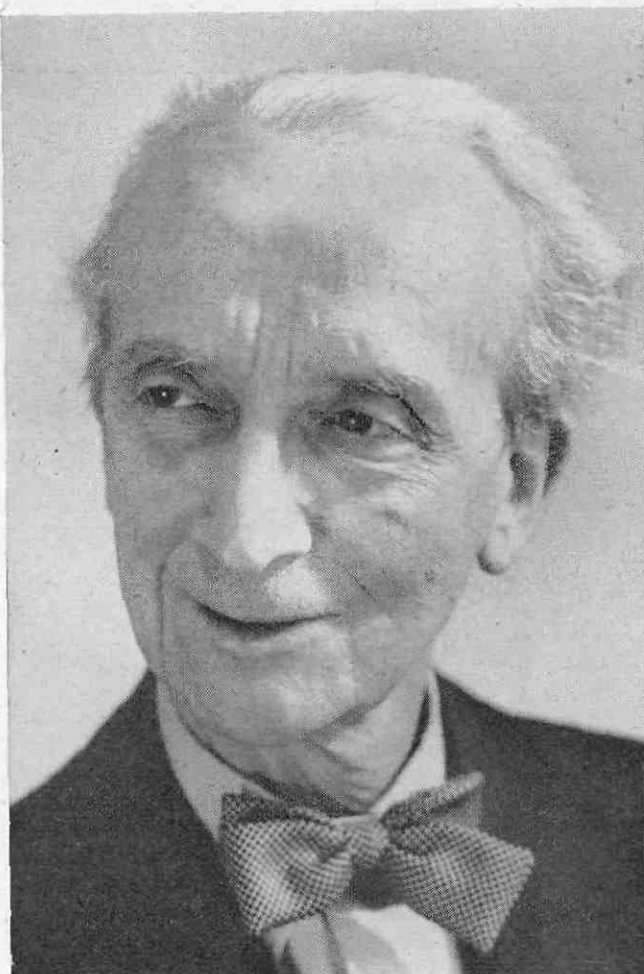
Some work is, however, being done on the improvement of the roads although often in a somewhat original fashion. As an instance of this we may take the road between Brussels and Antwerp, where the plans which were drawn up are not even being carried through to completion. It may be years before we may look forward to its being completed.

Today, however, I wish to draw attention to another aspect of this complicated problem, a problem which interests everyone who, like the writer, has had something to do with municipal affairs.

First of all we have the question of co-ordination. Why is it that transport is, and remains, so wretchedly disjointed? Why have we in Belgium an extensive network of local railways in addition to an even more extensive network of main-line railways? Is it not time to bring the two systems - which, when all is said and done, serve the same purpose - under one administration?

I am well aware of how the duality arose, and as a historical fact we must accept it. The local railways did meet a real need. Now, however, the time has arrived to go into the matter, examine the results critically and see what can be done to unify the system.

The second problem is that of the tram, which must now be regarded as a prehistoric means of transport. The tramways even find themselves unable to provide their passengers with a decent seat. The public is literally crammed and compressed into the vehicles, and the latest models have even been adapted in order to facilitate this process. The conductors have a seat - and good luck to them - but the present undertakings, both private and otherwise, treat the public



Camille Huysmans

with an unconscious shamelessness bordering on irresponsibility, especially since the last war. And the public does not complain! In fact, it even congratulates itself on having standing room. I do not know how long this situation will last, but I do know that there will be protests.

I am familiar with the type of argument which is advanced to justify this kind of exploitation. We are told that without it the operation of trams is uneconomic, and that it is preferable to have this kind of service rather than none at all. I cannot accept the argument. It may have had some validity a few years after the war, but we are now at the end of 1950 and the time for delay and waiting is past. The problem is a technological one and one that can be solved by providing better rolling stock.

The problem of the tramways must also be considered from another angle. Does the unmanoeuvrable tram still meet requirements - particularly in the big cities? I doubt it. Trams may still be all right in broad streets and avenues, but in the narrower streets of an old town they are a constant hindrance to other traffic.

What I have pointed out here is, of course, common knowledge. I am not saying anything new. However, I do think it necessary to urge the responsible authorities most respectfully to introduce the bills which are lying ready in their departments.

A discussion on the matter is now going on in the technical press, and the arguments used by the companies to justify existing conditions and their dilatory methods are truly remarkable. I should like to refer readers to the answer recently given in the monthly *Routes*, in support of the trolleybus as against the tram and in the interests of a means of transport which is more flexible and not bound to the rigid track that is everywhere such a hindrance to traffic.

In my humble opinion even the trolleybus represents only a temporary solution. The ordinary motor bus is gaining the upper hand in Europe, and there are good reasons for this development.

In short, whilst the local railways should become an organic part of the general service of the Belgian Railways - in other words they should be centralized, - local transport by tram, trolley and motor bus should, on the other hand, be decentralized and made subject to the local authorities, whether these be municipalities or voluntary associations of municipalities, and should be administered either directly or by that system of mixed enterprise under which private initiative collaborates with the public authorities.

By kind permission of *Volksgazet*, Antwerp.

Development of Canadian national railways

THE REPORT OF THE CHAIRMAN of the Canadian National Railways for 1950 states that nearly 80 million tons of freight were moved during the year. This figure represents some four per cent more than in 1949, despite the fact that there were lower loadings of pulpwood, livestock and grain. The fall in grain movements, it is stated, was caused by heavier shipments towards the close of 1949, and by the dollar scarcity in Great Britain, which has led to deferred deliveries of some wheat covered by the 1949-50 contract. The report further points out that passenger earnings show a decline over last year of about 10 per cent.

Further progress has been made on the Canadian National Railways in developing the use of Diesel locomotives. Eight locomotives of 1,500 horse-power were put into operation in the freight service between Montreal and the Lake St. John area, while eighteen 600 horse-power Diesel-electric locomotives were delivered for use on Prince Edward island, the first province to be served exclusively by this type of locomotive.

Three electric locomotives were also acquired for the suburban service from Montreal and much more Diesel-electric equipment is on order for delivery in 1951.

Greek withdrawals from the Panamanian registry

THE BRITISH SHIPPING JOURNAL *Fairplay* in its issue of 22 February reports that during the past year, many Greek vessels have been withdrawn from the merchant marine of Panama. These include: thirteen cargo ships of a total tonnage of 53,427 gross; three *Liberty* ships of 21,504 gross tons; four oil-tankers of 22,801 gross tons; a trans-Atlantic vessel of 10,375 tons; and four small vessels of 2,300 tons.

Some of the vessels in question were removed from the Panamanian registry, having been sold by the Greek owners to Dutch and other owners, who have registered this tonnage under the respective flags of their own countries. However, some owners have transferred their vessels from the Panamanian to the Honduran or Costa Rican flags.

During 1950, seven vessels of 21,307 tons gross under Greek ownership passed to the Costa Rican flag. These are the *Tela-*

mon, of 7,176 tons; the motor vessel *Chrys*, of 7,592 tons; the ss *Olga*, of 2,659 tons; the ss *Alikimarias*, of 744 tons; and two other units totalling 1,949 tons.

During the same period, Greek owners transferred to the Honduran flag thirteen cargo ships, six oil-tankers, a whaling vessel of 10,448 tons and twelve fishing corvettes with an aggregate of 9,840 tons.

Ratification of IMCO Convention by France expected

THE BILL WHICH WOULD AUTHORIZE the President of the French Republic to ratify the international convention of 6 March 1948 instituting the Intergovernmental Maritime Consultative Organization was adopted without debate by the French National Assembly during the last week of February. It is expected that the Bill will also be sanctioned by the second Legislative Chamber at an early date.

The convention, which was signed by the representatives of sixty-eight governments, will come into force only after it has been ratified by twenty-one countries, seven of which must each possess not less than one million tons gross of shipping. Up to the present, it has been ratified by these five countries: Canada, the United States, Great Britain, Greece and the Netherlands.

US teamsters and employers form joint defence group

SAN FRANCISCO LORRY DRIVERS organized in the ITF-affiliated Brotherhood of Teamsters have joined with their employers in an effort to help solve civil defence and other emergency problems. They have formed the California Trucking Emergency Council, composed of lorry drivers and teamsters throughout the state, to deal with 'all problems except those involving wages, hours and working conditions, that presently or may in the future confront the trucking industry in California with respect to the national emergency'.

Most areas of the state are setting up so-called 'disaster councils' to co-ordinate evacuation and protection activities in the event of bombing. The Trucking Emergency Council expects to have its entire transport set-up geared to be of assistance in such emergencies, thus preventing the chaos of haphazard lorry movements.

Health and Welfare of Seafarers

An international problem to be solved by international action

By Karl Evang MD Director-General, Norwegian Health Service; Chairman, Social Welfare Council for Norwegian Seamen

A brief account of the work done by the International Labour Office for the promotion of seafarers' health and welfare was included in the recent survey of thirty years of ILO maritime activity.¹ The following more detailed discussion of the special needs of seafarers in this respect is from the pen of an acknowledged authority on the subject. In the course of his article,

Dr Evang draws on Norwegian experience to illustrate what can be done in practice to meet such needs and makes suggestions for further international action. The ITF is indebted to the International Labour Office for permission to re-publish this extremely interesting study, which first appeared in the January issue of the 'International Labour Review.'

Introduction

IN EARLIER TIMES, DIETARY DISEASES were the dominant health problem at sea. Once beri-beri and scurvy had been overcome, venereal disease and alcoholism were generally thought of as constituting the most serious problems, but little by little it has become apparent that they are by no means the only ones. From almost every point of view - social, economic and medical - the seafarer occupies a peculiar position. It is true that efforts have been made, both nationally and internationally, to improve the situation by regulating conditions of work, providing increased protection against accidents, improving crew accommodation and raising health standards. Between the two wars, extensive work was done in these fields by the International Labour Organization; and the second world war was particularly instrumental in bringing forth attempts at new solutions to these problems.²

It is not the purpose of this article to discuss the many important Conventions, Recommendations and resolutions adopted by the International Labour Conference on maritime questions. I would wish rather to touch on certain aspects of seafarers' conditions which have been less frequently discussed and to give a few examples of how one country has attempted to solve some of the problems. Finally, my aim is to discuss the question of whether the time has not come for international co-operation in setting up an international health and social service for seafarers throughout the world. The step which was recently taken by the International Labour Organization and World Health Organization in establishing a joint committee on hygiene of seafarers would seem to reflect a growing realisation that the subject is now ripe for a greater measure of international action.³

It will be readily appreciated that the health and social conditions of the seafarer are a matter of international importance. Seafarers constitute a vast current of potential living contacts, moving at varying speeds from port to port. Even the smallest

coastal town or fishing village is visited from time to time by seafarers; some may be put ashore sick, some may have deserted their ship; and when they go they may leave behind seeds of infection, physical or mental, or children to be brought up. The time has come to ask whether this stream of living people, which from a health and social point of view is capable of being brought under control, is at present living under such conditions and receiving such care that reasonable protection is afforded both to the seafarers and to the millions with whom they come directly or indirectly into contact. I think it will be agreed that so far this protection has been given in much too hit-and-miss a fashion. Whether looked at from the national or from the international angle, the carrying of tuberculosis, smallpox and venereal disease—to mention only three important diseases to which seafarers are frequently subject—is in itself sufficiently serious to justify the modest outlay that would be necessary from each country as a contribution towards a satisfactory international health service for all seafarers.

From the international point of view, there is another aspect which is frequently overlooked. Seafarers occupy a key position in the vital supply channels between countries. This is particularly apparent during economic crises or during times of war, when a breakdown or a decline in the exchange of goods between countries may be of decisive importance. It is therefore necessary that seafarers as a class should be responsible, alert and informed, with high social and economic standards, and not readily to be led astray by demagogues. It is very easy for a seafarer to become denationalised, and yet not to become fully and truly internationalised. Having lost his roots in his own country without having an opportunity of establishing fresh ones in any other country, he feels himself neglected by everybody. The first and the second world wars produced examples of how this natural tendency towards denationalisation and personal bitterness could be exploited during a critical period.

Few things are more apt to create bitterness towards one's surroundings and the community than lack of proper care during illness or in other time of need. Sickness or injury usually hits a man unexpectedly without giving him a chance of making economic or other preparations to meet it. Any serious illness creates a feeling of impotence and dependence on others. If proper care is not given and if it appears that nobody feels any responsibility for such care, or if the illness means a prolonged break in working activity, the natural consequence in many cases will be lasting bitterness. The risk is particularly marked

1. See *International Transport Workers' Journal*, Vol XI, Nos 2 and 3: 'The Joint Maritime Commission of the ILO.'

2. Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol XLIII, No 4, April 1941, pp 401-414: 'Organization for Seamen's Welfare in Great Britain'; Vol XLVI, No 1, July 1942, pp 49-52: 'Organization for Seamen's Welfare in Canada'; Vol XLIX, No 1, January 1944, pp 52-56: 'Organization for the Welfare of Norwegian Seamen'; Vol 1, No 3, September 1944, pp 316-334: 'Developments in Welfare Work for British Seamen'; Vol LVIII, No 5, November 1948, pp 625-636: 'Seafarers' Welfare: Some Post-War Developments.'

3. For an account of the first session of this committee, of which Dr Evang is chairman, see *Industry and Labour*, (ILO) Vol III, No 2, 15 January 1950, pp 46-47

in seafaring because the special characteristics of this occupation render it more difficult than on land to make proper and reliable arrangements for medical care. The second world war brought increasing appreciation of the fact that seafarers form a section of the community whose social and health conditions must be given at least as much consideration as those of people on land. But much remains to be done.

Special Health Problems of Seafarers

Public health experts will know that it is not sufficient to apply the same rules and provide the same facilities for seafarers as for the population ashore. In many ways seafarers as a group are exposed to special risks of disease. This is obvious from the fact that the three basic factors in environmental hygiene - living accommodation, conditions of work, and diet - are essentially different at sea. It was a long time before this fact was properly appreciated, and many far-reaching national and international measures have been needed to bring about tolerably satisfactory conditions as regards these three fundamental factors. There are still a number of problems to be solved before the situation is completely satisfactory from a hygienic point of view, and it is in this field in particular that the continued work of the ILO may be expected to produce useful results.

As to the direct sickness risk, it is a commonplace that the seafarer, in his voyages from country to country, is exposed to varying conditions from the Arctic to the Equator. Everyone with experience knows that sudden climatic changes can in themselves impose a great strain, but the seafarer is at a further disadvantage in that he does not live in an unchanging environment exposed to much the same diseases as he is himself; every port at which he touches, every new member of the crew who is signed on, represents a new possibility of infection. Abrupt climatic changes and the special conditions of accommodation and feeding on board also tend to reduce his resistance to certain diseases. In spite of the existence of these special dangers, we have not so far arrived at any internationally accepted rules for the medical examination of seafarers on engagement or for their vaccination whilst voyaging from port to port.

The risk of employment injury is also higher among the seafaring population than in most shore occupations. This is partly because loading and unloading must very often be done at high speed under changing conditions and sometimes by primitive methods. Moreover, seafarers are often faced with unexpected situations, such as collisions, shipwreck, etc., forcing them, without preparation, to use tools and equipment with which they are not familiar. The rapid labour turnover in the occupation also prevents crews from becoming permanent trained teams, each member of which knows his colleagues' ways and abilities.

It is also a regrettable fact, which is seldom openly mentioned though known to all with experience, that the medical and hospital treatment provided for seafarers in certain ports often falls far short of the best professional standards. Some of the reasons for this are excusable. Language differences, for instance, make it very difficult for doctor and patient to understand each other, and the busy private practitioner of a port cannot always be blamed for not finding time to overcome this difficulty by recourse to an interpreter. Moreover, the departure of the ship is usually urgent, since any delay has serious economic consequences. The patient will probably be reluctant to be left behind and the doctor may not be able, even with the best medical means, to arrive at a final diagnosis within the short time avail-

able. Hence the treatment is often superficial; or the doctor takes a chance and lets the man leave with his ship unless it is quite obvious that he requires immediate treatment or isolation. These factors, which are inherent in the nature of the occupation, cannot be easily eliminated, but something might be done by good organization.

There is another matter, also rarely voiced in public, but which should be easier to put right. A number of the doctors working in various ports and treating foreign seafarers are incompetent. This may seem a rash assertion, especially coming from a medical man, and I would not have dared to make it if I had not personally had an opportunity during five years of the second world war to see at first hand cases in several ports throughout the world of what from the medical point of view can only be described as faulty treatment. Sometimes the cause was apparently a lack of medical judgment or of the necessary facilities for proper diagnosis. In other cases, however, it was difficult to avoid the conclusion that the purely commercial motive had been given too much play, so that the seafarer or the person responsible for paying on his behalf was subjected to direct economic exploitation without receiving the equivalent medical value. It is true that, in the larger ports at least, the consuls of certain countries have tried to establish contacts with the medical profession and can thus refer the master of a ship to a good doctor. Very often, however, the consuls will have no medical knowledge and will have difficulty in judging the medical standards of a physician or a hospital. It cannot be said that this system has always proved satisfactory, even in ports where there are permanent consulates.

It would be possible to cite many shocking examples of what seafarers have gone through as a result of incorrect treatment, and examples of extortion from the person responsible for payment. One instance must suffice as an illustration. A ship arrived in a large port and was visited by the doctor who normally treated seafarers of the nationality in question. Nobody on board had felt ill when the doctor arrived, but before he left he had made appointments with three men to remove their appendix and with six others to be X-rayed. It so happened that the doctor, in addition to being a surgeon, ran an X-ray institute. Next morning, he removed the three appendices and took the six X-rays. In due course, the ship received a fat bill, for which in this particular instance, the owner was responsible. But whether it be the owner or the individual patient who is liable to pay the bill, there can be no justification for such extortion by a medical man. Still more shocking are the instances in which seafarers suffering from contagious tuberculosis are sent back to their ships after superficial examination, or where completely inadequate treatment is given for syphilis, or where a doubtful case of cancer is not kept back for proper examination.

Do not misunderstand me. I am not suggesting that all physicians practising privately in ports all over the world, and all hospitals to which seafarers are admitted, are of a low medical standard or tainted by commercial motives. Fortunately, this is not the case, and certain countries have already taken action to try and improve such conditions where they exist. Many port doctors are able and have a high ethical standard, and many hospitals are efficiently run. Nevertheless, my experience is that the exceptions are still so frequent that a cleaning up of these conditions is necessary.

One point that must not be overlooked in this connection is that medical and hygiene standards differ from country to country, as do doctors' methods and their views on treatment, medi-

cines, etc. It would be utopian at present to expect the medical standards in all ports to be up to the level of the most advanced countries; nor should the seafarer expect every physician to write him a prescription for the same cough mixture he usually has at home. In my opinion, however, international co-operation on health questions has now reached a stage where a degree of international regulation in this field is necessary and possible.

Mental Hygiene

So far, we have in mind mainly physical illnesses, but just as important and interesting problems arise in connection with the mental health of seafarers. Reference is frequently made to the seafarer's irregular and often long absences from his country, his family and his loved ones, and the importance of this cannot be exaggerated. Everyone has a fundamental need for human roots and contacts which should, to some extent at least, be stable and, as far as possible, permanent. For shorter or longer periods the seafarer is cut off from such contact, and time and again he has to readjust himself when he comes back to a sweetheart or wife who, like himself, has in the interval been subject to new and different impressions. Or he may be returning to children who have changed since he last saw them and on whose development he feels he has too little influence. Neither in his home nor in his work does he have a fixed, unchanging environment. Sooner or later there are changes in the crew, so that his friendships on board are rarely other than temporary, with single individuals or with small groups. Nor must it be forgotten that a seafarer at work usually lives in an artificial, wholly masculine environment which has no exact counterpart in any other occupation. Anyone not wilfully ignoring the difficulties knows that this involves a heavy strain on the seafarer's emotions and instincts. Seafaring as an occupation does not provide the normal opportunities for the all-round healthy expression of the basic instincts in sex life. In fact, there is little satisfactory opportunity for developing the whole social side of human instincts, and the cats, dogs, parrots, etc., which a seafarer often keeps as pets are but a poor substitute on which to lavish his love and protection.

A reference must be made again to the question of denationalisation. I do not wish to be misunderstood as glorifying nationalism as such. Narrow nationalism is a fetter, and there have been so many crimes against the individual and against nations in the name of nationalism that constructive internationalism has become a *sine qua non* for humanity. The individual needs a link with some form of culture and with certain spiritual values, which up to the present have been most easily accessible through his own nation. That does not mean that seafaring does not provide an opportunity for constructive international work in the field of health and welfare which could supplement the existing national ties.

One of the most important problems in the sphere of mental hygiene is alcoholism. There are those who even consider it *the* problem of seafarers, but in my view this is an exaggeration. On the average, seafarers probably drink far less than large groups of the population on land, simply because they normally drink little or nothing while working at sea. It is during their visits ashore that alcohol plays too large a part for many.

The fundamental point is that seafarers, like most other persons, drink not for the sake of drinking but for other reasons. 'Everybody says Jeppe drinks, but nobody asks why Jeppe drinks', wrote the famous Norwegian-Danish playwright Ludvig Holberg. Because of the characteristics of his occupation, the seafarer visiting a foreign port is in a particularly unfavourable



The Norwegian Seamen's Centre in New York

and mentally unbalanced situation. As has just been mentioned, he has been deprived of the opportunity to live a normal sex life and he has not been able to find an outlet for his natural desire to love and protect. He has lacked that access to cultural values on which others can easily draw. When he comes ashore after the more or less complete spiritual barrenness and isolation on board ship, he has of necessity—consciously or unconsciously—acquired an overwhelming need for human contacts in the widest sense and for social, cultural and sexual satisfaction in the narrower sense. Conditions, however, are unfavourable for him: he may not know the language; the port is strange; people and general conditions are foreign to him. This often forces him to seek a short cut, and alcohol often seems a suitable means. Again, he may need to overcome certain complexes and dull his critical faculties so as to obtain some satisfaction from the substitutes available in a foreign port. He may have been received at his own consulate in a way which gives him the impression that no one is interested in him. Drink is then an easy comforter, even if, in the long run, it provides no real solution. Drinking among seafarers is therefore not a matter for sermonising or self-righteous condemnation. It is first and foremost a question of discovering how far their needs can be satisfactorily met without obliging them to poison themselves in order to be able to put up with substitutes. It must be done in such a way that the seafarer will not have to undergo spiritual degradation or even a split in his emotional life, as he so often does at present. It is admittedly difficult to reach this goal, but much could certainly be done.

The problems discussed above are already familiar and have been tackled both nationally and internationally. There is no need to dwell here on the efforts made by the International Labour Organization in many of its Conventions and Recommendations dealing with various aspects of the welfare of seafarers. These certainly provide a great amount of guidance, but experience shows that it is not always easy to apply them fully in practice. It may therefore be of interest if I outline broadly what has been attempted in this field in Norway.

A Contribution towards Practical Solutions

The efforts made in Norway in recent years to build up machinery for safeguarding the welfare and health of seafarers are based partly on the work carried on for many years by volun-

tary religious and charitable organizations, by trade unions and shipowners, and partly on experience gained in the second world war. It is not suggested that the methods adopted in Norway will suit all nations or all conditions, nor do we claim to have found final and ideal solutions. This is a field where many different methods must be tried out, and Norwegian experience may provide useful guidance for other countries. The following deals separately with welfare work and the health service.

Welfare Work for Norwegian Seafarers

Administration and Finance

Official action to promote the *welfare* of seafarers began during the recent war and the present system is based on an Act of 13 December 1948 which set up a Social Welfare Council and a Social Welfare Fund for the Norwegian merchant marine. The amount of the Fund is fixed at ten million Norwegian crowns, and the income is derived mainly from fees paid by all Norwegian seafarers liable to sickness insurance. The monthly contribution is 2.40 crowns a head; the seafarer himself and the shipowner each pay one quarter of the contribution, whilst the State pays one half.

The activities of the Fund are controlled by the Council, a body composed of eight members appointed by the Government for a term of three years. The writer is the present chairman, and the Chief of the Maritime Division in the Ministry of Commerce is vice-chairman. The other members of the Council are representatives of seamen, ship's officers, shipowners and the Seamen's Church, one member being a woman. The Council has decided that three million crowns should be set aside as a reserve fund and seven million crowns kept available for establishing permanent welfare agencies for seafarers. It has a comparatively free hand, but must submit an annual report to the Storting through the Ministry of Commerce. The executive work is carried out by a Social Welfare Office and local welfare committees, with a permanent staff of officials. The main activities, which are briefly reviewed below, include the operation of hotels, clubs and reading rooms as well as more general welfare work, in particular, sports and education.

Operation of hotels and clubs

A fundamental part of welfare and health work for seafarers must always be the provision of food and accommodation at reasonable prices in ports. Space does not permit me to enlarge on the many and complex problems which arise. Everyone knows that much of the existing boarding house activity in ports is far from satisfactory, from whatever point of view. The Norwegian Welfare Council therefore operates at present seven seamen's hotels or boarding houses of different sizes. Wherever possible, the hotel is situated at some distance from the harbour and run like an ordinary hotel, where a seafarer can enjoy the freedom and get the kind of service which any other traveller would normally expect to receive. Consequently the hotels generally serve beer and wine. They have no set closing time at night or other restrictions. Reading and recreation rooms are installed, and the hotel is used as a starting point for all other welfare activities in the port. The prices charged must be such that the hotels can compete satisfactorily with existing boarding houses; this usually means that the hotels are operated at some loss and need to be subsidised out of the funds available for welfare. Since it is obvious that a single country alone can only satisfy the demand in a few ports, there is room for international co-operation. But this is not so simple a matter as might at first be thought, because it is difficult to combine international hotel operation with the preservation of those distinctive national features which form the chief attraction of these institutions for many seafarers. International management also involves serious administrative difficulties, so that the most practical solution would probably be to combine the operation of each hotel or similar undertaking by one country, or by two closely related countries, with suitable arrangements for reciprocal service for seafarers of other nations.

In ports where it is not possible to set up a hotel or where the number of seafarers is so small that a hotel is scarcely necessary, useful service can be rendered by the provision of clubs and reading rooms without sleeping accommodation. Four such reading rooms and clubs are at the present time being operated as independent units.

to be concluded

The position of Civil Aviation in Germany

THE ADMINISTRATION, by the Military Security Board, of German activities in the field of civil aviation has recently been defined by the Allied High Commission for Germany.

Powers in this field are reserved to the Occupation Authorities by the Occupation Statute and prohibitions against the employment of German pilots, the manufacture in Germany of aircraft or aircraft engines and the possession or operation of aircraft by German nationals or German organizations continue.

The financing of civil airports will remain on a local basis. Licenses for German acquisition or ownership of an airport are only granted by the Military Security Board to a state government, a municipality or a combination of such.

Germans under the supervision of the Occupation Authorities can, however, work in such aeronautical activities as passenger and freight handling, repair and maintenance of aircraft and ground facilities - including communications and other aids to navigation. The operation and maintenance of radar equipment by German nationals is, however, excluded.

New aircraft navigating instrument

AN AERIAL NAVIGATING MACHINE which automatically shows a pilot the position of his aircraft on a map is to go into quantity production in Great Britain. The Flight Log, as the instrument is called, is a version of the standard Decca Navigator and consists of a map fitted in a case about the size of a large cigarette box.

A pointer records the track of the aircraft on the map, and on a medium distance three maps could be used - one of the airfield of departure, one of the route and one of the arrival point. The change from one map to another normally takes less than three-quarters of a minute. Electrical impulses mark off regular time intervals on the map so that the pilot of an aircraft can make a quick check of his speed over the ground and his estimated time of arrival at destination.

The map unit can be fitted to the dashboard or anywhere else in the aircraft. Light in weight, the entire airborne set weighs less than 125 lb. and takes up 3 cu. ft. of space.

Tests have shown that, by its use, an aircraft can be flown to within 250 yards of the end of a runway when conditions are good.

The Work of the British Road Haulage Executive

by Lord Hurcomb CBG KBE

During the month of January, Lord Hurcomb, CBG, KBE, Chairman of the British Transport Commission, made the following statement on the progress of British Road Services

THE ORGANIZATION of British Road Services is now broadly complete, and 1951 will be a year of consolidation. In under three years they have merged some 2,900 separate road haulage concerns into a national network, comprising some 40,000 vehicles based upon 1,000 depots and subdepots, and employing 75,000 persons. Generally speaking, we claim that this large organization - the first of its kind attempted in any country - is working smoothly. The aim has been to decentralise. The depot and group managers themselves deal direct with the trader who requires road transport. They arrange rates and they are responsible for laying on the service required. Practically all of them have come from the road haulage industry.

Organization

In the new national organization the haulage facilities, which, if predominantly long-distance, the Executive were required to take over as they stood, have necessarily been regrouped, and they have been regrouped on a territorial basis in a way that did not previously exist. This was a most difficult task for the Executive. It has been accomplished with virtually no interruption to essential services. It will give traders and manufacturers all over the country the most flexible and easily accessible road transport out of the resources available. The new operational units consist of between 100 and 200 vehicles. This may seem a small fleet, but it is much larger than those of the private hauliers and will still enable close individual contact to be maintained with customers.

Traffic

To give an idea of the job British Road Services are now doing: over the course of 1950 the total number of vehicles operated (38,566 at December 3rd) fell slightly by 0.3 per cent, but the monthly tonnage lifted increased by 6 per cent to 3.7 million tons in November. Between the beginning and end of 1950, loaded miles run rose by 20 per cent. Out of 59 million vehicle miles run by British Road Services vehicles to November, only 10 million (under 17 per cent.) was empty mileage, a figure which compares favourably with good practice under private enterprise, and disposes of the allegation that a large proportion of vehicle journeys of British Road Services lorries are unloaded. In all transport there are inevitably many unbalanced traffics.

It is not denied that there have been stresses and occasional lapses of service during this arduous and unprecedented process of reorganization. But the complaints should be viewed in the perspective of the total of nearly 2 million consignments carried by British Road Services every week of the year. We are always ready to examine promptly and carefully complaints about delay or inadequate service either from individual traders or individual bodies.

Original permits

The organization has reached a stage when the Executive are

confident that they can take in their stride the traffic represented by the 5,000 or so original permits which will not be renewed when they terminate in the near future. They have looked at the whole position realistically in the light of their duty under the Transport Act, but not without due consideration for those hauliers affected. They have not revoked permits for the sake, as it is sometimes suggested, of putting competitors out of business. Sooner or later they have no option under the Act but to take over these traffics, and no choice but to acquire the haulier's business if he so requires and can show substantial interference, and to pay the specified compensation.

The Executive's first criterion at every stage has been to serve the needs of trade and industry while carrying out the intention of the Act, which is perfectly clear. In this spirit the Executive have looked particularly at the special needs of particular localities, including the needs of farmers in relation to the present resources of British Road Services in agricultural districts. For example, they have in principle agreed to renew the permits of certain hauliers at present employed by farmers where there is reasonable doubt whether at this stage the Executive can provide the kind of service which these farmers require.

In the same way they are prepared to look sympathetically at cases where it has been represented to them that the existing original permit under notice of revocation has authorised some regular operation slightly in excess of 25 miles and which forms an integral part of the operator's normal short-distance activities. Again, an agreement was recently reached with the Association of Furniture Removers whereby furniture removers who can show that certain of their usual activities have been carried on more or less continuously since before November 1946, will be offered a permit which is valid for three years.

Of course, emergency and unforeseeable calls for road haulage are always likely to arise, particularly in connection with defence orders. For this purpose the Executive can and do issue job permits where they are unable at once to give an essential and special transit.

It is often said that the Executive are revoking original permits because they cannot face the competition of independent operators. In fact, of course, revocation is part of the process of 'deferred acquisition' of long-distance haulage laid down by the Act, by means of which all long-distance traffic, with a few specified exceptions, is brought under the control of the Commission, subject always to the payment of reasonable compensation.

It is also complained that an independent operator has to apply for a permit to his chief competitor, the Executive, who are alleged to be judges in their own cause. The truth is that the original permit system was designed to space out acquisitions and to allow the holders to continue to operate until the Executive are ready to take them over.

Neither the Commission nor the Executive were established to administer a permit system on a quasi-judicial basis, but to decide administratively at what date they were able to assume

the full responsibility for all long-distance haulage for hire or reward which Parliament has laid upon them.

Staff

This national haulage organization has not been built up without full regard for the welfare and fair terms of employment of the personnel who compose it.

During the last three months of 1950 the Executive have negotiated three national agreements for rates of pay and conditions of service, covering their clerical, operating and engineering staffs. Some 70,000 of the staff are covered by these agreements. Standard rates of pay and conditions of service did not exist in the road haulage industry for clerical and engineering staffs, and the signing of these agreements marked an important step in welding together the personnel of the new organization.

Some time ago the Executive realised that it would be necessary to train staff to understand the wider implications of their work than can be gained merely from their routine duties day by day. In order to provide this opportunity, the Executive, with the Commission's approval, decided to set up a staff college at Watford, at which courses for management at all levels will be given. The college is due to open early this year. It represents an important investment in training and education, and we believe that it will have far-reaching results in that it will lead to greater efficiency.

Economies

On January 1st, 1951, a national insurance scheme covering British Road Services came into operation. This was negotiated with the whole of the British insurance market through a panel of insurance brokers; it covers third-party liability in respect of all Road Haulage Executive vehicles, the Executive's liability for goods they carry and certain other risks, and the size of the transaction can be gauged from the fact that the total premium will be nearly £1 million. The Executive had inherited thousands of policies with differing terms and conditions and rates of premium, and the simplification now achieved is tremendous and the economies substantial. The plan took a year to formulate and negotiate, and when it is remembered that this was just one of hundreds of problems that faced the Executive as a result of their acquisitions, the size of their task as a whole can be appreciated. We have been glad to utilise the services of the insurance market in this way, but the Commission will keep their insurance policy under constant review, and we shall take care we do not pay premiums disproportionate to the risks, as experience discloses them.

On the engineering side, it should now be possible to effect substantial economies by putting maintenance, repairs and overhauls on a systematic and more economical basis. The appointment of Mr G. F. Sinclair as an additional member of the Executive emphasises our sense of the growing magnitude of this side of the work.

Many of the accounting 'systems' inherited from small undertakings were rudimentary. Now that accountancy is based on larger units it can be properly systematised and mechanical methods introduced. However the availability of machines is still a limiting factor.

The Executive were compelled to acquire an ill-assorted mass of stores. Even those road haulage undertakings which had their stores under proper systematic control accumulated large quantities of stores of all sorts and descriptions. The capital sunk in stores was out of proportion to real requirements, especially

to those of a consolidated undertaking. But we have had to pay for them. These acquired stores are gradually being sorted out; unwanted stores are being disposed of, and useful stores are being brought under proper control.

Many premises inherited from acquired undertakings have proved totally unsuitable for operating under the new conditions. New premises must be found, or existing premises adapted or extended. It is impossible to operate vehicles efficiently in cramped depots, and the greater concentration of vehicles in reasonably spacious depots will undoubtedly produce better financial returns in the long run. And this is a direction in which the Railway Executive, and in some cases the Docks and Inland Waterways Executive, with their extensive land and properties, can be and have been of the greatest assistance in providing accommodation for the Road Haulage Executive for joint use. Co-operation and coordination between the Executives can frequently be facilitated where a site is shared.

Traffic Experts conclude meeting on road signs

ACCORDING TO A REPORT appearing in the *United Nations Bulletin*, a group of six international experts on road traffic questions have concluded a series of meetings devoted to the task of devising a single world-wide system of road signs and signals to replace the two main systems – the international or European system, and the American system – now in use.

The group of experts from Turkey, India, Southern Rhodesia, France, Chile and the United States was chosen by the Secretary-General at the request of the United Nations Transport and Communications Commission, to undertake the job of studying the problem of road signs and signals, and to prepare a draft convention incorporating a single world-wide system.

In their progress report, which will be transmitted to the fifth session of the Transport and Communications Commission, the experts recognized the necessity of unifying the road signals and signs on an international basis, but at the same time also realized the difficulties involved in implementing any decision on a world-wide scale.

The European and American systems, the report points out, have been developed after long experience and research and any change would raise the problem of financial investment and the re-education of the people accustomed to the systems now in force. It was therefore agreed that the process of change would have to be gradual.

The group of experts considered that the uniform system of road signs should contain three categories: danger signs, regulatory signs giving definite instructions, and guide or informative signs. The group recommended in its report that its second session should be held towards the beginning of the summer of 1951, in Geneva.

Canadians ask curb on Japanese fishing

IN A RESOLUTION passed by the Canadian Fisheries Council, the Government has been asked to conclude a fishing treaty with Japan which would prevent the Japanese from fishing in areas adjacent to Canadian shores.

The council states that a repetition of pre-war Japanese fishing off the west coast of Canada could virtually destroy salmon and other fisheries.

The Joint Maritime Commission of the ILO

Its Origins, Procedure and Work (III)

Social Security

The first maritime session of the Conference, in 1920, adopted a Convention providing for the payment of an indemnity to seamen during any period of unemployment resulting from shipwreck, up to a maximum of two months. This is one of the most striking instances of the influence of ILO Conventions, for it has been ratified by twenty-nine countries, few, if any of which had any legislation guaranteeing such a right to seafarers when the Convention was adopted. In 1923, the Commission had before it a resolution of the General Conference asking it to consider the establishment of a comprehensive system of social insurance for seamen. The Commission asked the Office to study the question, but postponed definite action until the results were known of discussions pending before the Conference on social insurance for workers in general. After various further discussions by the Commission, the Conference adopted Conventions on the liabilities of shipowners towards sick and injured seamen (1936), sickness insurance for seamen (1936), social security for seafarers (1946) and seafarers' pensions (1946). In the case of the 1946 Conventions, preliminary drafts were prepared, at the suggestion of the Commission, in consultation with a small committee of experts on social security from seven countries, together with four representatives of each group of the Joint Maritime Commission.

Health and Welfare

The International Labour Organization and its constituent bodies have shown a keen interest in the health and welfare of seamen for many years, beginning with the Genoa Conference resolution in 1920 which urged the Health Section of the League of Nations to take measures internationally for the prevention and free treatment of venereal disease among seafarers. When the Joint Maritime Commission met for the first time at the end of the same year, it agreed unanimously to request the Office to continue to study the questions of health and welfare. And, as already mentioned, the Conference in 1921 dealt with certain aspects of health protection when it adopted Conventions concerning the minimum age of trimmers and stokers and the medical examination of young persons seeking employment at sea.

The question of health was again discussed by the Commission at its Second and Third Sessions, and the members were informed of the progress made by the Office in collecting information on conditions in various maritime countries, and of the negotiations which had taken place between the several interested international agencies to give effect to the resolution adopted at Genoa. In 1924 the Public Health Office, in co-operation with the Belgian Government, the Red Cross, the International Union against Venereal Diseases, and the International Labour Office, drew up an agreement, known as the Brussels Agreement, by which the signatories undertook to grant free treatment, drugs and hospitalisation to seafarers, of whatever country,

who were infected with venereal disease. This agreement has been ratified and applied by a high proportion of the leading maritime countries.

The Commission continued to study problems of health and welfare, and set up a small subcommittee to examine proposals, made by the International Red Cross and by the Norwegian shipowners' members, for improved welfare facilities ashore. The subcommittee submitted two reports, which were duly considered by the Commission. The 1929 Session of the Conference reached unanimous conclusions on a list of points on which Governments could be consulted with a view to the adoption of an international instrument at a later session. At the next maritime session, in 1936, a comprehensive Recommendation on seamen's welfare in ports was adopted. Governments have twice been asked by the Governing Body to make reports on the extent to which they have given effect to the Recommendation, and their replies make it clear that the Recommendation has led to great improvements in the welfare facilities for seafarers in many countries. The replies of the Governments were reviewed by the JMC at its sessions in 1942 and 1947.

In 1945, when the Commission was considering the points in the International Seafarers' Charter on which the ILO might take action, it suggested consideration of three items which have a bearing on welfare: medical examination, crew accommodation, and food and catering on board ship. After discussion at the Copenhagen and Seattle Conferences, Conventions were adopted on all three subjects. The Convention on crew accommodation, which prescribes in considerable detail the requirements to be fulfilled as regards sleeping accommodation, mess and recreation rooms, ventilation, heating, lighting and sanitary facilities, has already been ratified by five countries and has had a considerable influence on the planning of the crew quarters in new ships.

In 1947 and 1948 the Commission turned its attention again to the health aspects of seafarers' welfare and voiced the hope that the Office would co-operate with the World Health Organisation in this matter. Soon afterwards, that Organisation proposed that a joint committee should be set up with the ILO on hygiene of seafarers. This proposal was accepted by the Commission and by the Governing Body, a committee was set up and the four ILO representatives on it are members of the Commission, two from each group. The committee held its first meeting at the end of 1949 and explored the ground, selecting as subjects for early study: examination of seafarers for the detection of tuberculosis; prevention and treatment of venereal disease; permanent medical records for seafarers; medicine chests on board ship; medical advice by radio to ships with no doctor on board. It would seem that the committee has before it a wide field of work in which it can do much to promote the health of seafarers.

Safety Questions

The general question of safety of life at sea is one which goes beyond the scope of the International Labour Organi-

sation, since it concerns the passengers as well as the crew. But from the point of view of the crew, safety is one of the aspects of their conditions of employment, and as such it falls within the purview of the ILO and has frequently been discussed by the Joint Maritime Commission. During its Fourth to Seventh Sessions, the Commission discussed the desire of various shipowners' and seafarers' organizations to obtain representation at conferences dealing with safety at sea, but it was unable to reach agreement on an acceptable procedure for securing this. Similarly, no agreement was reached in 1928 on representation for these organizations on the national delegations to the Safety of Life at Sea Conference of 1929. However, when the next such conference was held in 1948, the ILO was invited to be represented, and six members of the Commission (three from each group) were appointed to attend the Conference, in which they took an active part. That Conference, in addition to revising the Safety of Life at Sea Convention, adopted a resolution calling on the ILO and the Intergovernmental Maritime Consultative Organisation (when constituted) to co-operate in studying the question of manning in its relation to the problem of safety.

The Commission has also at various times made a valuable contribution to certain specific aspects of safety. In its early years it appointed a subcommittee to study the question of deck cargoes, particularly wood. Lack of proper precautions in the carrying of such cargoes had been a frequent cause of accidents at sea. The rules eventually recommended by the Commission on this subject were transmitted to Governments and have been widely applied. In the course of its study of the question, the Commission was struck by the lack of uniformity in national statistics of shipwrecks and loss of life at sea. It was able to recommend a standard form for statistical returns in this field, and the form was sent to Governments for their guidance.

Another safety question discussed by the Commission related to the rules concerning load lines. Many of the Commission's suggestions were incorporated in the revised Load Line Convention drawn up in 1930, which also included new rules on deck cargoes in accordance with the Commission's suggestions. The Commission was also consulted by the Governing Body on the maritime aspects of two questions which were to be discussed by the General Conference: the marking of the weight on packages to be transported by sea; and safety provisions in the loading and unloading of ships.

In 1942 the Commission discussed the special question of the safety of seafarers in wartime. In the light of an Office summary of certain national rules on life-saving appliances and of members' firsthand knowledge of the problem, the Commission drew up a list of technical life-saving measures, which were widely applied during the latter years of the war.

Transfer of Flag.

The implications for seafarers of the transfer of the ship on which they work to the flag of another country were first brought to the attention of the Commission in 1933 by the International Transport Workers' Federation and the International Mercantile Marine Officers' Association, which asked for an investigation into 'attempts to transfer ships to the flag of a country where conditions of

employment are on a lower level than in the country of origin'. After a prolonged exchange of views, the Commission agreed that it would be difficult for the Office to make an enquiry which would distinguish satisfactorily between genuine sales and sham sales, that is, those made primarily in order to take advantage of lower wages and working conditions. The question was raised again before the Commission in 1947, again by the International Transport Workers' Federation. The shipowners felt that the evidence available was not sufficient to warrant any definite conclusions by the Commission, and that in particular it was impossible to determine to what extent such transfers were intended, as the seafarers alleged, for the purpose of avoiding the application of social legislation or safety regulations, or to what extent they did in fact prove detrimental to the safety or the conditions of employment of seafarers. Where transfers were deliberately made for the purpose of lowering the standards of safety and social protection, both groups on the Commission agreed that they were to be condemned.

In 1948, the International Transport Workers' Federation decided to threaten a boycott of certain Panama ships which, they alleged, had been transferred to the flag of that country in order to evade taxation, currency regulations, safety standards and social and labour standards. The Government of Panama rejected this allegation and appealed to the Governing Body of the International Labour Office to appoint a tripartite delegation to carry out an official enquiry into charges made by the Federation against the Panama merchant marine. The Governing Body agreed to this proposal, and a committee of enquiry began its work in May 1949, with a study of the composition of the Panama merchant fleet and the legislation and practice concerning shipping and the conditions of work of seafarers. The committee completed its work, which included the inspection of thirty vessels flying the Panama flag, in November 1949, and its report, which was approved by the Governing Body, was published in July 1950, together with the observations made on it by the Government of Panama and with some comments by the Governing Body.⁴

Fishermen

One of the Recommendations adopted by the Conference in 1920 related to the enactment of legislation to limit the hours of work of all workers in the fishing industry, such legislation to be framed in consultation with the employers' and workers' organisations concerned. Later that year the Joint Maritime Commission, at its first meeting, decided that the Office should obtain from the Governments information on the measures taken or proposed in the various countries to give effect to the Recommendation. The question was touched on at subsequent sessions of the Commission, and the Office was requested to collect as complete data as possible concerning all phases of the conditions of work and welfare of deep-sea fishermen.

In 1926, the Conference adopted two resolutions concerning fishermen. The first requested the Governing Body to place on the agenda of a future maritime session the question of articles of agreement for deep-sea fishermen,

4. *International Labour Office, Studies and Reports, New Series, No. 22: Conditions in Ships Flying the Panama Flag* (Geneva, 1950).

and the second asked the Governments of all maritime countries which had not already done so to take the measures required to ensure the repatriation of fishermen left in a foreign port.

In considering these resolutions at its session in January 1927, the Commission again drew attention to the importance of the Office enquiry, and pointed out that the information collected should be such as to make it possible to decide on the advisability of asking the Conference to extend the scope of the Conventions already adopted for the protection of seamen to cover deep-sea fishermen. However, at the following session the shipowners' representatives stated that not all the members of their group were qualified to represent the interests of the fishing industry, and that although the question was one which lay within the general scope of maritime affairs, and should therefore come before the Commission, it would be necessary for them either to consult the persons concerned beforehand or to arrange to be accompanied by experts.

No further action was taken on the question until the Seattle Conference in 1946, when a resolution was adopted which requested 'the International Labour Office, in consultation with the interests concerned, to make the necessary studies and preparations with a view to considering the possibility of the adoption of an International Fishermen's Charter setting out, on the lines of the International Seafarers' Charter, minimum standards of wages and working conditions, continuity of employment, social legislation, etc., for the industry.'

As the first step towards considering what international action was possible, it was essential to collect the most up-to-date background information, and the Office therefore sent to forty-four Governments a detailed questionnaire concerning the organization of the fishing industry and the conditions of employment of fishermen. The Office report reproducing the information so obtained on fishermen's conditions throughout the world is expected to be published very shortly.⁵ The Commission was informed of this action when it met in December 1947, on which occasion the seafarers' representatives proposed that the Governing Body should set up a special committee to make recommendations for international regulations concerning fishermen with a view to their consideration later by a session of the Conference. The shipowners again stated that none of their members represented the fishing industry and that they were not competent to express an opinion. The seafarers' resolution was adopted by 12 votes to nil, the shipowners' group abstaining, and in June 1949 the Governing Body authorised the Office to undertake a further short consultation of Governments on the question, without prejudice to the establishment of a committee of experts at some future time. This consultation will be based on the Office report.

Conclusions

It is hoped that the foregoing account of the composition and work of the Joint Maritime Commission may have served to indicate the nature and scope of its activities and the practical results which have followed therefrom for the benefit of seafarers. An attempt has been made to show

how this body, although purely advisory in character, has wielded a considerable influence on the maritime work of the Organization. It is virtually impossible to assess this influence in concrete terms, but the fact that Conventions covering seafarers represent a quarter of the total number of Conventions adopted by the Conference over a period of thirty-one years provides some measure of the maritime activity of the Organization. If these Conventions have on the average been ratified by exactly the same number of States as the other Conventions, despite the fact that non-maritime States refrain from ratifying Conventions concerning seafarers, at least some credit must go to the preparatory work of the Commission, which provided the Office with guidance as to what was really practicable and acceptable to a majority of the organized shipowners and seafarers of the world, and therefore likely to be ratified by the maritime countries. Even when the Commission has had to report that the views of the two groups could not be reconciled and that a deadlock had been reached, the full and frank exchange of views between representatives of the two sides of the industry from the leading maritime countries was sufficient to provide the Office, and subsequently the Conference, with a basis on which progress could be made. It may be that procedure followed in maritime matters has sometimes been time-consuming, but it is difficult to deny that careful research, preparation and discussion of any question are calculated to further the wider acceptance and application of whatever instrument is finally adopted by the Conference.

This procedure has slight chance of success, however, unless the preliminary discussions are of a high calibre, and are carried on by qualified persons who can speak with authority for the interests they represent. In this respect, the Joint Maritime Commission has been extremely fortunate, for during its thirty years of existence it has counted among its members some of the most prominent personalities from both sides of the shipping industry. It is the clash of these personalities that has always made the Commission one of the most lively and interesting of all the organs of the ILO. A high degree of continuity in the membership has been maintained at successive elections of the Commission by the various maritime sessions of the Conference, and several members of the present Commission have served in that capacity for fifteen years and more. Its widely representative character today and the quality of its membership would appear to ensure that this body will continue to function efficiently in giving expert advice to the Governing Body and the Office on maritime questions. The Organization owes a debt of gratitude to all the members of the Commission for the most valuable help they have given it in their special field since its very earliest days.

concluded

An incentive for railwaymen to stay on the job

THE NEW ZEALAND RAILWAYS experience difficulties through their inability to retain the services of many experienced railwaymen. Councillor W.A. Wright, a spokesman of the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants, recently dealt with the problem in the following manner:

'For years we have been losing staff. In some branches the staff turnover has been up to 40 per cent for the year. Many of

5. For an analysis of the preliminary results of the enquiry, see *International Labour Review*, Vol. LIX, No. 3, March 1949, pp. 319-326: "Fishermen's Conditions of Employment".

our members who have left are the experienced men, so not only has the Government Railways Department been left with a vacancy, but they cannot fill the experience void which these resignations have caused.

Now our Nationalist friends have won an election with a policy which includes some talk of incentives being offered to the workers to produce more. Just another name for time-study and piece-work systems! The best way to get increased production is to make the job attractive enough to retain a decent labour force.

Would an incentive scheme work on the railways or could it be operated with fairness to all its staff? Could an incentive scheme be worked out to cover workshops, maintenance and traffic branches? NO incentive scheme can ever be inaugurated which will be superior to having a craftproud staff that feels itself secure in its employment.

A lot of our staff shortages are caused by housing problems. Men who are fast approaching retiring age and who are living in railway houses are naturally concerned about their future housing position. The new legislation makes the occupancy of a railway house dependent upon railway employment; on his retirement the occupier can be asked to leave—a cheering prospect when a member of the Society has reached the retiring age.

It is the ambition of most railwaymen to own their own homes, and of late years it has become the practice of many firms to assist their workers to build their own homes. The Government Railways Department should do the same for its servants. Such an accessory condition of employment could weigh the scales more than wages when a man must decide between staying in the Railway service or leaving it.

On the completion of 10 years' service every railwayman should be eligible for an interest-free loan by the Department to assist him to make his own housing arrangements. That would be a worthwhile incentive and would, in addition, be one way of attracting staff.

Many present occupiers of railway houses, who would qualify for an interest-free loan, would soon make their own housing arrangements, releasing the Department in many cases of the responsibility of providing housing for its employees.

Adequate housing would help to normalize promotion, which in the Railway service requires the transfer of men and their families from place to place.

We have lost so many experienced men that the Government Railways Department will suffer in efficiency for many years to come. Assistance in acquiring homes of their own would be an incentive for New Zealand railwaymen to stay on the job.

The German Seamen's Code

By Rudolf Becker, German Transport Workers' Union

A REFORM OF THE GERMAN SEAMEN'S CODE has been under consideration by a committee in Germany for some time past. Attempts to bring about such a reform have hitherto failed almost completely owing to disagreement over the disciplinary clauses. But the tendency of political agitators to play upon the disciplinary aspect for drawing public attention to the social backwardness of maritime legislation probably also hampered the practical work in this field.

In the discussions now proceeding, the spokesmen of the seamen represent an attitude which runs entirely counter to that which has hitherto inspired the Seamen's Code.

Disciplinary procedures on board ship serve the double purpose of ensuring a smooth and orderly performance of work, and the maintenance of law and order. The ordinary penal code is sufficient for the second purpose, but it needs to be supplemented by special regulations applicable on board ship; drunkenness, which is not an offence against the penal code, constitutes a serious breach of duty under ship's regulations.

The old disciplinary code bore the marks of a penal system and dated from the days when the ship's master had supreme power of command over his crew. This did not make for harmonious relationships on board. Experience has amply shown that such a regime is degrading to the human personality and destructive of the initiative of the individual.

Present-day conceptions regarding the place and the dignity of the human being in the State and Society no longer suffer a seaman to come under a disciplinary code which has all the features of a penal code and indeed is at times worded as though the community on board consisted preponderantly of criminal elements. A reform of the disciplinary code must abolish the

features which brought the previous one into such disrepute.

A breach of ship's regulations should be regarded as an offence against the orderly course of affairs on board and should be treated accordingly. It should not, however, be regarded primarily, as it was in the past, as an act of insubordination of an inferior towards a superior. One holding a lower rank on board should be required to obey his superior, not because the superior so wills but because it is necessary to a proper course of affairs on board. Where a breach against the ship's discipline has to be punished, it should as far as possible be done through appropriate institutions ashore.

Prevention is better than cure, and the first step should be to see that the crew with which a ship commences her voyage is composed of healthy elements, so that the members of the ship's small community may go about their tasks and work together harmoniously both during fair weather and foul. It should normally be possible to ensure smooth working on board without the use of extreme powers. It is no doubt necessary for the master to possess such powers, for in emergencies he must ensure the safety of the ship and those on board, but he should be under the obligation to answer for the exercise of such powers afterwards.

The best solution of the problem of the powers of the master cannot be found by relying entirely on laws and regulations. Rather is it necessary to see that the master of the ship is one who has a natural power of command over men. And a prerequisite for this is that he is a man who has respect for his fellow-men and is conscious of his responsibility not only for their lives but also for their dignity. To see that this condition is fulfilled is the duty of those responsible for selecting those placed in command of ships and their crews.



Ernest Bevin

WHEN ERNEST BEVIN DIED, shortly after his seventieth birthday and his resignation as British Foreign Secretary on 14 April last, the entire free and democratic world, of which the Labour Movement forms so integral a part paid homage to him as one of its truly great men. On that occasion much of Bevin's career and work was fittingly recalled. Invariably, however, the by no means minor rôle played by him in the

field of international trade unionism, particularly in so far as his own transport industry was concerned, was completely ignored. In the article which follows we attempt to give a picture of his activities in this field, in the hope of being able to contribute thereby to the knowledge of what went into the making of that great man, to whom the ITF owes so much that is little known.

In Memoriam Ernest Bevin

An appreciation of his services to the international trade union movement

WHEN, IN 1945, WITH THE COMING TO POWER of the third British Labour Government, Ernest Bevin, war-time Minister of Labour, was appointed as British Foreign Secretary, reference was made in general terms to his experience abroad as being but one of the many reasons which led to the choice. Had one at that time taken the trouble to enquire into what was meant by this experience, it would have soon transpired that the new and profoundly working-class Foreign Secretary of the United Kingdom had done internationally much the same kind of work for which he was recognized as having distinguished himself nationally.

As an extremely imaginative organizer, Ernest Bevin could not have been expected to lose sight of the large field beyond the boundaries of his own country which, following the first world war, lay fallow and ready for tilling on lines similar to those employed so vigorously by him in the national sphere.

Bevin enters the international field

What is believed to have been his second journey abroad (he had previously attended the San Francisco Conference of the AF of L, held in 1915, as a fraternal delegate of the British TUC) took place towards the end of April, 1919 when, together with H. Gosling and R. Williams of the same organization, he went to Amsterdam as a delegate of the National Transport Workers' Federation in order to propose the reconstitution of his Federation's international namesake - the International Transport Workers' Federation.

It was a small gathering, this first meeting to be held by any of the International Trade Secretariats since the outbreak of war in 1914. Only eight visitors from abroad attended it, the Dutch representatives bringing the total up to fifteen. The initiative in calling the meeting had been taken jointly, shortly after the cessation of hostilities, by the Dutch Transport Workers' Union, led by J. Brautigam, and the Swedish Transport Workers' Union, whose leader - Charles Lindley - was the founder of the pre-war ITF in London in 1896.

Uniting what was divided

This extremely small number of trade unionists from the transport industry represented only three recently-warring peoples - the Germans on the one hand, the Belgians and British on the other. The representative of the Belgian seamen, the late Jan Chapelle, did not mince words when facing his country's former enemies, attacking them for their lack of solidarity with

foreign merchant seamen who had fallen victims to German submarine warfare during the conflict just ended.

Was it perhaps on this occasion that Bevin made his first speech on foreign affairs?

He reminded the Conference that his organization also organized British seamen. However, he said, they had not come to Amsterdam in order to apportion responsibility for the war but to re-establish the ITF. Although he did not blame the German working class for the way in which their rulers had conducted the war, he did expect them to have made protests against the torpedoing of unarmed ships and the murder of survivors. How clear he made the position, his own as well as that of others, allowing scope for no evasive excuses, when he continued: 'Should, from the side of the British, something of the nature of the torpedoing of the *Lusitania* have occurred, the British transport workers would not have failed to do all that was in their power, even by means of a strike, to cause the downfall of their Government'. Bevin, now in conciliatory mood, appealed to the Germans to cooperate in condemning what had happened and to help undo what could be undone, in order that international trade union relations might be re-established in the interest of what every one of the fifteen delegates had at heart - the growth and prosperity of the ITF.

At the cradle of the post-war ITF

Bevin, man of action that he was, made the actual proposal to re-establish the ITF, suggesting its constitution on sectional lines, an organizational set-up which still holds good today. He wanted a powerful world-wide federation comprising, amongst others, organizations from the Colonies. To this end he pledged the assistance of the British. He also proposed that, in addition to unions from America, Australia and India, those of Japan should be invited to become ITF members, lest, as capitalism began to develop there, the workers of Asia should constitute a threat to their European brothers.

Such was Bevin's contribution to the international organization of the transport workers, a fundamental one and one certainly worthy of remembrance and tribute by the present-day ITF which - again with Bevin's help - successfully survived the Second World War.

Helping to guide the ITF

Bevin was also a delegate at the first post-war ITF Congress held from 15 to 19 March, 1920 at Christiania, Norway, (the



Bevin and the ITF

Top Ernest Bevin in 1919, with two members of his Federation Centre General view of ITF congress held at Geneva in April 1921. E. Bevin seated to the left of the centre gangway, immediately in front of the platform
Bottom With the Dockers' Advisory Committee, London, February 1928. Ernest Bevin to the left of Charles Lindley, founder of the ITF (front centre)



present Oslo) and, in his matter-of-fact manner, played his part in making the organization work.

Part of the proceedings of the next Congress, held in Geneva from 18 to 22 April, 1921, were actually presided over by him. He also acted as chairman of the Special Conference of Dockers and Road Transport Workers held in conjunction with it. On this occasion, Bevin followed up the lead given by him in Amsterdam regarding the necessity of making the ITF a really world-wide organization by proposing the convening of an international conference of dockers on either Vancouver Island, at San Francisco, Capetown or some other suitable meeting place. Although this proposal was in fact adopted, the conference itself was never held.

At the Geneva Congress also, Bevin had occasion to demonstrate how practical a man he was. Before Congress was a proposal for the creation of a fund of 10,000 Dutch Guilders for the purpose of combating militarism. Referring to this, Bevin stated bluntly that: 'Everybody in Europe will laugh at the fact that the ITF hopes to smash militarism by creating a fund of 10,000 Guilders'. He added point to his criticism by drawing attention to the cost of real anti-militarist activity, saying, 'In Great Britain we spent 20,000 Guilders in one day for the action to prevent the transport of lethal arms to Poland.'

He takes a look at currency problems

It is well known that Bevin took a great interest in finance and that he studied financial problems seriously as a member of the Macmillan Committee of 1930, to which he had been appointed by the then Chancellor of the Exchequer, Philip Snowden. When, in 1945, the appointment of Bevin as Chancellor of the Exchequer was considered, his known interest in such problems had much to do with it. When, however, had this interest in currency problems, i.e. matters of international finance, first been aroused?

At the Geneva ITF Congress, Bevin had come face to face with such problems when the question of affiliation fees payable to the Federation was being discussed. The discrepancies in the various rates of exchange made him think in terms of the difference in actual burdens borne, as between one country and another, when payment had to be made in a particular currency. Thus he established that 'the contributions paid by some countries are in no way proportionate to the value of the various currencies at home'.

Many factors contribute to the making of a great man and it is, therefore, quite conceivable that this early experience in the international field may have roused Bevin's interest in problems of a like nature.

Bevin puts economics first

When Bevin attended the next Congress of the ITF held at Vienna from 2 to 6 October 1922, he had obviously grown depression-conscious. Like the real trade union leader that he was, he realized instinctively that the employers' tactics are based on an attempt to make capital out of bad times by sapping the strength of the trade unions.

The occasion was a discussion regarding an institution set up in Holland for the purpose of regulating casual dock labour and to which the employers contributed. Commenting on this, Bevin said: 'When times are bad, attempts are made to bind the men by means of these funds so that the fighting capacity of the (trade union) organizations is reduced'. He warned against 'creating institutions which, while they apparently helped the

workers, actually weakened the organizations and thereby in reality harmed the workers'.

He tackles foreign affairs

That a trade unionist has the right to speak on foreign policy was convincingly demonstrated by Bevin at the same Congress. Was this perhaps his first big speech on the subject? It is possible that here again the ITF provided him with a platform which might well be considered as having constituted a stepping-stone to fame.

The item under consideration was 'Discussion of the Peace Treaties'. Ben Tillet, who was still officially the General Secretary of the British Transport Workers' Federation, opened the discussion on behalf of the British delegation by stating that 'this is the most important item to be considered at the Congress'. 'How correct Tillet' was in his assessment was later shown by Bevin's contribution to the debate. This, if not the first speech on foreign policy made by him, may nevertheless well have been the first in which his views on foreign affairs were based on and guided by economic considerations. For, after opening by saying that he was of the opinion that, during the previous two or three years, trade unionists had left the question of revision of the Peace Treaties far too much to the political organizations, he continued: 'Today we must give special attention to the economic side of these Peace Treaties and look at their devastating effects in the economic sphere'.

Again depression-conscious, Bevin declared that 'the most terrible results of the Peace Treaties are making themselves felt, especially among the English workers. They taste the bitterness of poverty and unemployment, knowing all the time that it is in reality impossible for France or any other country to make Germany pay'. His indictment of the authors of that policy, whom he did not by any means spare in his speech was: 'Thanks to the policy of the ruling classes, therefore, the economic position is growing steadily worse and worse'.

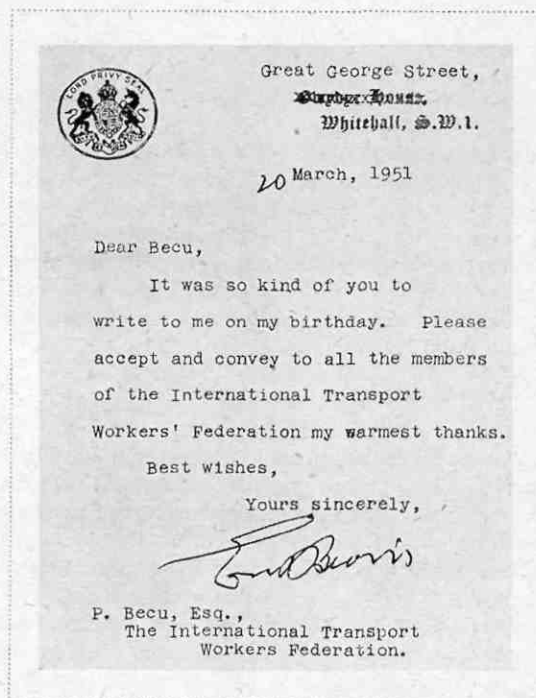
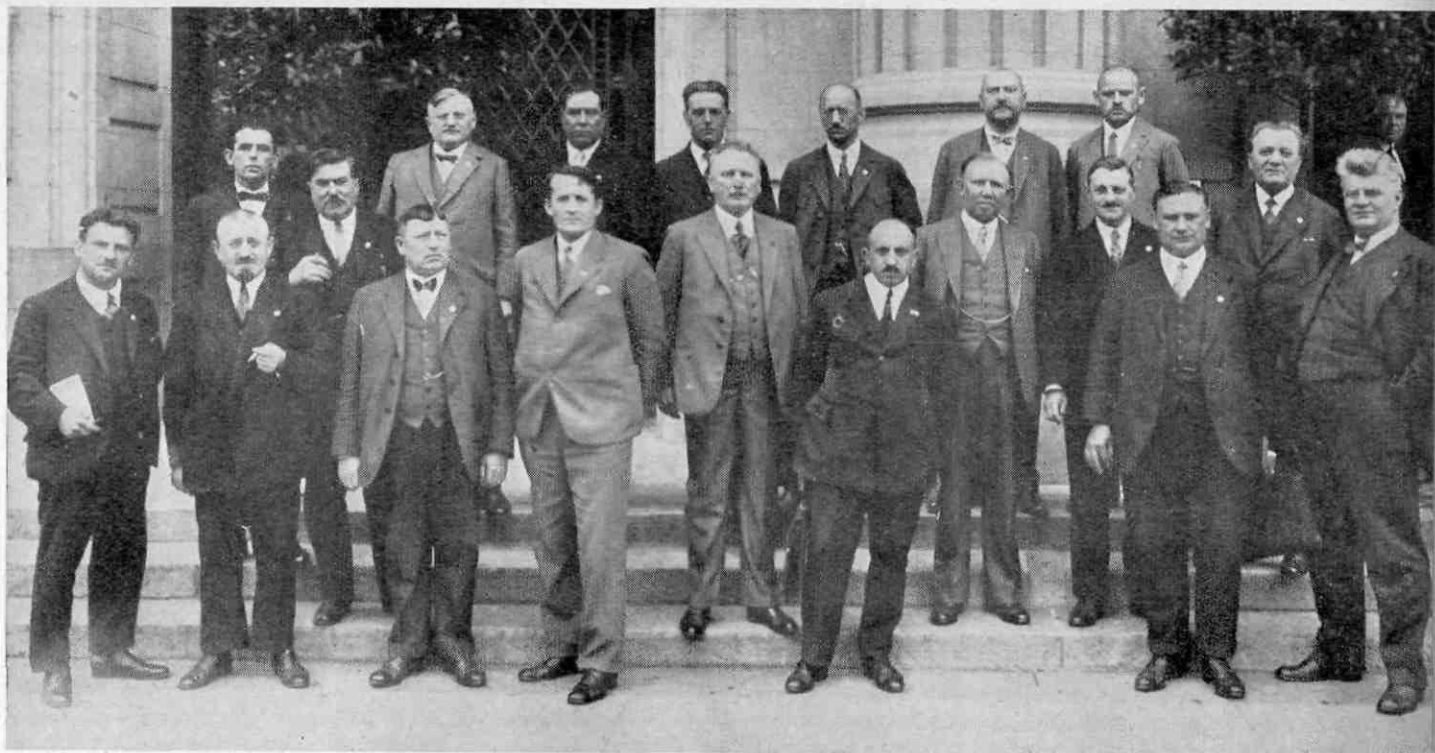
As to the post-war condition of Europe, Bevin expressed the opinion that the Peace Treaties had completely destroyed the European balance of power. The policy whose implementation he demanded was summed up as follows: 'As Socialists, it is now our task to combat this, and to see that incessant disturbances of the economic life of the world are prevented'. To this task, modified by changed conditions, Bevin, a quarter of a century later, consistently devoted the last half dozen years of his eventful life.

Laying down directives

The moral which he adduced from this foreign policy speech delivered from the platform of the transport workers' International was, as was only natural, primarily addressed to workers in the transport industry. 'On us as transport workers', he said, 'it is especially incumbent to combat with all the means at our disposal, the placing of obstacles in the way of free traffic between one country and another'.

The lesson drawn by Bevin - later architect of as much international understanding as was then realizable - for the peoples of the world was: 'It is, of course, the policy of the ruling classes to use national feeling for the purpose of inciting the peoples one against the other in order that their own rule may the more easily be established. What the peoples need therefore is the creation of genuine internationalism'.

The application of this fundamental statement to present world conditions would show that it still holds true, however



Top ITF group taken at the International Labour Conference in 1928. In the front row, Ernest Bevin (second from right), next to the late Edo Fimmen, then General Secretary ITF
 Left centre Ernest Bevin in a happy mood at the 1936 International Maritime Conference. On the right W. R. Spence, ex-General Secretary of the NUS
 Left bottom E. Bevin in discussion with E. J. Phelan, then Assistant Director of the ILO (centre) and the late Harold Butler, then Director of the ILO, at the 1936 International Maritime Conference
 Right The last letter received from Ernest Bevin by the ITF Secretariat

much may have changed in the meantime and whatever new ruling classes may since have established themselves.

A leader - both national and international

From 15 to 21 September, 1926 Bevin attended the Congress of the ITF in Paris. On this occasion he was given an opportunity of demonstrating his great powers of leadership in both the national and international spheres. A report submitted by the ITF's General Secretary, Edo Fimmen, and entitled *Report on the Activities of the ITF in connection with the British Mining Conflict* had been presented to Congress. It was not surprising that Bevin should be chosen to speak for the British delegation. How clear and how profound were his observations on this event - in its magnitude without precedent in British industrial history. 'An act of this kind' he said, 'cannot be mapped out a long time beforehand and it is, therefore, only natural that there should be difficulties and shortcomings. It is the last minute state of mind that turns the scale as to whether the masses will respond to the call or not'. That Bevin himself had at all times a sure finger on the pulse of working-class opinion goes without saying.

On this occasion he used the ITF platform for making perfectly clear to the international gathering the policy of British trade unionism. Although it welcomed and indeed appealed for international solidarity, the British trade union movement had no intention whatsoever of sacrificing its autonomy or submitting itself to directives not of its own making. He continued: 'The British workers refuse to take advice and criticism from countries such as Russia, who believe they have a monopoly of wisdom. The British workers say "Hands off Russia" but they also say "Hands off Britain"'.

What the policy of the British movement - true to its democratic character - was, Bevin stated categorically in the following terms: 'I would particularly emphasize that despite all reports to the contrary, the General Strike was an industrial and not a revolutionary movement. Attempts to give it a character which it never bore injure the prestige of our movement. The British Trade Unions will not resort to the strike for revolutionary ends. For us the strike is an industrial not a political weapon'. From that day on, at least, the Russians should have known where Bevin stood.

At International Labour Conferences

At the Paris Congress of 1926, a Dockers' Advisory Committee had been set up, charged with the drawing up of a draft Convention for the protection of dock labour against accidents. Bevin was its chairman and occasionally went abroad to attend meetings of the Committee. In order to promote the adoption of the Convention he went, as adviser to the British Workers' Delegate, to the International Labour Conferences held, during May and June of both 1928 and 1929, in Geneva. His efforts were crowned with success in the latter year, when the Convention was adopted.

His experience of the work of the ILO made him critical of the usefulness of the Joint Maritime Commission for the workers' cause. To the 1928 ITF Congress he reported that firm action had to be taken at Geneva against the International Shipping Federation, whose representatives aimed at preventing the ITF proposals from being taken into consideration and at having the whole question of the protection of dockers against accidents referred to the JMC in order to undermine the ITF's campaign. He declared: 'The ITF must press all it

can for the disappearance of the JMC as a body to deal with special subjects. Consisting as it does of employers' and workers' representatives in equal numbers, deadlock is reached when it comes to voting and it can then always be used as a machine for delaying matters'.

Practical man and sturdy democrat

At the Stockholm ITF Congress, held from 9 to 15 July, 1928, Bevin declared himself to be against a resolution which had been proposed and began his criticism of it by stating bluntly: 'This resolution seems too highflown to me'. He particularly objected to a paragraph regarding which he made the following characteristic observations: 'If the resolution is adopted with this paragraph, we shall be announcing to the world a decision regarding the problems of countries without first having discussed them with the people concerned'. Certainly a profound democratic principle for foreign ministers to follow, and one on which Bevin, some twenty years later, had to take many a decisive stand. Was it vision that made him oppose the offending paragraph, the text of which we are obliged to omit for reasons of space? For he justified his criticism of it by making what was at that time a somewhat new point. He said: 'Another reason why I am in favour of dropping this paragraph is the fact that it refers to Imperialism but not to Sovietism'.

As an indication of the practical man, schooled and guided by experience, yet another of Bevin's observations from the same speech is deserving of quotation: 'In practice and at close quarters' he said, '(these) questions often taken on quite a different aspect than in the light of theoretical considerations'.

His appreciation of progress

At the close of the proceedings Bevin proposed a vote of thanks in which he recalled the past and evaluated what had been achieved to date. His opening remarks read as follows: 'At the end of this interesting and fruitful Congress, I should like to move a vote of thanks to all those who have contributed to the success of our discussions. In particular, I should like to thank the Swedish authorities for having placed this building at our disposal, thus making this the first of our Congresses to be held in a home of Parliament. The fact of our meeting in a place like this is symbolical of our growth. I cannot but recall the Congress in Amsterdam when a small number of organizations met to reconstitute the ITF. From those modest beginnings, our present ITF has grown. One of the foremost maritime states has not only welcomed us but has allowed us to use its House of Parliament'.

Bevin's courage of conviction

At the last ITF Congress which he was able to attend, that held in Prague from 7 to 13 August, 1932, Bevin made use of his right to disagree with the collectivity of which he was a member - the General Council of the ITF. Replying to a suggestion made by the Czechs that a delegation should be sent to the USSR in order to study conditions in that country and establish close relations with its workers, the ITF General Council, through the President of the ITF, the late C. T. Cramp, had opposed the proposal on the grounds that an ITF delegation to Russia would not be given adequate facilities for investigating the situation there as it actually was. Bevin thereupon took the platform - and his remarks are so interesting that we quote them in extenso:

'I should not have taken part in this discussion but for the statement just made by the President on behalf of the General

Council. I am a member of that General Council, but unfortunately I was not able to attend the meeting where it took this decision. The view of the General Council that it is against sending a delegation to Russia because we should not be allowed to investigate conditions is one of the most reactionary I can imagine. I do not believe that Russia would refuse to let us investigate conditions, just as it has not withheld such permission from any country. I see the matter from another angle: whatever our views may be regarding admission of the Russians to the ITF, the length of their resolutions and their ideas and methods, there can be no doubt or misunderstanding that the Russians have an entirely new economic philosophy, a philosophy which is in direct conflict with the rest of the world. What the General Council proposes is what in England we call an ostrich policy, a policy of self-delusion by not studying the situation in Russia and not trying to understand this new philosophy and its significance for the world. It is the most reactionary proposal an Executive can make. The map of the world is being redrawn, redivided economically. At a conference in Ottawa, the British Empire sought to find a solution for its capitalistic difficulties. While that conference was still in session a number of European countries joined forces and created a new entente, which reaches up to the frontiers of Russia. That is a new capitalistic frontier. Whether we like it or not it will transcend all political frontiers. In the Far East it will bring forth a new policy as far as Japan and China are concerned, a policy which will cut right across the ways and methods of building up a socialistic state. I can quite understand the Russians fighting for the world revolution, I can understand their difficulties, for they believe it to be incumbent upon them to defend their new economic system. That we should take up an attitude of not learning to know this new economic life, and simply assume that we should not be given opportunity to get to know it and consequently are opposed to an investigation, is an attitude which I must oppose. We have nothing to fear if we go to Russia. Contact between the new and the old is better than sending the Russians an invitation to join us, contact with this new development in Russia, which is more fundamental than appears from the press or the unfortunate communist propaganda carried on outside Russia. We are here dealing with an actual, living instance of superhuman effort to rebuild a state on socialist lines. Whether this is being done in a satisfactory manner is a matter about which the international labour movement should be well informed. Therefore, I hope that the view of the General Council will not be supported'.

Leaving aside his unmistakeably critical remarks concerning the USSR and the communists we do not think much more should be read into his affirmative attitude towards the Soviet Union than an eagerness to see the universal introduction of economic planning to which, under the impact of the depression of the early '30s he must have been particularly susceptible. In fact we believe it to be characteristic of Bevin the man that, although he had, even then, strong doubts regarding Soviet 'ideas and methods' he was, notwithstanding those doubts, willing to give the Russians the benefit of them.

As for Bevin's later attitude towards the Soviet Union, the behaviour of its rulers could not fail to make him more and more critical of their methods, which increasingly nullified that reorganization of Russia on new lines which he had still felt able to appreciate. As British Foreign Secretary, he obtained first-hand experience, in top-level international discussions, of their stubborn resistance towards genuine mutual understanding and co-operation. Nevertheless, he still tried to settle issues of prime

May 14th, 1940

Mr J. H. Oldenbroek,
International Transport
Workers' Federation,
Kempston, Bedfordshire.

Dear Oldenbroek,

I sympathize with you very much and also with your colleagues from Holland and Belgium. I know what it means to you to know that your homes are being ravaged by the aggressor.

I have, as you know, taken office as Minister of Labour and National Service in the new coalition Government and that makes it impossible for me to attend the meetings of the ITF. During the period, therefore, that I occupy this office, Brother Arthur Deakin will act as my substitute.

One of the things that influenced me in coming to the decision to go into the Government was the fate of my international colleagues in Scandinavia, Holland, Belgium, Luxembourg, France, Czechoslovakia, Poland and Austria. They may all rest assured that every ounce of energy I have will be used to restore a condition which will allow the International to be re-established firmer than ever, with a greater purpose and a greater opportunity.

In addition to entering the Government to assist in providing the man power and equipment to resist this brutal aggressor, I am ever mindful of our comrades in the United States, South America and other parts of the world that have not been attacked. If they are not actually in the fight, the blood that is now being shed on the battlefields of Europe is being shed for them as much as for us. If you are communicating with them, ask them, if by any chance they can in any way render assistance to the Allied cause, to do it in the name of liberty, humanity and justice for all peoples.

Yours very sincerely,
Signed ERNEST BEVIN

importance for the future of humanity in a spirit of conciliation.

His views on the economic crisis

How acutely aware Bevin was of the seriousness of the turn of events, both economic and political, during the early '30s, is evident from his speech on reparations and war debts delivered at the same Congress. He advised against too much discussion of these questions since, as he put it, 'they would only draw attention from the economic crisis, its significance, origins and causes'. He enlarged on what he considered to be the correct, if unpopular, policy followed by the British Labour Party in which it advocated the cancellation of war debts and reparation payments, but he said: 'It appeared that all sorts of nationalisms were antagonistic towards international labour progress'. Bevin said that the attempts of the Labour Government to secure the abolition of nationalistic economic measures had received no support from other Governments. He also complain-

ed that the efforts made by the British workers had found no response within the International Federation of Trade Unions. His eagerness to get things done prompted him to propose the following course of action: 'Since we have a workers' International' he said, 'it should be set to work whenever the movement of any country attempts action on a large scale. It should not be asked: "Who is leading this action, who took the initiative?" and so on. The essential thing is whether it is necessary, whether what it aims at is desirable.'

No wonder that a man who - contrary to his whole nature - must at that time have felt bitterly frustrated in his ceaseless efforts to change existing conditions, still looked expectantly to what was happening in that vast realm of what was at one time considered a revolutionary recasting of social life - the USSR.

With the ITF in spirit until the end

At this point, Bevin's appearances on the platform of the ITF came to an end. He did indeed attend the London Congress held in September, 1930 but his work there was confined to acting as chairman of the Conference of the Dockers' Section. Later, as adviser to the UK Workers' Delegate, the then General Secretary of the National Union of Seamen, W. R. Spence, he attended the International Maritime Labour Conference, held at Geneva in 1936 and the preparatory maritime conference which preceded it in 1935. At both these Conferences, he played an important rôle in helping promote ITF policy on seafarers' matters.* As a member of the General Council of the ITF in the 1930s up to 1935 and then again from 1938 onwards, he continued to participate in the conduct of ITF affairs.

When in August, 1939, under the threat of the outbreak of war, the ITF removed its headquarters from Amsterdam to London, Bevin was ready to take a seat on the British Management Committee of the ITF.

In May, 1940, when the war had taken a violent turn, the ITF received a letter from him addressed to its then Assistant General Secretary, J. H. Oldenbrook - a letter characteristic of the writer and requiring no comment (see previous page).

How mindful of his past attachment to the ITF Bevin remained up to the very last appears from the fact that the signed photograph reproduced on our front page was sent to us only one week prior to his death.

The ITF continues on its course, in the charting of which Bevin played so outstanding a part. We are proud of our history, to which he also made such substantial contributions. In his spirit we shall persevere for the realization of aims which he helped to clarify, both for us and for the world at large. In his spirit also we think that we may perhaps be allowed to feel more gratitude for what he has given us than mourning at his inevitable passing. For his life was so great, so rich and so varied that its fruits will, for many years to come, be enjoyed by communities, both large and small, throughout the world.

*) The ITF's 'Report on Activities' for the period 1935-37 contains the following paragraph concerning these meetings:

'A tribute is due to all those who worked so hard to obtain the results achieved, and a special tribute should be paid to Comrade Bevin of the British Transport and General Workers' Union, who took a preponderant part in the discussions and contributed in no small degree to the esteem in which the seamen's group was held at the conference.'

Looking back - and forward by Ernest Bevin

We republish below a memorable contribution by Ernest Bevin to the 1 May 1929 issue of the ITF Journal, in which the reconstitution of the ITF in 1919 was commemorated.

IT PROVIDES ONE WITH PLEASANT THOUGHTS to look back to the foundation, or shall I rather say, the resurrection of the International Transport Workers' Federation. I well remember the feeling expressed that, being engaged in Transport, it was essential to rise immediately above the bitterness of war - and be thankful it was over - and to rebuild, recreate and develop the International Transport Workers' Federation.

In connection with the old National Transport Workers' Federation, I was one of the most enthusiastic supporters of the idea, and I looked forward with tremendous interest to the meeting of those who had been set at each others' throats for four and a half years, some of whom had been in the battle line and who, we were glad to see, had come through without suffering injury.

A very happy meeting, which will ever live in one's memory, was that when, as by an act of Providence, the British and German delegations met on that little bridge in Amsterdam. The ready way in which both sides gave a handgrip of comradeship was significant. One could almost feel that, without uttering the words, they were saying 'We are glad the awful nightmare has passed and we can meet again'. Ill-feeling was bound to run high between some of the nations, and there was inevitably some difficulty in getting down to the constitution of the ITF. In the building up of such a huge organization, it is

always a problem to devise means which will prevent it becoming a mere conglomerate mass, but we kept this in mind, and it was with a good deal of pleasure that we set to work to draft the new constitution. The British delegates approved it the same day, and the conference adopted it later; and the result has probably been the most effective International Trade Secretariat that exists.

The constitution, providing as it does for the international grouping of big blocks of allied classes of workers, enabling them to meet to discuss their own policy, supported by the greater body, has strengthened the solidarity within the International Transport Workers' Federation. During these ten years we have done much valuable work, but nothing compared with what is likely to be accomplished in the next ten years.

Two years earlier, at the Edinburgh conference of the British Trades Union Congress, Bevin had referred to the Amsterdam ITF meeting in the following terms:

'I attended the first meeting with the Germans, Belgians, French* and others that followed the war. We went over to Amsterdam with all the bitter antagonisms of the war in January, 1919, and united the transport trades, and we set out to build our International. If we had gone into those meetings calling the men who had their feelings embittered during the agony of four years, liars and traitors, there would have been no International of the transport workers of the world'.

*) Ernest Bevin's memory was at fault here. In fact, no French delegates attended the conference - Ed.

Preface to a conference agenda

Some topical problems to be considered by the Utrecht Railwaymen's Conference

By P. Tofahrn, Assistant General Secretary of the ITF

THE RAILWAYMEN'S SECTION of the ITF will be holding a Conference from 13 to 18 August in Utrecht. The Section Committee, at a meeting held in London on 3 and 4 April, placed on the agenda problems which are foremost on the working programmes of many railway unions.

Peace in the industry

In recent months the international press has reported on railway strikes or threats of railway strikes in practically every part of the world. Democratic railway trade unions have resorted to strike action in order to secure a settlement of industrial disputes in the USA, Canada, France, Luxembourg, Finland, New Zealand and Australia. In Belgium, Sweden, India and Japan, they have on various occasions had to threaten the calling-out of their members. In Great Britain, where the wartime order instituting compulsory arbitration and thus depriving railway trade unions of the right to strike is still in force, there have, nevertheless, been scattered unofficial strikes, i.e. cases in which railwaymen have struck work without the sanction of their union. In the USA we have even witnessed a new form of unofficial strike, namely mass withdrawal of labour under the pretence of sickness. Or, as one writer has put it, it was not really a pretence, for the men were sick at heart at the raw deal meted out to them.

Such widespread unrest on the railways is unusual. It has, as its result, the application of measures designed to make railway strikes unlawful. Railwaymen are, as a rule, law-abiding citizens but they are put in an awful predicament when the law is turned into what appears to them an instrument of injustice. The restraint railwaymen have shown in the use of the strike weapon throughout one half to three-quarters of a century of their trade union history is proof that they have recourse to it only when they are abundantly convinced that strike action is the only way of obtaining justice left to them.

Among the Government measures for preventing or ending railway strikes are: the operation of railways under army control; the subjection of railwaymen to military law; the institution of court proceedings in order that judges may say what Parliament does not dare say, namely that railwaymen have no legal right to strike; and the coupling with compulsory arbitration of the virtual prohibition of strikes. Such measures create a dilemma. The railway trade unions must either abide by the law, even if its operation results in social injustice, or they must fight for justice under conditions that bring every railwayman into conflict with the law and expose him to dangers unknown to wage earners in other industries.

Admittedly there were, in some cases, strong social, economic and state reasons for either forcibly preventing or ending railway strikes. But the fact remains that railwaymen were kept at work or driven back to it under conditions which made them feel they were the victims of injustice. That is a sure way of turning railway staff into disgruntled and consequently inefficient workers and of storing up trouble for the future. If, in the higher



An informal study of Paul Tofahrn at work

interests of society and the State, the strike weapon is taken away from railwaymen and their trade unions, they must be given adequate compensation. Does this compensation exist?

Workers' participation in the control of their industry

There are railway trade unionists who think that part of the answer lies in the reform of the control and management of railway undertakings. As a rule, railwaymen have no share in the selection and appointment of railway controllers and managers. As a rule also, railway workers are not convinced that social justice in the industry is a predominant preoccupation of either the higher managerial staff or the authorities who appoint them. In fact, they are rather inclined to believe that, in the list of interests to be served by railway controllers, social justice in the industry comes at the bottom and that this is the reason why some of their disputes with the employers appear insoluble other than by a trial of strength.

Hence the ever-recurring topic of the right of railwaymen to a share in the control and administration of the industry in which they have 'invested their lives'. The most resounding con-

trovery concerning the right to co-determination – in this case in respect of privately owned key industries – has recently ended in Germany. One half of the Boards of Directors of metallurgical and engineering undertakings and of the mines will henceforth be elected spokesmen of the workers. What share of control German railwaymen are to have and what form such control will take is still under discussion.

Coordination of transport

Logic compels one to look not only at the control of railways but also at the control of the whole of the transport industry. The railways are only one – although in most countries the most important – component of the transport service. Railway directors and managers are not entirely free agents; Governments can and do both restrain and command them. Governments or an adequately empowered authority have – or should have – a transport policy based on assessment of the economic, social, cultural and defence requirements of the country or group of countries concerned and also on the economic and technical qualities of the various branches of the transport industry. Such a policy can be rational or otherwise. I know at least one trade union which airs views on Government transport policy which amount to an accusation that the Minister of Transport favours vested interests in the road transport industry to the detriment of the railways. Must we, therefore, not also seek a new form of control for the whole of inland transport – on the British pattern for instance – and try to obtain the means of ensuring that in *all* branches of the transport industry social justice has priority over lesser interests?

Good as well as bad transport policies cannot, however, prevent difficult situations calling for painful adjustments, such as the need for railway undertakings to close down certain lines, either wholly or partially. Under what conditions should this be done? And what provisions should be made for the men whose livelihood is thus affected?

Railwaymen's pensions

The best railwayman is the one who makes railway work his life job. Many railway managers of the nineteenth century understood this truism and sought to bind railwaymen to their industry by superannuation schemes. As social insurance and particularly old age pension schemes developed, they were forced to enhance the value of railway superannuation schemes. Later, the railway trade unions also took a hand in the business and in many countries fought successfully to have such schemes improved beyond all recognition, thus setting the pattern and the pace of development for retirement pension schemes in many other industries. The stragglers in this movement were America and Great Britain, the two countries in which private ownership of the railways held out longest. American railwaymen made a bold and successful start in 1936, but most British railwaymen are still waiting.

However, even those railwaymen who benefit from good pension schemes have their worries. Pension funds are based on two major assumptions:

- 1 That income and expenditure can be calculated for thirty to sixty years in advance on the basis of longevity statistics;
- 2 That money will buy the same things in thirty years' time as it would if spent on the day of its payment into the fund.

Experience has shown that the errors in calculations of probable income and expenditure are far more substantial than have been anticipated. The average span of human life has been fast in-

creasing during the last fifty and even the last thirty years and with it the number of pensioners. Heated discussions are now going on about the raising of the retirement age. Devaluations, some technical and official, others economic and unofficial, have given the lie to the assumption that, if actuarially sound, pension funds would always be able to pay elderly railwaymen with thirty years' service a pension amounting to about three-quarters of the wages being earned by their colleagues in active railway service. Some pension funds which have been hit by devaluation can now keep a pensioner alive for only a few days every month. Money has, therefore, to be found elsewhere in order to keep him alive during the remainder of the month, and that poses an extremely knotty problem.

One or two countries are trying to solve it by making pensions non-contributory, treating them as a direct charge on the industry. They put pensions on a par with wages and actually call them deferred wages. That system, which makes pensions and wages compete for the same money, has its own problems and, in particular, the two which follow: What is a proper relationship between the number of active railwaymen and the number of pensioners: retired railwaymen, widows and orphans of railwaymen? What is to be done when this relationship changes, owing to reductions in the number of active railwaymen as a consequence of technical progress or contraction of the industry under the impact of competition from other forms of transport, coordination or economic regression?

Other topics

Previous Railwaymen's Conferences and the ITF Congress have adopted resolutions on various questions, and the Utrecht Conference will want to know what happened after their adoption.

The 1950 Congress adopted a resolution condemning the dictatorships and expressing solidarity with the victims of oppression. The dictators are tireless in their endeavours to make the world believe that they are paragons of social justice. Peron and Franco, in this respect, have had bad luck. They have had to quell rebellious strikes on the Argentine railways and in Barcelona, and their propagandists have become a little subdued. Stalin and his various gauleiters are more efficient oppressors and exploiters and have tougher propagandists, among them two sham internationals of transport workers which set themselves up as rivals of the ITF.

The 1950 Congress also adopted a resolution calling for an official international enquiry into the working hours of transport workers in the under-developed countries. The aim is to lay bare the conditions under which railwaymen and road transport workers in both Africa and Asia live and labour. The Utrecht Conference will want to know what the ILO is doing about it. It will also want to know how the Greek Government has reacted to the resolution asking for the application of the Eight Hour Day Convention on Greek railways.

At Innsbruck, the Railwaymen's Section adopted a report and a resolution advocating the creation of a European Transport Authority. Is there any progress to be reported? And what point has now been reached in the discussions regarding the general introduction of automatic coupling on the railways of the European Continent?

There is no shortage of questions on which the spokesmen of over 3,000,000 railwaymen affiliated to the ITF can have mutually instructive exchanges of views and endeavour to hammer out common policies. There are good prospects that the Utrecht Conference will be both interesting and fruitful.

Strength of railway staffs

Country	Period	1949	1950	% difference
GERMANY Anglo-Amer. Zone	Jan.-Oct.	459,561	435,366	- 5.3
GERMANY French Zone	Jan.-Aug.	70,073	70,252	+ 0.3
AUSTRIA	Jan.-Oct.	80,806	78,046	- 3.4
BELGIUM	Jan.-Oct.	91,748	89,848	- 2.1
DENMARK	Jan.-Sept.	28,361	28,108	- 0.9
FINLAND	Jan.-Aug.	38,511	36,244	- 5.9
FRANCE	Jan.-Oct.	469,949	452,663	- 3.7
GREAT BRITAIN	Jan.-Sept.	636,533	619,878	- 2.6
GREECE State Railway	Jan.-July	6,056	6,903	+14.0
ITALY	Jan.-Sept.	182,458	171,891	- 5.8
LUXEMBOURG	Jan.-Aug.	5,784	5,575	- 3.7
NORWAY	Jan.-Aug.	26,578	27,077	+ 1.9
NETHERLANDS	Jan.-Oct.	37,907	36,065	- 4.9
SAAR	Jan.-Oct.	14,341	13,817	- 3.6
SWEDEN	Jan.-Sept.	67,874	68,697	+ 1.2
SWITZERLAND Fed. Rlys.	Jan.-Oct.	38,337	37,491	- 2.2
SWITZERLAND B.L.S. Rly.	Jan.-June	1,646	1,684	+ 2.3
Total:		2,256,523	2,179,605	- 3.4

Europe's railwaymen are doing a fine job

Productivity is rising in spite of the reductions in the railway labour force

ACCORDING TO STATISTICS published monthly by the International Union of Railways (UIC), there was, during the year 1950, a general tendency throughout democratic Europe towards a reduction in the number of staff employed on the railways. The table above shows that, the aggregate railway labour force employed in Western Europe last year decreased by almost 77,000.

Other figures issued by the International Union of Railways and relating to work performed on the railways in 1949 and 1950 clearly show that, in spite of the fact of their numbers having been reduced, railwaymen last year did a bigger job than in 1949.

In a recent report on 'The Position of the European Railways' the UIC comments on the reasons for railway staff reductions. It is pointed out that the greater proportion of fixed charges incurred by the railways are accounted for by staff expenditure (wages and salaries, etc.) This has led to an attempt on the part of railway managements to reduce the number of railwaymen employed, both by reorganization and by more efficient use of existing staff. Among the measures taken to achieve this goal are the introduction of one-man driving on electric trains, reductions in the composition of train crews, attempts to reduce lost time (an important point for common carriers, who must

make provision for considerable peak traffic), rationalization in the layout and equipment of work places, and the study of train movements on lines and in stations. Attention is also drawn to the introduction of technical improvements, e.g. the more general use of continuous braking and the development of automatic block signalling, as well as to radical improvements in track upkeep methods etc.

The International Union of Railways also points to progress made towards rationalizing work performed in main line railway stations and railway workshops, the increasing mechanization of numerous accountancy and administrative operations relating to receipts, salaries, statistics, etc. as well to improvements in the selection and vocational training of railway personnel. Another extremely important feature which should not be lost sight of, according to the UIC, is the extension on a number of railways of output bonus systems.

In trying to make more efficient use of available staff, however, the railways have not forgotten the human factor. Railway employees have retained an excellent esprit de corps and are profoundly devoted to their work. This psychological element is of great value to the future of Europe's railways, which have so vital a rôle to play in the European economy.

Health and Welfare of Seafarers

An international problem to be solved by international action (II)

By Karl Evang MD Director-General, Norwegian Health Service; Chairman, Social Welfare Council for Norwegian Seamen

Local Welfare Committees and Personnel

In all ports where there are welfare institutions, it is considered important to have local welfare committees. These are appointed by the Council and include, wherever possible, representatives of the Council, shipowners, seafarers' organizations, the Seamen's Church and the local Norwegian colony. These committees do excellent work and may often be able to raise funds locally, in addition to those placed at their disposal by the Council. Where welfare activity has developed to a sufficient extent, a welfare secretary is appointed as a permanent official of the Council and acts as secretary for the local committee. He is responsible for organizing sports, entertainments, sightseeing trips and educational activities and should, when possible, visit Norwegian ships arriving in port. The Council at present employs fourteen welfare secretaries in various ports.

Sports and Athletic Activities

During four years' experience in this field, we have found that sports and athletic activities have come to play a much greater part in welfare than many people at first expected. The practice of sports helps to bring members of crews together and to develop an interest in physical fitness which is reflected in improved health. It has also been found that it provides a useful opening for educational work.

The Welfare Council has set up a central board to develop sports among seafarers. The Board sends out to ships programmes for games and gymnastics and organizes matches in as many ports as possible, with the assistance of local welfare committees where these exist. Efforts are also made to encourage international games and matches. The board promotes the appointment on each ship of a sports committee consisting of representatives of both officers and ratings. These committees try to secure the participation of every member of the crew in some form of sport, to arrange for training and matches while the ship is in port, to organize physical exercises for everyone on board at least once a day, to arrange for the storing of athletic equipment on board and to make periodical reports on sports activities.

Association football is the sport which has become outstandingly popular in the Norwegian merchant marine, and a system of league matches and local divisions has been worked out. At the outset the provision of equipment caused certain difficulties, but many shipowners have generously helped to provide equipment and in some instances the local welfare offices have built up supplies. During 1949 the Welfare Council received reports on 735 soccer matches played by Norwegian ships' teams in thirty-two different countries, and the total number is undoubtedly much higher.

One problem which arose at an early stage was that of physical fitness. Seafarers did not always realize that playing soccer could be harmful for those who had not trained and reached a certain standard of physical condition. Efforts were therefore made, through the distribution of printed material, films, short-wave radio broadcasts, etc, to encourage athletic activities on

board. The result has been a greatly increased interest in all forms of athletics. During 1949 there were 132 seafarers who took part in jumping championships. At an athletic meeting in New York organized on four Sundays in August 1949 there were 160 participants. In addition to jumping, tug-of-war competitions and the other usual forms of athletics, attention is devoted to rowing and swimming. In the case of swimming, less attention is paid to the competitive aspect than to reaching a certain minimum standard.

Even the best written material cannot take the place of personal instruction in athletics, but this is extremely difficult to organize. One attempt consisted in sending a prominent instructor to ten different ports in Europe and the United States. Gramophone records of instructions were sent in advance, and the instructor's aim was to supplement these and to train persons on board ship to use the records to the fullest advantage.

The general objective is that all persons on board should take part in sports and athletics and that striving after prizes or records for their own sake should be discouraged. Where this has been achieved, sports have proved a levelling factor of great importance in the daily life and work of the crews. In order to provide a certain amount of encouragement, badges are granted for those reaching a certain minimum standard in different forms of athletics, and ship's officers are entrusted with the task of checking the claims for such badges. Shields and challenge cups to be held by ships' teams have also been provided.

The greatest problem is to find good and conveniently situated sports grounds in the different ports. The local field will very often not be available at the time the seafarers could use it, and it has therefore been found necessary to obtain permission to use those belonging to other countries. There are Norwegian



Norwegian Seamen's Centre in San Francisco

sports grounds at present at Rotterdam, San Pedro (California) and Baltimore. Through the generosity of the City of Antwerp, land has been placed at the disposal of Norwegian seafarers free of charge and the field will be completed in the near future. In New York also a field has been given free of charge, and satisfactory working arrangements have been made in Cardiff and Oslo. This is one direction in which there is room for practical international co-operation; the aim should be to have sports grounds available for seafarers in every large port.

Educational Activities

Educational work is perhaps the most difficult and demanding aspect of welfare work for seafarers. As was mentioned earlier, the seafarer is to a great extent cut off from opportunities for cultural development available to people on shore. It is impossible in foreign ports to make up fully for the lack of the cultural opportunities available at home, but efforts should be made to exploit such possibilities as exist. This can best be done when there is a permanent welfare staff in the port. Experience has shown that seafarers may have visited a certain port regularly for many years without acquiring any knowledge of the life of the country. They therefore greatly appreciate well-organized sightseeing trips combined with information on local conditions. They may also be glad to visit theatres, concerts, cinema, exhibitions, museums, etc. Some may be interested in local political and social questions and may wish to attend meetings or conferences dealing with such subjects. Great importance should be attached to well-planned evenings of varied entertainment, preferably finishing up with a dance. This again is difficult to organize without the assistance of a local welfare committee and the local colony of the nationals in question.

If the seafarer is to benefit to any great extent from educational facilities in foreign ports, he must have some knowledge of foreign languages, particularly English. Language instruction therefore occupies a prominent place in educational work for Norwegian seafarers. It has been found that athletic activities ashore form a good starting point for learning a language, since they often call for a knowledge of English or other languages. The teaching of languages has therefore been organized by means of correspondence courses, gramophone records, films and personal instruction. A certain number of university students have been sent out as language teachers, staying on board for periods ranging from four to twelve weeks. Their work has been followed up by the organization of study circles. It has been found that instruction by gramophone records fails to give a command of the written language, while correspondence courses are difficult to organize because the address of a ship is always changing and members of the crew frequently transfer from one vessel to another.

It has also been found useful to stimulate an interest in hobbies. There are always a certain number of men on board with artistic talents of one kind or another, and these should be cultivated. The organization of entertainments on board, either by members of the crew or in the form of films, is also of great importance. By arrangement with a Norwegian film company, a monthly edition of the Norwegian weekly news film has been made available for distribution to ships. Admittedly, there are still practical difficulties in transmitting the film from country to country, and consequently many ships have preferred to rent or borrow foreign films at various ports. More and more ships now carry film projectors, and there are great possibilities for international co-operation in this field.



A homely view in San Francisco's Norwegian Seamen's Centre

Any educational work is meaningless without books. It is therefore of fundamental importance for every ship to have a fairly representative library which can be changed from time to time. More and more Norwegian shipowners are now providing libraries for their ships, and, in addition, the Welfare Council has received gifts of a large number of volumes, which are distributed to individual ships or placed as permanent libraries in seamen's hotels. Experience has shown, however, that many people take little interest in continuous reading if left to themselves. It has therefore proved useful to organize study groups of four to ten members, which can discuss the books that have been read. These groups may also discuss such subjects as community and family problems, psychology, world politics, health questions, languages and navigation. For the last-named subject, the ship's officers can give valuable help. The Council has sent suggestions for the organization of study groups to all ships.

Medical Care for Norwegian Seafarers Abroad

In an attempt to improve the unsatisfactory conditions described earlier in this article, the Norwegian Public Health Service has established medical offices in a few ports visited regularly by large numbers of Norwegian seafarers (New York, London, Liverpool). The size of the office depends on the number of seafarers visiting the port. There are usually one or more doctors, together with nurses, laboratory personnel and office staff, all of whom are permanently employed on fixed salaries, paid out of the health budget of the Norwegian State.

The main task of these medical offices is to treat sick Norwegian seafarers or arrange for their treatment by approved specialists or in approved hospitals. The staff of the office can quickly determine which doctors and hospitals in a port meet the required standards of treatment. Wherever possible, the members of the staff are prepared to go on board ship, to give vaccinations and health instruction. They also advise on problems of rehabilitation and repatriation, and they can be consulted by seafarers on their mental problems. The offices act in an advisory capacity to the consulate, the representatives of shipowners, the seafarers' organizations, the Seamen's Church and any local welfare institutions. In addition, they provide dental treatment by permanently employed dentists. This has proved

very popular because seafarers spending only a short time in port can rarely make appointments with a private dentist. This branch of the service is important because, in general, the dental condition of Norwegian seafarers is poor. In some cases, arrangements have been made for a dentist to remain on board ship until the necessary work for all members of the crew has been completed. Seafarers pay for this work at fixed rates; the money goes to the medical office, which pays the dentist a fixed salary out of it.

Norwegian experience suggests that medical offices of this type in foreign ports are very effective and save a large amount of money for those responsible for the payment of medical bills. Moreover, their experience provides for the first time a reliable picture of the special medical conditions of seafarers as a class.

All medical treatment is covered by the compulsory contributory sickness insurance scheme for Norwegian seafarers established by the Act of 13 December 1946, as amended by the Act

of 18 June 1948. These regulations are a development of the arrangements which were made for the sickness insurance of Norwegian seafarers outside Norway during the second world war. In addition to refunding necessary medical expenses and the cost of drugs, the Sickness Fund pays sickness benefit, supplemented by an allowance for dependants. A special rate of allowance applies if the seafarer is ill in a foreign port. Benefit is payable so long as a member of the Fund is unfit for work at sea, even if he cannot be considered completely unfit for work in general. Benefits are also paid in respect of seafarers' dependants. Under this scheme, the seafarer will not incur any expense on account of sickness if he applies to the Norwegian medical officer or attends the doctor, dentist or hospital to which he is referred by the consulate. If, for personal reasons, he consults another doctor, who charges a higher fee, he must himself meet the additional cost. This does not apply in an emergency where the seafarer has no chance of consulting the consulate.

(to be concluded)

Staff education on British railways

As a result of nationalization and a review of the staff educational and training arrangements in operation on British Railways, the Railway Executive has decided to specialize to some extent in certain subjects in its various residential schools. In addition, it has been decided to amalgamate the two existing schools at Darlington under one Principal and to use it for the training of teachers. The inaugural class now in session there will form a nucleus of fully trained instructors able not only to teach but also to instruct other members of the staff in the technique of teaching. At present, eighteen railwaymen, each of whom is a specialist in his own particular branch of railway work, are being coached for this purpose.

Still other residential schools are located at Derby, Hadley Wood (near London), Scarborough, Edinburgh and Woking. These specialize in instructing prospective or newly appointed station masters, assistant controllers and permanent way supervisors; clerical training; telecommunications operating; and induction courses of a special character designed for small groups of students.

Classes for Station Masters

The training programmes and number of students naturally vary according to needs and accommodation, but at Derby, for example, 30 men from the West of England and the Midlands are now taking a six weeks station masters' course, which includes such subjects as Organization, Personnel Management, Station Housekeeping, Operating and Relations with Staff and Public.

The telecommunications class, which is located at Hadley Wood, enables members of the railway staff to receive practical instruction in the use of telephone switchboards, teleprinter apparatus, etc.

Evening Classes

'Domestic' evening classes on railway subjects are held regularly during the winter on all Regions of British Railways. They include courses on:

Passenger Station Accounts, Permanent Way Maintenance,

Signalling Rules and Regulations, Goods Station Accounts, Signal Engineering, Railway Salesmanship.

The 450 instructors in charge of these classes are railway experts and it is hoped that all will eventually pass through the teachers' training school at Darlington.

University Lectures

Lectures for railway staff at certain centres on subjects such as Economic Geography, Railway Law, Economics and Railway Operating have been arranged this winter in London, Nottingham, Sheffield, Hull, Leeds, Manchester, Durham, Aberdeen, Dundee, Edinburgh and Glasgow in conjunction with the Universities. These are of value to railway students preparing to sit for the examinations of the Institute of Transport.

In general, free travel facilities are given to railway students to enable them to attend classes and any fees payable in respect of attendance at approved courses offered by local education authorities are refunded provided a reasonable standard of attendance is maintained. For students at remote stations or those who for some reason cannot attend classes, correspondence courses are arranged.

Mobile Schools

In some cases schools are taken to the staff instead of the staff going to the schools. Three 'schools-on-wheels', each consisting of two railway coaches equipped with film projectors and working models, are touring motive power depots to instruct locomotive staff in the working and maintenance of engines. A similar instruction car fitted with working models of the vacuum brake, electrical equipment, etc., is touring the country for the benefit of the staff of the Carriage and Wagon Department.

The training and instruction of railway staff is provided for in the British Transport Act of 1947. Wherever possible, the railway education programme is developed in close collaboration with local educational authorities, who are, in many cases, able to offer classes suitable for railwaymen at their evening institutes.

Increase in world merchant shipping tonnage

UNITED NATIONS STATISTICS issued recently show that the world had a greater volume of merchant shipping tonnage in 1949 than in 1930.

Figures of registered tonnage showed a 21 per cent increase, accounted for almost entirely by the United States, whose aggregate tonnage rose by 14,711,000. This increase was greater than that for the whole world (14,547,000), thus indicating that some maritime nations were actually worse off than they were in 1930.

The tonnage figures issued by the United Kingdom, France and the Netherlands were 11 per cent, 12 per cent and 3 per cent below their 1930 levels, although they were, nevertheless, in a better position than in 1937.

The ex-enemy countries lost heavily. Germany in 1949 had only 7 per cent of its 1930 tonnage, and Japan only 36 per cent. Italy, on the other hand, had, by 1949, climbed up to 75 per cent of its 1930 total.

The United Nations also points out that during the period under review a tremendous increase in shipping registered in Panama occurred.

Actual tonnage rose from 75,000 tons in 1930 to a little over three million tons in 1949.

Merchant shipping pool if war comes

IN THE EVENT OF WAR, the creation of a gigantic pool of merchant shipping – made up of the entire merchant fleets of the North Atlantic Treaty countries – is projected. The total volume of shipping involved in such a pool would be in the region of 61,000,000 gross registered tons.

The actual details of the pooling plan are being worked out by a small commission, consisting of representatives of the United States, Great Britain and the Netherlands.

It is reported that the committee's labours are already so advanced that, if its proposals are adopted by the conference of Atlantic Treaty countries which is to be held during the course of this month in Washington, the scheme could be put into operation whenever this appeared desirable.

National Shipping Authority for United States established

IN A STATEMENT ISSUED IN WASHINGTON towards the end of March, the United States Secretary of Commerce, Mr Charles Sawyer, announced the setting-up of a National Shipping Authority within the US Federal Maritime Administration.

The Commerce Secretary said that the new authority would be designed to 'provide for the most effective use of the American merchant marine during the present emergency' and that it would be headed by a director who would be responsible to the chief of the Federal Maritime Administration.

'The National Shipping Authority (NSA) will be prepared to direct the use of the American merchant marine, one of our most vital assets, in order to meet the demands of mobilization and foreign policy,' continued Mr Sawyer. 'Its establishment now will enable us to profit from the experience of the second World War through the immediate administration of shipping programmes in the national interest.'

The NSA will perform such functions and duties with respect to the purchase, charter, requisition, use and allocation of ocean-

going vessels as are required in the interest of national security. It will also co-ordinate the shipping activities of the Government with the shipping agency activities of other Governments.

Following the formal announcement that the new authority would be established, the chief of the Maritime Administration stated that it would seek the re-enactment by Congress of the Ship Warranty Act of World War II as a stand-by law, to give it control of ship utilization and shipping rates in an emergency.

This Act, which expired shortly after the end of the late war, gave the then War Shipping Administration broad powers over all shipping, under American and foreign flags, which touched on United States commerce.

ECA 50/50 clause still being observed

MORE THAN 52 PER CENT of all ECA-financed commodities shipped abroad from the United States during the eighteen months ended 30 September, 1950, were moved in American-flag vessels, according to a report issued by the Economic Co-operation Administration.

The 50 per cent American-flag tonnage requirement covered each of the three cargo categories – dry bulk, liner and tanker cargoes. Of dry bulk and liner cargoes, American vessels carried 52 per cent, and nearly 54 per cent of the relatively small volume of tanker cargoes were also moved in American bottoms.

As for inbound cargoes – mostly strategic materials purchased with ECA counterpart funds under contracts made after 2 April, 1949 – 69 per cent of bulk cargoes and 65 per cent of liner cargoes arrived in the United States aboard American-flag vessels. There were no inbound tanker shipments of strategic materials during the period under review.

ECA foresees difficult shipping position

IN A STATEMENT ISSUED EARLY IN APRIL, the head of the Economic Co-operation Administration's transportation division, Col. Arthur G. Syran, warned that a critical situation existing in the field of ocean shipping was threatening the flow of goods to Marshall Plan countries.

He pointed out that the existing shortage of cargo space had its origins in increased cargo movements consequent upon the Korean conflict, but had been further aggravated by other factors, such as increased exports from Western Europe, European orders for American coal and grain, and increased US stockpiling of strategic materials.

Turning to actual needs in respect of shipping space, Col. Syran said that the combined ECA and non-ECA grain, coal and other programmes would require some 1,740 cargoes during the first six months of this year.

Although requirements for the February coal and grain programmes had not been met in full, arrangements since made with the Maritime Administration for the withdrawal of vessels from the US reserve fleet should suffice to meet demands for the next few months.

However, he said, should the situation become even more critical the ECA would have to rely on the possibility of still more vessels from the reserve fleet being made available.

He said that the shipping situation today was just the opposite of what it was a year ago, when the era of abundant cargo space seemed ended and the number of Government vessels under bareboat charter to private operators fell from 122 in January to sixty by 1 July, 1950.

Failure of Czech transport planning

THAT ALL IS NOT GOING ACCORDING TO PLAN in the Czech transport industry has been shown by some recent pronouncements by Communist officials in that country.

On 14 March last, for instance, the Economic Committee and the Committee for Economic Planning discussed the Budget appropriations for the Ministry of Transport.

At the meeting, one speaker stressed President Gottwald's remarks to the effect that the Czech transport industry had so far failed to fulfil its task. In addition, he referred to frequent delays in passenger and goods services and accidents which, he said, undermined confidence in the transport authorities.

Such deficiencies had been caused 'mainly by uneven plan fulfilment, and strict order must be introduced into the transport system as soon as possible'. The number of women employed in the industry was continually growing, he said, but the total number of persons employed in transport had fallen by 58 per cent as compared with last year.

Further light is thrown on Czech transport shortcomings by the fact that a conference of Slovak Communist transport workers was held in Bratislava on 2 April 'in order to discuss their problems in the light of criticisms made at the February session of the Communist Party Central Committee'.

The conference was attended by the Commissioner for Transport who stressed the need for a vigorous campaign

against 'the slackness and carelessness which was responsible for the alarming number of accidents and for train delays'.

From apprentice to engineer

THE RAILWAYS OF WESTERN AUSTRALIA suffer acutely from a shortage of professional engineers. In fact, it may be said that this shortage is one of the major problems now facing the Railway Commission in the implementation of its rehabilitation programme. A solution to the problem is, therefore, being sought in the introduction of a training scheme – with the emphasis on mechanical engineering – which should be capable of producing sufficient engineers and engineering assistants to meet the State needs and of providing local youths with the facilities which will enable them to become eligible for the highest positions in the railway service.

Four scholarships, called 'cadetships', will be offered annually to selected apprentices to enable them to undertake a five-year course of full-time training at the university for the degree of Bachelor of Engineering (Mechanical or Electrical). Two cadets will be selected by competitive examination from among apprentices under twenty years of age possessing the requisite qualifications, and two others from among candidates with similar qualifications. Apprentice cadets will be paid apprenticeship wages and, on obtaining a degree, will be appointed as pupil engineers, with pay at the rate of assistant engineer. As pupil engineers, they will do up to two years' practical training.

Passenger motor vehicles on the increase

THE UNITED NATIONS STATISTICAL YEARBOOK for the period 1949–50 contains some interesting figures which are indicative of the tremendous advances which have been made in recent years both in the production and utilization of passenger motor vehicles.

The United Nations statistics reveal, for instance, that in the United States – most motorized country in the world – there were more than 36,000,000 passenger cars in 1949 – an increase

of 70 per cent in the two decades since 1928. Next to the United States came the United Kingdom, with 2,000,000 passenger cars; Canada, with its much smaller population, approached the per capita figure of the United States, taking third place with a total of 1,700,000 cars.

Another large increase between 1928 and 1947 was registered by the Union of South Africa which, with 352,000 cars, nearly doubled its 1928 figure. (See table below)

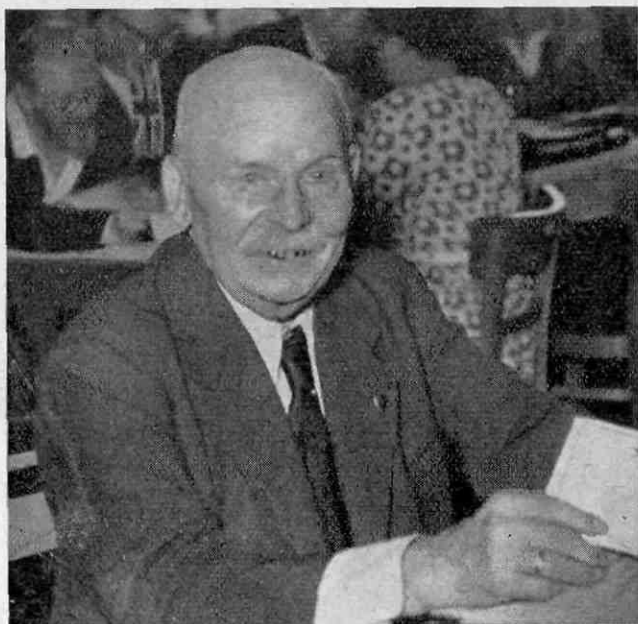
Passenger cars in use Thousands

Country	1928	1937	1949
United States*	21,308	25,391	36,293
U. of South Africa	113	282	352±
Canada	929	1,103	1,672
Mexico	49	78	134±
Belgium	79	144	227
Western Germany	—	—	439
Netherlands	52	91	114
Spain	—	—	86
Sweden	94	134	194
Switzerland	50	72	123
United Kingdom	934	1,833	2,191
Australia	419	499	655
New Zealand	108	175	231

* 48 States. ± 1947

Farewell to Johann Döring

An international trade unionist whose work will live



WHEN JOHANN DÖRING PASSED AWAY at the age of eighty-seven on 7 May, the last remaining link with a period of ITF history – the ten years during which the Federation was established in Germany under German leadership – was broken. With but few exceptions, the leading figures of the pre-1914 epoch have now become legendary. Save for that 'Grand Old Man', Charles Lindley – co-founder of the ITF in the year 1896 – Johann Döring was the senior surviving ITF leader.

As to the exceptions referred to above, it is both fitting and a pleasure to recall here that Johan Brautigam of Rotterdam and Karl Weigl of Vienna are still among us. Both of them attended pre-World War I Congresses of the ITF. Brautigam, fourteen years the junior of Johann Döring, visited his first ITF Congress, that held in Copenhagen in 1910, ten years after Döring; whilst Karl Weigl was a delegate to the last ITF gathering to be held before the outbreak of the 1914-18 war – the London Congress of 26 to 30 August, 1913.

The task of evaluating Johann Döring's great services to our Federation in a fitting manner must, of necessity, be reserved for the writer of the history of the ITF itself. Döring's activities in the interests of the ITF were both multifarious and significant, particularly during the period when the ITF Secretariat was located in Germany, viz. from 1904 until the Federation's virtual destruction by the First World War. The outstanding rôle which Döring then played formed so inseparable a part of the whole pattern of the Federation's existence that it simply cannot be adequately dealt with unless one simultaneously undertakes the task of writing the complete history of the ITF during that period.

Moreover, Döring was, from the re-establishment of the ITF in 1919 until 1932 (when he finally retired from active participation in the Labour Movement), a member – and a most active one at that – of the ITF Executive Committee as well as being ITF

Vice-President for some years. It is, therefore, virtually impossible to sum up an almost continual activity, extending over three decades, if this be divorced from the colourful backcloth against which it was played out – the ascendance of the ITF, after a quarter of a century's struggle for existence, to its present predominant position in its own field.

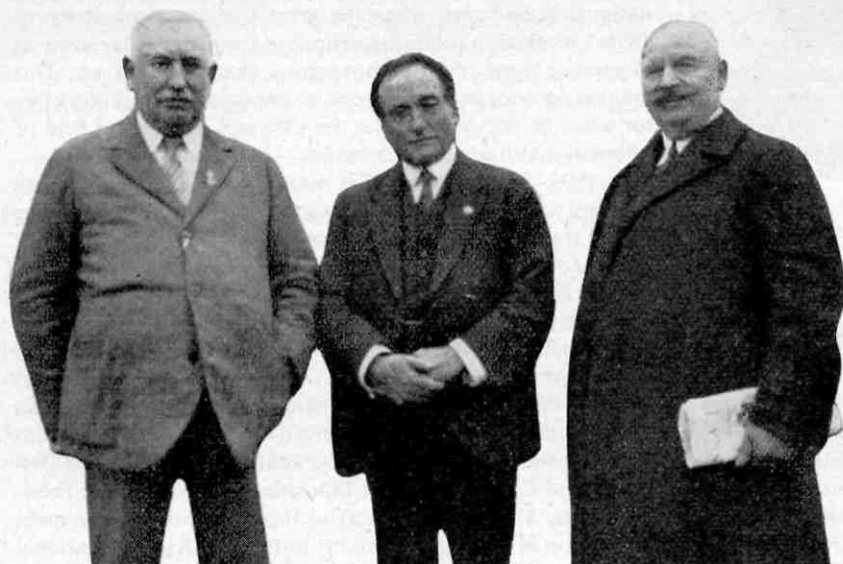
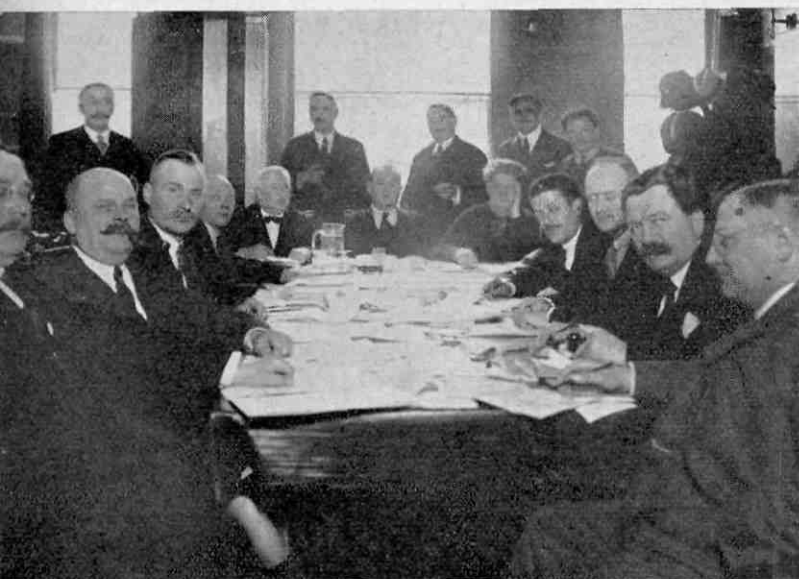
Döring, like his great British colleague Ernest Bevin, who preceded him to the last resting place by only three weeks, attained prominence in the Labour Movement largely as a result of his successful attempts to organize the dockworkers.

At the age of twenty-three, he joined the Stevedores' Union in his native town, the port of Hamburg. It was to a great extent due to his efforts that, only three years later, the various local German dockers' unions amalgamated to form a national organization. As a national trade union leader, Döring had experience of the indivisibility of the cause of labour, transcending national boundaries, when the great German dock strike of 1896-7 resulted in solidarity actions in countries as far away as Australia, North and South America, the Transvaal, etc. This great experience must have been an important contributory factor when he decided to enter the then still unexplored field of international trade union action.

In 1899, Döring was called upon to join the ranks of the growing number of full-time trade union officials. After having served the movement in an honorary capacity, he was, in that year, appointed as salaried President of the German Dockers' Union. He collaborated in the creation of an all-embracing union of transport workers, which was set up in 1910 as a result of the amalgamation of the German transport workers', dockers', seamen's, railwaymen's and tramwaymen's unions, and became its first Vice-President. When, in 1929, this organization in its turn amalgamated with others to form the German National Association of Employees of Public Concerns and the Passenger and Goods Transport Industries, he became Vice-President of the Association, occupying this post until his retirement on pension in 1930. In spite of his withdrawal from the national movement, however, he was to remain a member of the ITF Executive Committee for a further two years.

The first ITF Congress attended by Döring was that held in Paris in September 1900. From that date on he was a familiar figure at all such gatherings and occupied a central position on the ITF platform. In 1904, he did much to give the Federation a new lease of life by facilitating the transfer of its Secretariat from England, where Tom Chambers had acted as Secretary, to Germany, where Hermann Jochade began his period of devoted secretaryship. From among the five members of the German management committee, Johann Döring may easily be singled out as the man who, next to Jochade, did most to weld the ITF into a living International.

After Döring's resignation as a member of the Executive Committee at the Prague Congress of 1932, the ITF Journal wrote of him: 'What characterized Döring was his ability to understand and allow for conditions and views prevalent outside his own country, and the fact that what mattered to him was not the form of organization but its efficacy for achieving the purpose for which it existed'. No greater compliment than



Döring and the ITF

1 At the General Council meeting, March 1924 (second from left)

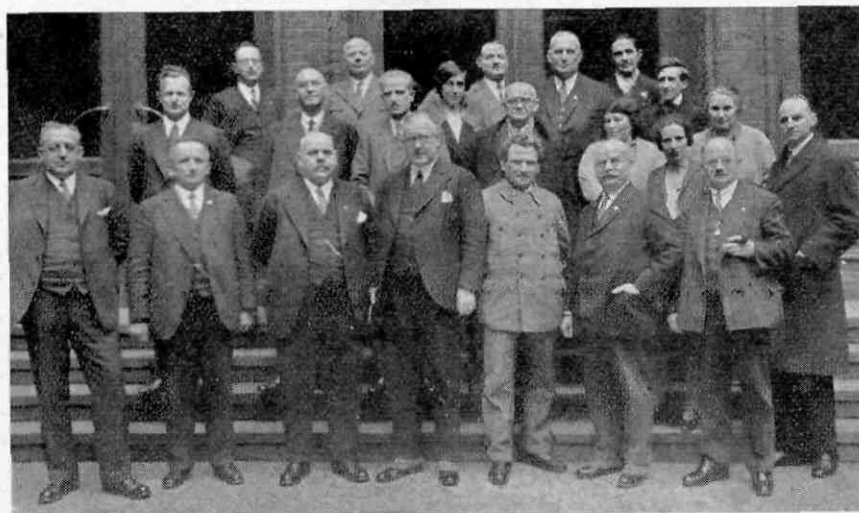
2 Presiding over a meeting of ITF leaders on the occasion of the Geneva Congress, April 1921

3 Three ITF stalwarts at the Stockholm Congress of 1928 (Charles Lindley, Ben Tillett and Johann Döring)

4 With the delegates to the Tramway-men's Conference, Berlin 1931, (frontrow, second from right)

5 Group of ITF leaders, taken in Amsterdam, June, 1932, in the room of the late General Secretary, Edo Fimmen

6 At Congress of Swedish Transport Workers' Union, Stockholm 1910 (front row wearing cap)





6

this could have been paid to Döring as an international leader, the man who, at the Copenhagen Congress of 1910, tried to give guidance to the national movements by delivering an address on 'The Form of the National Organizations' in which he pleaded for the promotion of a form of organization which was, at that time, not yet recognized as being the most effective.

For the only true leaders are those who see beyond immediate

issues, those who know how to connect present tasks with the wider problems set by future conditions, the development of which they alone are as yet able to discern. Such a man was Johann Döring, from whose leadership the ITF benefited for so many years. Our Federation is and will remain immensely grateful for its good fortune in having been able to count, among its many eminent counsellors, one so outstanding as he.

In Spite of it all! by Johann Döring

In our May issue, dedicated to the memory of the late Ernest Bevin, we reproduced a short contribution by him to the 1 May 1929 number of the ITF Journal, in which he recorded some of his impressions of the Reconstitution Congress of the ITF in 1919. In the course of this, Brother Bevin described that memorable meeting 'on a little bridge in Amsterdam' between the British and German delegates to the conference.

We feel it may be of interest to readers of that article to hear another account of the Amsterdam meeting, as told by one of the German delegates, the late Johann Döring, to whose pioneer work for the ITF we have paid tribute elsewhere in this issue. The article was first published in the ITF Journal for 1 May 1929, when Döring was still Vice-President of the German Transport Workers' Union.

'ALL RIGHT?' 'VERY WELL!' A firm handshake, and the bridge which had been wrecked by the war was rebuilt, and on sound foundations, or it could not have borne the enormous strain of the years immediately following the reconstruction of the International Transportworkers' Federation. A briefer and simpler formula never sealed an act of such paramount importance to the international labour movement.

Four years previously our proud Federation had been rent asunder by a disastrous war, and by the evil nationalist passions which it awakened. Forced into complete inactivity, the leadership of the ITF, which for the past ten years had been in the hands of the German unions, could only hope that the common sense and strong solidarity which had always been characteristic of the unions belonging to the ITF would prevail in the end. And this hope was fulfilled. Fellow-feeling, and a realization of the fact that the capitalist class is and always will be the

common enemy, have swept aside for ever the obstacles that hindered the revival of the ITF.

'All right?' 'Very well!' It was a fine morning in April 1919. The provisional leadership of the ITF which in the meantime had been transferred to the Dutch unions, had asked the unions formerly affiliated to send representatives to Amsterdam, to discuss the possibility of reconstituting the ITF. The German unions (railwaymen and transport workers) responded and sent three representatives, Brunner, Döring and Jochade. Representatives of the Belgian transport workers and seamen also came, while the Dutch unions, who with their usual faithfulness had remained true to the ITF, were of course also represented. Most important of all, however, the National Transport Workers' Federation of Great Britain had also responded to the invitation. The previous day an attempt made to bring about a meeting between the Belgian comrades and ourselves had failed. It

was with very mixed feelings that on the April morning in question we set out for the hotel at which the British comrades were staying, intending to have a talk with them before the official conference. When we reached the bridge near the tower of the old Amsterdam mint we saw the British comrades Robert Williams, Harry Gosling and Ernest Bevin approaching from the other side. When comrade Williams, who was then General Secretary of the National Transport Workers' Federation, saw

us, he took three or four great strides, and stretched out his hand, calling out: 'All right?' With beating heart I clasped the proffered hand and replied: 'Very well!' Not a word more! And so peace was sealed between the principal unions in the ITF. I can honestly say that it was the most significant moment of all my life, and never before or since have I experienced such a strong feeling of joy as that moment, which was decisive for the international transport workers and their position in the world.

Reflections on the recent Barcelona strike

By Trifón Gómez



Trifón Gómez

Trifón Gómez, President of the Spanish General Workers' Union in exile, began his trade union career in 1915 when he became Secretary of the Northern Railwaymen's Union. He directed the part played by this latter organization in the general strike of 1917 and, as a result, lost his job on the railways and was forced to take refuge in France until an amnesty was declared in 1918. In 1920 he was elected General Secretary of the Spanish National Union of Railwaymen, a position which he held without interruption until July, 1934.

He became Assistant Secretary of the Spanish General Federation of Trade Unions in 1932. During the Civil War, he was appointed Director General of Supplies and Quartermaster General of the Republican Army. He has been a member of the General Council of the ITF without interruption since 1921 and a member of the Executive Committee since 1935.

THE RECENT ORDERLY STRIKE of the people of Barcelona was extensively reported in the world press, which clearly regarded it as highly significant. The movement is therefore worthy of close study as a manifestation of the real character of the Spanish people and its present state of mind.

The first reaction of the Spanish authorities, a typically foolish one which was later rectified, was to attribute this magnificent movement, in which the greater part of the population of Barcelona took part, to the instigation of imaginary agents of Moscow. They soon realized, however, that while this might have the desired effect in the more conservative and timorous circles in the Spanish provinces, its very absurdity was calculated to produce the opposite impression internationally. The world press drew the obvious conclusion that if Stalin's agents were sufficiently able and influential to provoke a movement so general as that in Barcelona, where the Communist Party had no influence whatsoever in the past, Franco must have been lying when he declared repeatedly, that he had cleaned Spain of Communism and eliminated the supporters of Moscow.

Later the same authorities put into circulation the story that the movement had been born of the discontent which the more active elements of the Falange felt at the unwillingness of the local authorities to take measures against the Tramway Company and against speculators who traded on the hunger and misery of the workers of Barcelona. It is less important to trace the immediate causes of the movement, however, than to show its inner significance and draw the appropriate conclusions.

Recalling the events of 14 April 1931, when the Spanish people overthrew with its ballot papers a thousand year old monarchy and established the second Spanish Republic, without spilling a drop of blood and without committing any excesses worth mentioning; and considering this new civic act by the people of Barcelona, performed in circumstances which might have been expected to lead to acts of desperation; we are glad to find that Spanish people, with whom the ITF has always been proud to identify itself, is continuing to give unequivocal proof of its love of ordered liberty, of its adherence to democracy as a system of government, and of political fitness to take its rightful part in guiding the destinies of the country.

A people that can stage movements of this kind is a worthy ally of the free world, offering every guarantee that it will play its part in the battles that have still to be fought against the forces of oppression; and a people worthy also of being helped to shake off the yoke of tyranny which it bears at present.

Whatever the interested motives that many will attribute to it, there is no doubt that the Barcelona strike was a unanimous vote of censure on a regime that, though it has absolute power in its hands, has been unable to offer the Spanish people bread, peace or freedom. None of the leaflets distributed among the demonstrators, none of the satirical posters affixed to walls and trees, and none of the slogans shouted by the people who peacefully thronged the streets, were in any way favourable to Franco or his regime. In the circumstances of terror and persecution in which the Spanish people live this fact is eloquent.

The Barcelona strike was an act of protest by a whole people against the inept and bloody regime under which it suffers. The authorities themselves foolishly recognized the fact by declaring the strike to be illegal and by calling upon both employers and workers to get the factories running again and threatening both with penalties in case of disobedience – deductions from their wages in the case of the workers and closing of their establishments for employers who neglected to make such deductions; though both measures were cancelled almost immediately.

We have known the Spanish workers for many years, and we know they were, and still are, enemies of Franco and his regime. It is evident that many different circles in Spain are now also hostile. Tomorrow the whole of the people will rise against him.

We should be making a great mistake were we to abandon the Spanish workers in their struggle, which is also ours. At this juncture the democratic world cannot afford to leave the Spanish democrats in the lurch, nor help Franco, even though it be by acts of omission. It is in the best interest of the workers of the free world, and all who believe in democracy, that they should see the face of Spain as it really is, and that they should realize that notwithstanding hesitations and desertions on the part of outside forces that should have been the champions of freedom and democracy, the Spanish people are still faithful to these principles and advance steadily towards their fulfilment.



A street scene in Barcelona during the strike – Franco's soldiers 'keeping order'



A scene of appalling squalor so frequently met in Franco's Barcelona

Dutch Rhine shipping in its international context

By R. Laan Sr. Chairman* Dutch Transport Workers' Federation

AT THE REQUEST OF OUR UNION, a Commission of Experts has recently made a report on the position of Dutch Rhine shipping in its international aspects. A limited edition of this report has now been printed and a summary of its main points is given below.

At the beginning of its report, the Commission points out that the Netherlands now probably possesses a Rhine shipping fleet which is somewhat larger than the fleets of all other Rhine countries put together. Owing to the increased utilization of motor vessels, the carrying capacity of which – on account of their greater speed – is double that of dumb barges of the same size, the tonnage space available on the Rhine since the end of the second world war has tended to exceed demand.

Serious dangers for Dutch Rhine shipping

Post-war experience has shown that when a too large amount of shipping space is available, serious dangers confront Dutch Rhine shipping. As a general rule, Switzerland and France have taken the view that cargoes to and from their own countries should primarily be moved in their own flag vessels and that Dutch shipping comes into the picture only when their own Rhine fleets are unable to deal with the available traffic. This preference for the national flag has, to an important degree, also been shown by Germany. In addition, the West German Government is still maintaining its almost complete prohibition of foreign participation in German Rhine shipping operations. As a consequence of all these factors, the Dutch Rhine fleet is being forced into a reserve position. Belgium, also, is faced with similar difficulties, but in her case Rhine shipping is not such an important source of revenue as it is for Holland, nor is she as dependent on foreign loadings as is the latter.

German and Belgian policy regarding seaports

From the very beginning of the Allied Occupation of Germany preferential treatment has been accorded to the ports of Bremen and Antwerp in so far as the supplying of West Germany with goods is concerned. In addition, the West German Authorities have taken further discriminatory measures, aimed at providing the port of Hamburg, in particular, with traffic which otherwise would have been dealt with by the Dutch seaports and Antwerp.

In the case of Belgium, the report draws attention to the fact that special Rhine shipping primages are paid by the Government of that country to the owners of vessels moving some of the more important types of cargo to and from the port of Antwerp. This practice involves preferential treatment, not only for Antwerp, but also for Belgian-owned Rhine shipping.

International consultation and cooperation

As a result of the worsening of international relations, an improvement in the position of Rhine shipping was registered during the second half of 1950. According to the Commission, however, this improvement has not in any way diminished the urgent need for energetic measures aimed at avoiding existing dangers and preventing the undermining of our Rhine shipping industry's viability. The struggle between the ports, based on an attempt to obtain the largest share of available traffic by means of aggressive discrimination, can only lead to a sharpening of existing differences and will, in the end, doom the activities of all concerned to frustration.

Such a situation calls for international consultation and cooperation in order to ensure, as far as possible, that each port receives its fair share of the aggregate traffic available.

A freight tariff scheme should form an integral part of any eventual agreement on Rhine shipping concluded with Germany and both countries should bind themselves to respect it. At the same time, and in order to restrict tonnage capacity, a quota system, flexible enough to allow adjustments in the size of individual quotas according as conditions in the Rhine shipping industry fluctuate, should be adopted.

The need for national regulation

Some regulation of Dutch Rhine shipping is absolutely essential if the Government is to possess the necessary powers to ensure that Dutch shipowners honour the stipulations of an agreement similar to that mentioned above. Such regulation should put an end to the differences between the various groups of employers, differences which until a short while ago were acute and which still exist in some degree.

In this connection, the report draws attention to the conflict of interests existing between the independent owners of Rhine vessels on the one hand and the shipping companies on the other, as well as to the lack of agreement and regulation amongst the independent owners.

Laying up - the desirability of international regulation

We have already drawn attention to the fact that the authors of the report point to the need for a quota system. Closely related to this aspect is the necessity for some international agreement regarding the laying up of Rhine shipping. The resultant reserve fleet could then be drawn upon as demanded by fluctuating conditions in the industry.

The report concludes with the following observations: Rhine shipping is undoubtedly one of those branches of industry which could play a part in bringing about West European integration. One is, therefore, fully justified in urging the Dutch Government to take the initiative in helping to achieve the above-mentioned aims. Indeed, such action is necessary in order to stave off the dangers with which the Dutch Rhine shipping industry is continually faced.

Up to now, the Government has been content to play the rôle of an interested observer, occasionally lending a helping hand where necessary in efforts made by the industry to achieve

*Mr. Laan retired at the beginning of this month.

internal agreement between the various groups concerned and to reach a satisfactory basis of cooperation with the German Rhine shipping industry. So far, these efforts have had no results of any importance and, in the meantime, much valuable time has been lost. Meanwhile, new constructions and the expansion of the Rhine fleets of various countries have both accentuated and brought closer the perils with which the Dutch industry is faced. The failure of such deliberations as have taken place within the

framework of private industry should be a further incentive for the Dutch Government to abandon its rôle of an interested on-looker and to take speedy steps to bring about such consultation at international level as must lead to cooperation in the sphere of Rhine shipping. In order to ensure the success of this, however, the Government will, at the same time, have to decide on further elaboration of the internal regulation of the Dutch Rhine shipping industry.

Cooperation between three Mediterranean ports

DURING THE MONTH OF MARCH an important meeting of the Coordinating Committee of the three Mediterranean ports of Marseilles, Genoa and Savona was held in Genoa. In addition to representatives of those with direct interests in the three ports, the meeting was also attended by the Ministers of Merchant Marine of both France and Italy.

The British shipping journal *Fairplay*, commenting on the meeting, states that the main feature throughout the talks was a recognition of the fact that the only choice lies between local planning at each port in utter disregard of, and in competition with, the plans and interests of the other two ports and enlightened action and loyal cooperation between the three ports for the promotion of their common interests.

The general feeling among those at the meeting was that the days of a barren rivalry have passed away and that only a thorough and efficient reorganization of the relationships of the ports one to another, and the framing of a coordinated and constructive policy will enable them to meet the inescapable and complex problems that are being posed by such momentous developments as the rerouting of large sections of transit traffic – especially to Switzerland – and the disquieting growth of severe competition from North European ports.

Cooperation between the Adriatic ports?

THE ATTEMPTS NOW BEING MADE by the North Sea ports to obtain a greater measure of cooperation one with another has given rise to discussions in the press of both Trieste and Venice as to whether the time has not now arrived to consider the formation of an Adriatic 'Hansa Union'. The opinion is being voiced that the ports of Venice, Trieste and perhaps also Rijeka (the former Fiume) should organize a defence campaign against the North. This in spite of the fact that each of the three is at present engaged in competition with the other two.

Port circles in Venice are demanding that, as a first step, the spheres of influence of the two great Adriatic ports should be scrapped and that instead joint efforts should be made, to extend line services, particularly to the East, in order to stimulate traffic from Poland, Czechoslovakia, Austria and Bavaria and generally combat competition from the North Sea ports, which, in certain cases, offer tariff concessions and are expanding their line traffic to countries on the other side of the Suez Canal.

Running the railways a team job - A message to the staff of British Railways

THE CHAIRMAN OF THE BRITISH RAILWAYS EXECUTIVE in a message to the staff in the April issue of the British Railways Magazine says:

'Running the railways is, of course, a team job. If we're all pulling in different directions we'll get nowhere. If we all pull together – and there are over 600,000 of us – we'll do a better job and be happier men and women.'

'A new Special Joint Committee of representatives of the Railway Executive and the trade unions, whose job it is to further increased efficiency and economy, had its first meeting only ten days after the date of the wage settlement.'

'We've got to take advantage of the opportunities which this new co-operative effort gives us. Executive officers and trade union officials will, I can assure you, do their part. Success can only come if every man Jack (and Jill) in the railway service becomes imbued with a real sense of co-operation, and with an honest desire to get on with the job.'

'May I suggest that we can best help ourselves and our industry if we define our purpose clearly so that we can keep it ever in mind. It is to provide the public with an efficient railway service at a reasonable price, to give good, honest employment, at fair wages, in return for a day's work well done. There is our objective stated simply. I promise you this: I will do my best, with the advice of my experienced colleagues on the Executive, to serve both public and staff. I will not knowingly permit or support either injustice or inefficiency.'

'In this, one of Britain's biggest industries, and certainly the greatest single railway unit in the world, we have much to do.'

'I have the right to ask for your support and trust; I shall freely give you mine.'

Tremendous increase in air line operations since 1937

ACCORDING TO FIGURES issued by the International Civil Aviation Organization, passenger mileage of the world's civil air lines in 1950, at 16,404 million, was more than eighteen times as great as in 1937. Passengers carried in 1950 totalled more than seven times the 1937 figure. During the period 1947 to 1950, cargo transport by air increased by more than 150 per cent, while passengers carried increased by 44 per cent.

Jugoslav youth helps construct new railway

TANJUG, the Yugoslav official news agency, announces that the first 2,000 young people from various parts of Yugoslavia have arrived at construction sites of the Banja Luka – Doboj railway, to prepare for the construction of the new 22 kilometres-long railway line in Bosnia.

So far this year, reports Tanjug, over 80,000 young people have applied to take part in the construction of this, the third new railway to be built in Yugoslavia since the end of the war.

Health and Welfare of Seafarers III

By Karl Evang MD Director-General, Norwegian Health Service; Chairman, Social Welfare Council for Norwegian Seamen

Suggestions for further international action

As a result of some ten years' experience, the Norwegian seafarers and shipowners, and also the Sickness Fund and the health services, are strongly of the opinion that it would be desirable to establish more Norwegian medical offices in foreign ports so as to guarantee satisfactory medical treatment at the most reasonable cost. It will, however, be obvious that it is not financially possible to maintain a medical office if the number of Norwegian seafarers passing through a particular port is comparatively small. This fact greatly limits the possible extension of the system, and thus the only course open for further development is that of co-operation with other maritime countries, some of which have already had satisfactory experience of a system similar to the Norwegian. Personally, I am convinced that the time has come for considering seriously the creation of an international health service for seafarers in all major ports.

There would seem to be three methods in particular by which this might be done:

- 1 by extending the Brussels Agreement of 1924 to cover the treatment of diseases other than venereal disease;
- 2 by establishing international medical offices through co-operation between the Governments of the maritime countries concerned, under the auspices of the WHO and the ILO;
- 3 by establishing international medical offices through co-operation between shipping interests in maritime countries.

Each of these methods – and possibly others – should be carefully examined and tried out in some typical port. My own opinion is that the second of the three alternatives offers the best and most natural solution.

The scheme would have to be planned so as to be financially self-supporting and thus without cost to the WHO and the ILO. It would involve the setting up of a network of international health service stations for seafarers, administered by the WHO through some body created for this purpose. These stations would be staffed by well-qualified physicians, dentists, nurses, laboratory personnel, etc, from many countries, receiving fixed salaries in the same way as other international staff. Norwegian experience suggests that it would not be difficult to obtain qualified medical staff for most of these positions. Service at a smaller station would qualify for promotion to a larger and more difficult station, and in time an international staff of medical experts would grow up with a special knowledge of seafarers' health problems. It is true that such a system would not meet the justifiable demand of seafarers to be treated by persons of their own nationality. This is a very real point, and to my mind there would be every reason for retaining national medical offices where the demand was so great that their existence was financially justified. It should, however, be possible to fit these national offices into the framework of the international scheme. In order to overcome language difficulties, the international offices would have to have good interpreters permanently attached to them.

The proposed new offices could easily co-operate with the sickness insurance institutions for seafarers in countries where such insurance has been introduced. Charges could be fixed by agreement for the various types of medical services, and it may confidently be expected that expenses would be less than they

are at present. Seafarers from countries which do not have sickness insurance should have an equal right to be treated at the medical offices on an agreed financial basis.

There is also room for international co-operation in preventive and control work; but most of such work, as well as rehabilitation and ordinary welfare activities, should continue to be primarily a national responsibility.

Before conditions can be considered satisfactory, I would suggest that at least basic requirements must be met, which can be summarized in the following terms:

With regard to health, there should be some recognized standards of fitness for seafarers, on the basis of which they should be examined when entering the occupation, when signing on, and periodically thereafter. There should be special examinations for tuberculosis, venereal disease and possibly other diseases.

On board ship, there must be satisfactory crew accommodation, including hospital accommodation, baths and sanitary installations. A suitable medicine chest, including prophylactic kits, should be carried, and certain members of the crew should be trained to give first aid, some medical care and up-to-date treatment for venereal disease. Arrangements for the provision of medical advice to ships by wireless should be developed. A proper standard of food and catering should be maintained, and ship's cooks should be required to obtain certificates. In ports, medical and hospital treatment of a recognized standard should be available for all seafarers, as well as ambulatory treatment. Hygienic and sanitary conditions on board should be regularly inspected, and provision made for the transport of sick and injured seamen.

In general, it is essential to develop a sound system of financing health services for seafarers and to provide medical care for their dependants. The responsibility of national public health services for providing medical care for their own and foreign seafarers must be clearly defined. There is also much to be done in educating the individual seafarer in respect of health matters and personal hygiene.

The essential welfare requirements on board ship would seem to be the organization of libraries, educational courses, study groups, hobbies, sports and gymnastics, a newspaper service and a radio news service. In port, there should be good accommodation like seafarers' hotels, reading rooms, clubs, welfare staff in major ports, sightseeing trips, sports and competitions with suitable fields available, social events and dances. Arrangements for transport and services for the transmission of savings are also necessary.

It is true that many countries have taken steps to meet all the above requirements and more. But what is needed now is to integrate these national systems into an international system wherever organization on an international basis seems preferable and practicable. This can be done only step by step, and care must be taken that it does not lead to a further weakening of the ties between seafarers and their own countries.

To my mind, there are five items which should be organized without delay on an international basis in order to attain the desired development:

- 1 ambulatory treatment of disease (establishment of seamen's international health services);
- 2 hospital accommodation ashore;
- 3 acceptance of minimum requirements for medicine chests on board;
- 4 accommodation like hotels in ports;
- 5 welfare services ashore, sightseeing, social activities, admittance to training fields, arrangement of international sports competitions.

There are two ways in which an international solution to these problems might be found. The first is the old and tried method which has already been fruitfully employed by the international governmental organizations – the adoption of resolutions, Recommendations and Conventions. As is well known, the ILO has already acted along those lines on a number of the subjects mentioned above. There are, however, many difficulties in this approach, particularly the slowness and hesitation with which many Governments ratify Conventions and accept Recommendations, even if they have voted for them in the first instance. While waiting for ratifications to come in, one is more or less paralyzed since there seems to be nothing that can be done in the interval to secure more rapid progress.

It is of interest in this connection to note that the Constitution of the WHO on this point represents an attempt to secure more rapid progress from Governments in international work. Article twenty-one of the Constitution reads as follows:

The Health Assembly shall have authority to adopt regulations concerning:

- 1 sanitary and quarantine requirements and other procedures designed to prevent the international spread of disease;
- 2 nomenclatures with respect to diseases, causes of death and public health practices;
- 3 standards with respect to diagnostic procedures for international use;
- 4 standards with respect to the safety, purity and potency of biological, pharmaceutical and similar products moving in international commerce;
- 5 advertising and labelling of biological, pharmaceutical and similar products moving in international commerce.

Article twenty-two, however, contains the following qualifying provision:

Regulations adopted pursuant to Article twenty-one shall come into force for all Members after due notice has been given of their adoption by the Health Assembly except for such Members as may notify the Director-General of rejection or reservations within the period stated in the notice.

As will be seen, the difference between the above provisions and those of the constitutions of other international organiza-

tions of a similar type is that regulations adopted by the Health Assembly are not mere recommendations but become binding on all Member States unless they give notice of rejection or make specific reservations within a certain time limit. This represents some, even if only modest progress. The WHO has already successfully adopted its first regulations under this arrangement.

The mere ratification of a Convention laying down general principles is not enough; it must be supplemented by practical action to give effect to the principles, and experience shows that a long time often elapses before Governments feel obliged to take such practical action. To my mind, the main reason for this is that although a great deal of careful work has been put into the drawing up of international principles and regulations, too little attention has been paid to the setting up of the material institutions and the training of the qualified personnel needed to ensure the effective application of Conventions or Recommendations. Quite rightly, regulations have been drawn up guaranteeing to patients the right to enter a hospital, but it is left more or less to chance to ensure that enough hospitals are available; the right to medical care is guaranteed, but there is no assurance that this medical care is of a sufficiently high standard; and so forth. The chief difficulty in the social and health work of the various international organizations is that they have developed too much as administrative and fact-finding organizations and far too little as operating organizations. Some of the specialized agencies, including the WHO, are at present at a crossroads where they must choose between the old administrative approach and an attempt to retain greater freedom of action in the field which will enable them to be of real practical use.

It seems that useful work for the health and welfare of seafarers could be carried out in the future under the joint auspices of the ILO and the WHO, with the necessary co-operation of the organizations of shipowners and seafarers. If this form of international machinery is found too slow and too cumbersome, there is the alternative method of securing international progress in this field: representatives of the shipowners and the seafarers take matters into their own hands for the benefit of the industry which they represent.

Whatever form of international action may prove most suitable, it should be clear from what has been said in this article that there are still many defects to be remedied and many abuses to be removed before the situation can be considered satisfactory. It is to be hoped that all the interested parties – the ILO, national Governments, the shipowners and the seafarers – will fully appreciate the need for rapid action and will co-operate willingly in an attempt to secure the fullest possible protection for the health of seafarers and to ensure their wellbeing, both ashore and afloat.

(concluded)

New competitors threaten Norwegian whaling industry

THE INCREASED INTEREST which is being shown by many countries in the whaling industry – Germany, Japan and Italy, for instance, have recently appeared on the whaling scene once again – is causing some anxiety in one of the oldest whaling countries in the world – Norway.

At a conference held earlier this year at Sandefjord – the Norwegian whaling centre – it was stated that the expansion of the whaling activities of other lands constitutes a serious threat to the Norwegian industry.

The four new floating whale factories which are to be

acquired by an Italian company will result not only in a decrease in the production and earnings of Norwegian expeditions, but also in unemployment among Norwegian seafarers.

The situation is said to be so serious that strong counter-measures are being considered by Norway. At the conference already referred to, it was, for instance, proposed that the International Whaling Council should be asked to call its members together for an extraordinary conference at which the situation could be discussed.

The transport workers right to strike

During the last few years, the ITF Press Report has made mention of numerous strikes by transport workers, many of which have ended in success for the strikers.

Transport strikes cause much harm and inconvenience; often they cause considerable economic losses. It is, therefore, only natural that the problem of their prevention should exercise the minds of statesmen and others concerned with the public weal. Some amongst them have hit upon the very simple idea of forbidding transport strikes by law.

That idea would be feasible if the relevant legislation at the same time provided the workers concerned with an alternative means of securing justice when they believe themselves to be the victims of inequity. Up to now, however, no-one has yet been able to frame such a law. For that reason, the transport workers insist on retaining their right to strike. They do not object to reasonable regulation of the use of this right, but they do object to legislation which amounts to its denial.

The question is at present being discussed in Italy. Italian laws on industrial relations dating from the Fascist period must be, and are being, repealed and other legislation must take their place. What, however, should the new law stipulate?

Here is one opinion, that of the Italian Federation of Tramwaymen and Busworkers, as set forth in a recent issue of the Federation's journal 'Libera Voce'.

LAST YEAR the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare sent out a questionnaire to all national trade union confederations for the purpose of eliciting their views on the future Trade Union Act and on the regulation of the right to strike. Item fourteen of the questionnaire asked whether there should be a special rule about striking by public employees.

The replies received by the Minister were naturally very different and conflicting, though most were in favour of special rules for this group of workers. Opposed views were expressed by the three main national trade union federations.

As far as we are concerned, from the knowledge we have of the problems of the public employees we can declare without question that no distinction can be made between public and private employees and that no restrictions should be placed on either of the two groups, except, of course, as regards the nature of the strike, that is to say in the case of political, revolutionary or illegal strikes.

Some people maintain that if the group is assured of an efficient system of compulsory arbitration all disputes could in practice be resolved without resort to makeshift measures; and they are therefore opposed to recognition of the right to strike for this group. But if one is honest and sincere one must allow

that no system of conciliation and arbitration can give the group the guarantees it requires. Who would be the conciliator and arbitrator? A Minister? Would a trade-unionist or even a mixed board of arbitration really be capable of ignoring economic or political interests?

Then it should be noted that the Constitution, in referring the exercising of the right to strike to the laws which regulate or may regulate it, enunciates a right which cannot be susceptible of modification or restriction; a right which appertains to every citizen in his capacity as a worker in so far as there are problems which cannot be solved in any other way, and not only in so far as he may be working for a private employer.

Those who would deny public employees the right to strike do not realize that they are opposing the aspirations and rights of these workers; that in practice they would be preventing them from obtaining those improvements which we may be sure that they would never obtain in any other way if they left the matter to boards of management or the ministries to which they are subject.

Nor are our affirmations invalidated by the fears expressed by those good theoreticians who are anxious to ensure the continued operation of services which are essential to the community. Let them leave matters to the conscience of the public employees and they will find that they have not misplaced their trust. If it should be necessary to make the public suffer the consequences of a strike, it will be carried out in such a manner as to cause the least possible inconvenience. The fear of such consequences should not be made a cheap excuse for saying, as the General Confederation of Agriculture has done, that it would be 'logical' to prohibit striking by public employees.

Let them instead try to improve the working conditions of this group of workers, and they will find that any discussion of its right to strike is superfluous. Let them take up a different attitude in the matter of wages policy and the relations between public employees and the public departments, and give up certain offensive principles based on a supposed superior discretionary ability in relation to the problem of the personnel and the claims of the workers.

If another policy is followed, then, just as it is absurd to try to prevent the waters of a river reaching the sea by building dams and dykes, so it will be found that it is a mistake to try to bridle the public employees and make them quiet and submissive, since if this is done they will inevitably try to find an outlet for their exasperation in those political theories which have been framed to fit the exasperated.

The position of State transport in the Indian United Provinces

SPEAKING IN THE UNITED PROVINCES legislative assembly towards the end of March, the Minister of Transport said that the problem of the future set-up of the nationalized road transport in the State was under active consideration by the Government. He disclosed that the Government had offered the railways a partnership in the State road transport industry and that they appeared to be agreeable to the proposal. He said that the possibility of private operators being taken in was also being considered, since the State Transport Act authorized the operation of road transport 'in conjunction with the railways or others'.

Safety on the Roads

The Connecticut Department of Motor Vehicles experiment

THE ADMINISTRATION of the State of Connecticut, USA, is proud of the high measure of safety achieved on the State's highways. In their endeavours to make their roads safer still, the officials of the Department of Motor Vehicles have hit upon the idea of a 'Driver Clinic'. The treatment dispensed by this clinic consists of appealing to the driver's conscience and of making him aware of his own interests before it becomes necessary to suspend his licence or right to operate on the highways of the State.

In order to determine who is in need of treatment and when, the Department of Motor Vehicles keeps a record of each driver in the State. Each accident, arrest, conviction and official warning is entered, and each item is weighted, in points, according to the following scale:

10 points	Fatal accident involvement if held responsible
10 points	Operating under the influence of liquor, etc.
8 points	Evading responsibility
8 points	Racing
7 points	Operating under suspension
6 points	Reckless driving
4 points	Reckless driving, if no evidence of liquor, accident or speed
3 points	Speeding
2 points	Pass standing school bus
2 points	Violation rules of road
2 points	Failure to stop at stop sign
2 points	All other convictions for moving violations
1 point	Police or Inspector's warning
1 point	On proven complaint of moving violation
1 point	Accident involvement responsibility, no conviction

This scale has been and will be further revised as experience requires, and any item which mounts more rapidly will be given added weight. The point value of items may rise or fall according to the respective effect on highway safety.

As each new item is added to a driver's record, the clerk 'scores' the record for the last five years and enters the total score on the face card of the driver's file. When this score totals three or more, the entire record is sent to the Driver Clinic, where it is reviewed.

Three points amassed in any way, or combination of ways, is the signal for a warning letter. A total of five points calls the driver for a conference and six points is the signal for a hearing. At six points a driver's licence is generally suspended. The minimum suspension is five days. Failure to appear for a hearing means suspension of licence. A second notice is given for failure

to appear for a conference. If this second notice is ignored the licence is suspended.

Since its establishment, the clinic has reviewed over 30,000 records and sent warning letters to 21,300 persons informing them that they have started to accumulate a driving record. About 3,700 have been called for conferences and have had their records reviewed with a Hearing Officer. Nearly 5,500 have been summoned for a hearing.

Not all those summoned for a hearing have been suspended. Some have been placed on probation, some have been warned because their point scores were past the warning stage when the system went into operation. In the latter case, the hearing is in effect a conference. About 50 per cent of all records screened were held by drivers in the twenty to twenty-nine age group.

Less than 4 per cent were under twenty and 6.6 per cent were over fifty-five.

How do the drivers react? The Connecticut Department of Motor Vehicles replies to this question as follows:

'We believe that this new way of handling erring drivers is proving very satisfactory. Nearly all the people called for conferences leave with a promise - at least an inferred pledge - to drive more carefully.

So far we have had little complaint from anyone called in. Very few feel that they have been imposed upon, except perhaps those few with the longest or more serious records. Some of the people having a drunken driving notation on their records have complained that this should not be held against them for even the five year period.

The successful operation of this plan, we believe, is proved

by the fact that during last year less than 350 drivers failed to heed our warnings and were suspended because of their accumulated records. We feel safe in saying that this plan has gained the cooperation of those drivers we have been trying to reach.

Each mail brings a few requests for a voluntary review of a record. People are becoming interested in what we have charged

against them. The fact that, for purposes of the Point System, each violation is removed after five years gives them something to strive, or work for. Time will more fully test this plan, but it is heartening to all of us interested in highway safety to note the cooperative way in which Connecticut drivers have accepted our Driver Clinic and Point System.'

Average lifetime of US railway pensioners

A BELIEF THAT HAS CONSIDERABLE CURRENCY amongst US railworkers, namely that the average railwayman does not live long enough to enjoy his pension, has recently been exploded by a special study issued by the Railroad Retirement Board.

The report finds that, contrary to this widespread belief, the most recent figures indicate that the average rail employee who retires now at the age of sixty-five can expect to live thirteen more years. Even the average railwayman who retires at seventy has still some ten years of life ahead of him.

Of all railwaymen who have retired under the rail pension scheme, four out of five were still alive five years after their retirement and three out of five were still on the rolls ten years after their annuity began.

The annual report of the Railroad Retirement Board, also issued recently and covering the twelve-month period ended 30 June 1950, shows that, compared with the previous year, what are termed 'total benefit payments' increased from \$ 359.6 million to \$ 444.8 million, a substantial increase of 24 per cent.

Retirement benefit payments increased by 6 per cent, dependants' benefits by 8 per cent whilst unemployment benefits went up by as much as 144 per cent, from \$ 46.7 million to \$ 113.8 million. The Board states that this latter increase is mainly accounted for by railway unemployment resulting from the large-scale strikes in the steel and coal industries.

In the year covered by the report, railway retirement annuities averaged \$ 83 a month. In the same year, Social Security benefits averaged about \$ 26 a month for retired employees. Including the additional payment for wives, over the age of sixty-five, the average Social Security 'family' pension was in the region of \$ 30 a month.

In the same year, the maximum railway pension was \$ 144 a month, compared with the \$ 45 maximum Social Security individual pension and the maximum \$ 85 'family' pension.

Transport unification in Israel

THREE ISRAELI TRANSPORT COOPERATIVES - Drom Yehuda, Shahar and Egged - have informed the Executive Committee of the Histadrut (the Israeli trade union centre) that they accept the Committee's decision to unify the country's inter-urban passenger transport.

Cooperative bus companies run all the passenger services in Israel. Drom Yehuda is responsible for all bus services from Tel Aviv southward, while Egged buses run to the North; Shahar operates services in Haifa and its immediate vicinity. At the end of 1950, the three cooperatives had a total membership of 1,532 and operated a fleet of 825 buses.

In order to facilitate the full use of vehicles in meeting increased pressure on transport, to plan lines rationally, and to control finances, the Histadrut Executive Committee decided last December that the three cooperatives should unite as a

first step in the direction of a complete unification of all five of the existing bus cooperatives.

Establishment of European pool of railway goods wagons

AS A RESULT OF AN AGREEMENT signed between the French National Railways and the German Federal Railways, the establishment of the first European freight car pool, made up of 100,000 railway goods wagons for common use by the railways of France and Germany, will shortly be effected.

Designed to reduce the hauling of empty rolling stock and to permit of a more rational utilization of the freight car park of the two countries, the pooling scheme is an adaptation of a similar scheme used by the French National Railway system when it was formed as the result of a merger of several companies in the 1930s. It is seen by the ECA, which announced the successful conclusion of negotiations, as an important step in the direction of standardization of European rolling stock.

So far the agreement covers only certain types of goods wagons. Included in it will be 30,000 box cars and gondolas from France and 10,000 box cars and 40,000 gondolas from Germany. The pool will ease the difficult freight car situations of both countries by minimizing shortages and surpluses across the frontier and restoring equilibrium to the freight car holdings in each of them.

All wagons in the pool will bear the designation EUROP stencilled above their respective undertaking's initials and French rolling stock in it will be utilized in Germany as if it were German and vice versa. Cars will not be individually returned to their country of origin empty, as at present. Exact equilibrium in the scheme will, however, be impossible of attainment and under the arrangement made, wagon-days used in excess by either rail system will be paid for at current agreed rates. From time to time, rolling stock will be exchanged at the Franco-German frontier, thus reducing empty hauling to a minimum.

The 'per diem' rental cost paid by European railways per car per day for wagons used away from their home system is being retained because of recognition in the agreement that certain types of cars originating across the frontier may be utilized in either country for an extended period.

The agreement also covers pool cars which may be sent loaded to non-participating railway systems and the accounting for rolling stock while in such use. Other clauses define the conditions for repair while wagons are away from their system of origin.

An outstanding feature of the scheme is the stipulation that rolling stock admitted to the pool must conform to fixed requirements adapted to the commercial needs of the two countries. This stipulation for the first time in Europe implies an important degree of rolling stock standardization.

The Sixteenth Session of the JMC

An evaluation of its achievements and shortcomings

By Omer Becu, General Secretary of the ITF

THE JOINT MARITIME COMMISSION of the ILO held its sixteenth session at Geneva from 22 to 24 May last. The following questions were down for discussion:

- 1) Conditions of employment of Asian seafarers;
- 2) Conditions of employment in the short-sea trades of North and North-West Europe;
- 3) Review of the progress in ratification of the Seattle Conventions and consideration of the desirability of revising Convention No. 93;
- 4) Joint ILO-WHO Committee on Hygiene of Seafarers;
- 5) Report of the Director-General of the ILO.

Of these, the proposal to hold a maritime conference for Asian seafarers, the competition in the North Sea and Baltic short sea trades, and the progress made with ratification of the Seattle

Conventions were probably the most important. Without overlooking the importance of the other matters which were discussed, we shall, in this article, consider more closely the results obtained with regard to the three specially mentioned.

Special Conference on Asian seafarers' conditions

This question originated in resolutions adopted at the Asian Regional Conferences of the ILO held at New Delhi (October-November 1947) and Nuwara Elija (January 1951), which urged the holding of a special maritime conference for discussing the living and working conditions of Asian seafarers.

The Seafarers' Section of the ITF had associated itself with the proposal, being as it was very strongly in favour of such a conference, always provided that it dealt with problems of a regional character and did not lead to any segregation of the Asian seafarers so far as their common interests with other seafarers were concerned. In other words, the international character of the wages and working conditions of seafarers in the international shipping trade was not to be lost sight of.

International maritime conventions have always been made applicable to all seafarers irrespective of race, and seafarers are concerned that this principle shall be upheld in all matters of common concern to the seafaring community of the world. The condition they made regarding the holding of a regional conference for Asian seafarers was therefore, though self-evident, a very important one.

The reason for this strong support for such a special conference is that we know only too well the sub-standard conditions under which the vast majority of the seafarers of the Asian countries must live and work. In the advanced maritime countries those conditions are fortunately a thing of the past, but it has always been one of the first principles of the trade union movement for the strong to help the weak in the struggle for social improvement. The slogan 'poverty anywhere is a danger to prosperity everywhere' is particularly appropriate to this case. It is high time that an earnest attempt be made to raise the social conditions of Asian seafarers as far as practicable to the level secured by their fellows in other parts of the world. This is not only a demand of social justice, it is imperative also if the social standards of the more advanced regions are not to be jeopardized by the poverty and misery prevalent in the backward areas.

In giving our support to the proposal for this Asian seafarers' conference, we had particularly in mind the almost complete absence of any provision for Asian seafarers in the field of welfare in Asian ports, the shocking conditions which still persist in the recruitment and engagement of seafarers in that part of the world, the lack of even a minimum of provision in case of unemployment, sickness or injury, — in short, the miserable conditions which generally speaking are the lot of the unfortunate Asian seafarers.

The need for serious action to alleviate this misery is therefore more than obvious, at least to those who are not blind to what is going on in the Far East. Yet, as so often, we had to



Omer Becu making a point at the recent session of the JMC



The Seafarers' Group against the background of the ILO building

contend with the conservatism of the shipowners, who thought that the time was not ripe for such action and that it was first necessary to carry out a very careful preliminary investigation before deciding definitely in favour of a conference for Asian seafarers. On the JMC we had to contend not only with this conservatism on the part of the shipowners generally, but what was worse, the spokesman of the Asian shipowners wanted to keep the problems of the Asian region at the general level and, forgetful of the maxim that 'charity begins at home', to avoid any regional solution of these matters. Even when the vote was taken on a compromise resolution and the other shipowners supported it, the Asian representative abstained. That resolution only asked the ILO to make an on-the-spot investigation into the conditions of Asian seafarers, after which the JMC will, at a later session – to be held as early as possible in 1952 – decide whether or not the regional conference should be held. In this investigation particular attention is to be devoted to the methods of recruiting and engaging seamen, seafarers' welfare in Asian ports, and conditions of employment in the Asian coastal shipping trades.

The Seafarers' Group on the JMC had urged that the conference should be convened forthwith, without any further preliminary investigation, inasmuch as they considered that enough was known about the backward conditions of Asian seafarers. When the Shipowners' Group would not support such a proposal, we wanted them at least to participate in the preliminary fact-finding work, in order that there should be agreement on the basis from which conclusions would have to be drawn. The shipowners, however, also declined to accept any responsibility in this respect. It is not that the Seafarers' Group have any doubts about the impartiality of the ILO, but we should have

liked to play our part in the investigation in order to be sure of having an agreed basis of discussion at the proposed conference.

Though we were not successful on these points, we are glad that a real step forward has been made towards more enlightenment about Asian seafarers' problems. We have no doubt that the investigation to be made by the ILO will reveal the great need to hold a regional conference for Asian seafarers. It will, we are sure, disclose conditions which are a disgrace to twentieth century standards. That being so, there will be no reason for further delay, and we may hope that the conference will materialize before the end of 1952. Having regard to the high principles which have been proclaimed through the international institutions of the democratic world, this is the least we can do for the Asian seafarers.

Short sea trades of North-West Europe

With the passing of time, the seafarers of the countries of North-West Europe have come to wonder more and more whether international conventions are the best means of solving questions affecting their wages and working conditions. From a practical and realistic point of view, it must now be questioned whether, even in an industry as world wide in character as shipping, it is possible to apply one single formula to the solution of social problems. Indeed, in various trades of the world problems have arisen which are so regional in character that it would be little else than utopian to hope to solve them in one and the same manner.

A whole series of international conventions are in existence today of which the principles and spirit are perhaps universally accepted, even widely applied in practice, but which have not been ratified to the extent which might be expected. Often it is

found that there are provisions of a secondary character which clash with some local or regional practice or custom or with some generally recognized and accepted law, with the result that an international convention is not ratified and is not included in the body of social legislation.

That is something very much to be regretted, for it does great damage to the prestige and value of international conventions and international conferences and presents the enemies of international understanding with a point of attack.

If there is truth and point in what has been said here – and we are satisfied there is – then the conclusion is not difficult to draw: international conventions should be conceived as a kind of basic agreement confined to the most important and essential principles. The translation of these principles into practice could then be a matter for national or regional regulation in the light of the circumstances of the different cases.

We realize that this kind of approach also has its difficulties, particularly if we are to preserve what is one of our main objectives, the prevention of unfair competition at the expense of wages and working conditions.

Without entering on a discussion of existing international maritime conventions which remain unfulfilled or of the defects from which they perhaps suffer, it may be stated that most of the maritime countries of West and North-West Europe have established, by collective bargaining, wages and working conditions for seafarers which represent a real piece of social achievement. At the same time it is a fact that among those countries there are still exceptions which are a danger to the socially more advanced. These weak spots are a potential danger to the whole structure, especially in times of economic depression and fierce competition.

The possibility of such a development is certainly not imaginary as far as the short sea and coastal trades are concerned, responsive as these are to the slightest economic fluctuations. It is intolerable, however, that the least progressive shipowners should be able to carry on unfair competition and thereby inflict damage on the more progressive ones and condemn seafarers to insecurity. Even if the shipowners are content with such a situation, the seafarers, who have built up their present social position by hard endeavour over the years, are not, and they would not passively accept a return to the inhuman conditions which at one time were their lot.

The only possible solution is for those who have the welfare of the industry and the seafarers at heart to stand together against those who by their attitude retard social progress. If they do not, we will eventually find ourselves in the midst of an economic war, with disastrous consequences for all who depend on the sea for a livelihood.

The problem of an established freight structure

Closely connected with the whole problem is the establishment of a freight structure, for without it there can be no permanent solution of the social question. We are thus confronted with an interesting and important problem which has aspects of an economic as well as a social character.

The discussion which took place on the JMC and the decision which was come to in this matter did not fulfil the expectations of the seafarers. On this question also the shipowners, in our opinion, show a lack of vision. They cannot doubt that the establishment and maintenance of adequate freights is indispensable if they themselves do not want to be the victims of ruinous competition, and that this economic question cannot be seen in

isolation from the social question. Yet when the obvious conclusion has to be drawn from this interdependence, they stubbornly persist in a negative attitude. We can only hope that the course of events will teach them to see reason before irreparable harm is done to the shipping industry.

An opportunity presents itself to them in the resolution in which the JMC asks for a joint committee to be set up, composed of five representatives of each side, with the task of studying the regional problem further.

We do not want to anticipate the further development of this vital question, or to labour unduly the views we have as to its solution, but we feel that the step which has been taken is in the right direction and may lead to the regional action which is necessary. The subsequent discussions and experiences in this field will provide an interesting comment on the view expressed above regarding the need to break down certain problems into their regional parts.

The position as to the Seattle Conventions

Reviewing the progress made in ratification of the Seattle Conventions was perhaps the main item of discussion at the session of the JMC. Though the title suggests that all the Seattle Conventions known by that name were under review, the discussion centred on that concerning Wages, Hours and Manning.

If it may be said of these conventions generally that the position as regards ratification is not unsatisfactory, this does not apply to the one specially mentioned. So far there is only one country, Australia, which has ratified it. Since the Convention was adopted at Seattle in June 1946 the seafarers have tried by all possible means to induce Governments to implement it. After the revision of the Convention in 1949, one might have expected that the Governments which had voted both for the original convention and the revised one would finally ratify. But this was not so, inconsistent though it may seem.

In passing, let us recall that seafarers have been fighting ever since 1920 for an international regulation of working hours on board ship on the basis of an eight hour day and forty-eight hour week. But innumerable difficulties and obstacles have been placed in the way of the attainment of this goal.

It is perhaps unnecessary, but we would emphasize once again that for seafarers the question of working hours is the most important of all. After the second world war, after all the services they rendered, they felt entitled to hope that this long-standing wish would be fulfilled. At the same time they showed a great spirit of compromise and were prepared to cooperate in every way in bringing about a practicable convention.

It was for this reason that they yielded to the view of the shipowners that an international convention on working hours should be linked with the establishment of an international minimum wage. They could not foresee that thereby they were blocking the way of the international regulation of working hours. It is no disgrace to admit that we acted in good faith, and if it could be proved that the seafarers were led by the nose, we should have more to say about it. As it is, we must give the shipowners the benefit of the doubt and leave it at that.

If, perhaps, it was a mistake to link the questions of hours and wages together, it does not mean that the idea of an international minimum wage for the shipping industry is unsound in itself. But in a world of unstable national currencies and other uncertainties it is an idea the realization of which cannot be expected until there have been great changes in the international situation. Consequently the idea of an international



Part of the Seafarers' Group in session

Front row, from left to right: Omer Becu, T. Yates (UK), D.S. Tennant (UK), I. Haugen (Norway), J. Hawk (USA)

minimum wage for seafarers has in practice proved a stumbling-block to the attempt to secure an international regulation of hours, which in the opinion of the seafarers is a perfectly practicable proposition today.

From this the seafarers drew the logical conclusion by submitting to the JMC a proposal that the present Convention on Wages, Hours and Manning should be modified so as to be ratifiable in parts. This meant that, without relinquishing the principle of an international minimum wage for seafarers, the part of the Convention aiming at an international regulation of seafarers' hours could be put into effect without being held up by the obstacles in the way of complete implementation.

Considering that the continuance of the present unsatisfactory situation would be a threat to the prosperity of the industry, the seafarers hoped that their proposal would meet with a constructive response, but the shipowners refused to enter into a discussion and a deadlock was reached. Only the Seafarers' Group voted for the resolution which asked the Governing Body of the ILO to re-examine the matter and aimed at revising the Convention on the above lines. Though the Shipowners' Group opposed the resolution, we hope that our proposal will receive favourable consideration elsewhere and that the question of a further revision of this vitally important Convention will be put down for discussion at an early session of the International Labour Conference.

The shipowners' attitude and our position

As far as we are concerned, we feel that the shipowners have once again shown that they are opposed to any international regulation of seafarers' conditions of employment, and that their opposition is probably directed not so much against the international minimum wage as against the idea of internationally regulated hours. If that be the case, then we can only state that their position is irreconcilable with ours, as the seafarers will never relinquish the principle of a forty-eight hour week.

We shall now be interested to see the attitude taken up by Governments, for upon that will largely depend the line to be followed by the seafarers. We can for the present only hope that the solution the seafarers have offered to the problem will receive a more sympathetic hearing among Governments than among the shipowners.

In spite of our keen disappointment about the Convention on Wages, Hours and Manning, we are on the whole satisfied

with the results secured at the latest session of the JMC. We have, on previous occasions, declared that the JMC is a valuable instrument for the seafarers and gives them a platform for raising the most important international and regional problems. That the results obtained do not always meet all our expectations is only to be expected and should be a spur to us to persevere in our efforts. We are faced with a tough opponent who is very difficult to convince, but with whom, and this is a big asset, we can speak openly. This leads us to hope that in the long run we shall succeed in solving our common problems.

Cargo handling by seamen in Turkey

IN A RECENT PUBLICATION entitled *Labour Problems in Turkey* issued by the International Labour Office, attention is drawn to the present unsatisfactory position as regards labour legislation covering seamen engaged in the handling of ships' cargoes.

The ILO points out that while the Turkish Labour Code specifically applies to 'the loading, unloading and handling of goods at railway stations, warehouses, quays and harbours', some doubt seems to have arisen as to whether seamen are covered by the Act in cases where they happen to be employed on work of this kind. It is stressed that this question is of special importance inasmuch as no legislation at present exists for the regulation of work at sea.

The ILO draws attention in its study to the fact that in most maritime countries the work of seamen is the subject of special and detailed regulations, with the result that the seaman is protected whatever work he may happen to be performing at a given moment. In fact, says the ILO, seamen are usually covered by maritime legislation rather than by industrial labour law even where they are working in port. The ILO concludes, therefore, that pending the adoption of special legislation for the protection of seamen (which, it is to be hoped, will not long be delayed), it would seem entirely reasonable to interpret the above-quoted provisions of the Labour Code as covering seamen when they happen to be employed on the loading or unloading of ships.

Short shrift for Panamanian coffin ship

The story of a succesful action by Swedish workers
against the sub-standard s.s. *Filadelfos*

By Verner Ulvstig, editor of the Swedish Seamen's Union's journal 'Sjömannen'

DURING THE EARLY SUMMER of this year, something of a sensation was caused in the Swedish port of Gothenburg by the arrival there of the s.s. *Filadelfos*, sailing under the ill-famed merchant flag of Panama. Those of the Swedish general public who had previously had a chance of admiring the fine modern vessels recently acquired by their country's merchant fleet were now given a first-class opportunity of comparing them with that sorry hulk from the slums of the seven seas known as the *Filadelfos*. At the same time they were treated to an uncensored glimpse of just how badly seafarers can be dealt with by greedy and unscrupulous shipowners when there exists no trade union organization to protect them or social legislation to safeguard their working conditions and living standards.

The *Filadelfos* – a vessel of 6,800 deadweight tons belonging to the *Cia Panamena de Navegacion Aisne* – was built in Germany in the year 1914. Since that time she has traded under the flags of various countries, finally seeking refuge on that last resort of owners of sub-standard vessels – the shipping register of the Republic of Panama. The officers of the *Filadelfos* – all of Greek nationality and related to one another – operate this floating coffin as a kind of family concern, under the auspices of Messrs. N. J. Pateras and Sons Ltd. of London. A part of the crew is also made up of Greek nationals, the remainder being Egyptians, Sudanese, Senegalese and other coloured seafarers.

A floating pig-sty

When representatives of the Swedish Seamen's Union visited the *Filadelfos*, they found conditions on board so appalling that immediate boycott action – on lines laid down by the ITF – was deemed necessary.

As soon as we stepped on to the deck our attention was attracted by the ancient and well-nigh useless cargo-handling gear, an examination of which had already decided Gothenburg's dockers to refuse to unload the vessel with its own equipment and to use quay cranes instead.

The fo'c's'le of the *Filadelfos*, consisting of an upper and a lower section, was found to be in such a filthy and neglected state as completely to defy description in mere words. In the top section lived the Greeks, whilst the coloured seamen were 'accommodated' below. To reach the latter's quarters, one had to climb through a narrow opening, similar to the hatchway on board a small fishing vessel. Down below, rats scurried about in the gloomy, cellarlike compartment in which men were expected to live. The skylights in most of the 'cabins' were badly cracked, while the bulkheads consisted of bare iron plates, thick with rust and devoid of any trace of either woodwork or insulation, a fact which accounted for the only point in favour of this black hole of Calcutta – the absence of lice!

The bunks in which the unfortunate crew of the *Filadelfos* were expected to sleep were nothing more than wooden chests, whilst bedding – except for mattresses supplied by the men themselves – was conspicuous by its absence. Water leaked in through

the sides of the fo'c's'le and the food served – like everything else on board – was of extremely poor quality.

Wages varied between £ 18 per month for a coloured seaman and £ 28 for a Greek crew member and payment was, in any case, irregular. There was no agreement regarding paid holidays, time off, sick pay or, for that matter, any other social benefits whatsoever.

A death trap manned with cheap labour

The vessel as a whole showed unmistakable signs of irresponsible neglect by its operators. The life-boats were rotten and contained neither equipment nor stores. They were, in any case, completely useless since there were neither davits nor falls with which to lift them in an emergency. In fact the whole of the so-called lifesaving equipment seemed to be at least a hundred years out of date and, in addition, showed every sign of having lain on the sea bottom for a considerable length of time.

Prompt action by the union

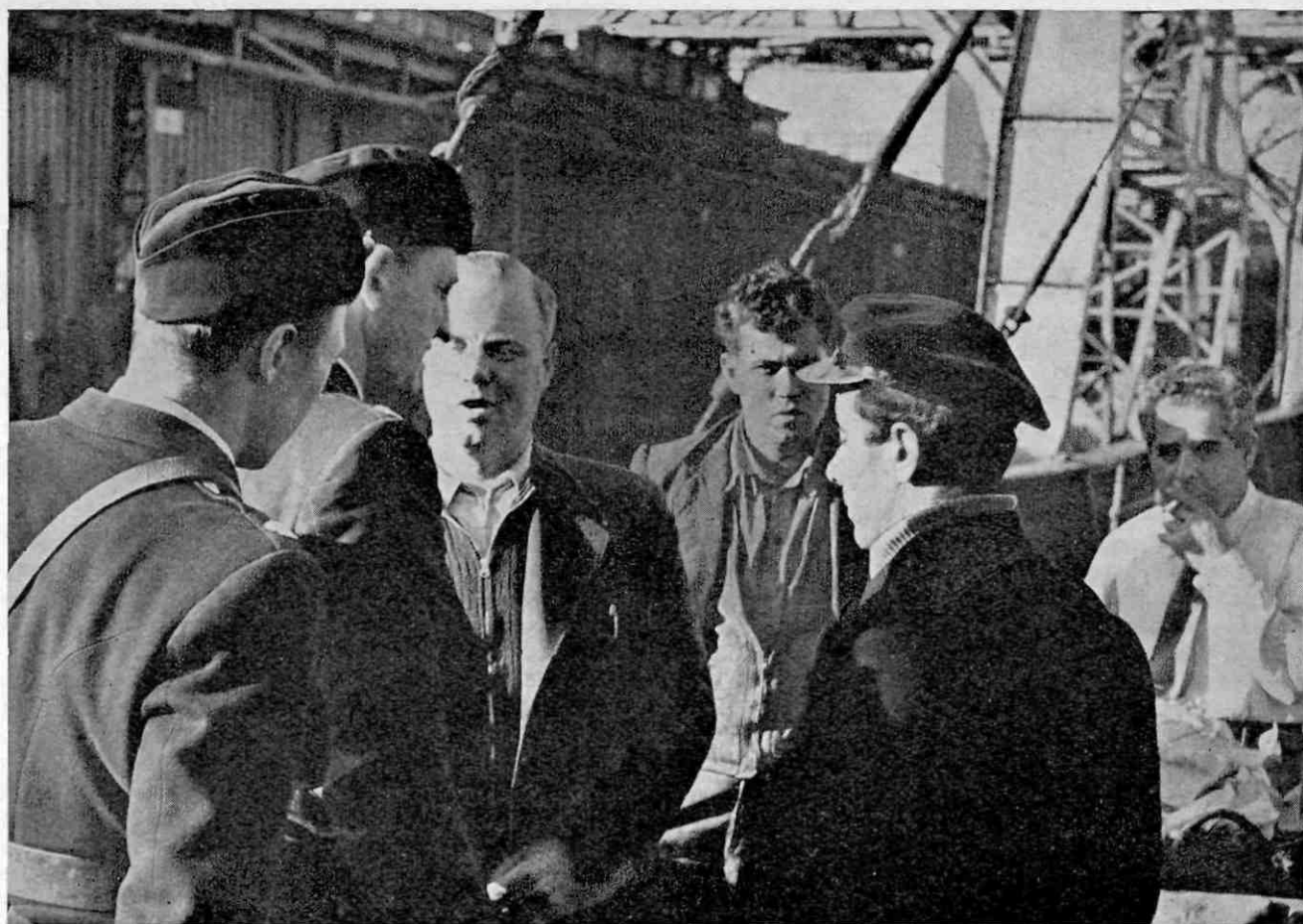
Following the inspection, our union immediately asked the Swedish Transport Workers' Union to put an embargo on the ship. This organization, to which most Swedish dockers belong, later declared its complete willingness to cooperate – in accordance with procedure agreed upon within the ITF – in total boycotts of all sub-standard Panamanian vessels arriving in Swedish ports until such time as proper collective agreements were concluded on behalf of their crews.

In addition, the Port Shipping Inspector was sent for without delay. He at once refused the *Filadelfos* permission to leave port until repairs, particularly to the life-boats and other safety equipment, had been carried out. The Panamanian Consul, Mr. Claesson (of Swedish nationality), also carried out an inspection of the vessel and, as a result, decided to take away its classification certificate pending the outcome of the action already taken by the Swedish maritime authorities.

A telegram was then sent by the Swedish Seamen's Union to the owner in London, requesting that he sign an agreement based on current conditions in the Swedish merchant marine and conforming to accepted international maritime standards.

If at this juncture the *Filadelfos* had tried to make good her escape from Gothenburg that would not have been the end of the story. Our own boycott action would automatically have been followed up by ITF-affiliated unions in other countries, acting on warnings received from ITF headquarters in London. The *Filadelfos* would thus have been followed from port to port with as its only hope of escape the possibility of reaching some port outside the reach of our international trade union federation. It is, therefore, quite clear that this pitiful ghost from a bygone age made a serious mistake when it decided to challenge the Swedish seamen's organization and Swedish legislation by entering our territorial waters.

However, no further action was needed. As a result of our de-



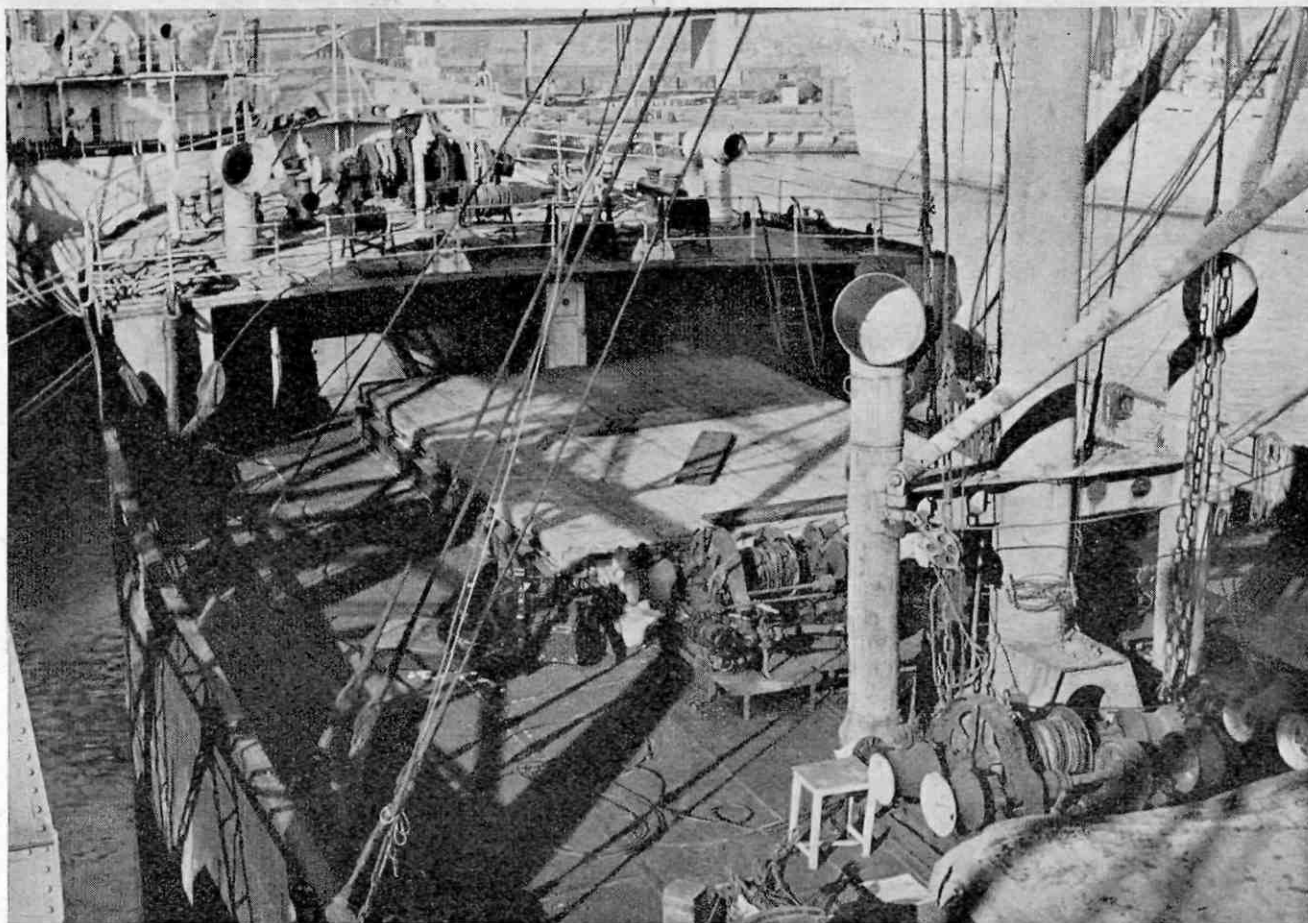
Union representatives (third and sixth from left) discuss the situation with Swedish policemen whilst the captain looks on despondently

terminated attitude, a settlement was quickly reached and on 18 May – three days after the *Filadelfos* arrived in Gothenburg – the following new monthly wage scales were agreed upon between representatives of the shipowner and our union, acting on behalf of the ITF:

	£	s.	d.
Chief Steward	66	4	0
Chief Cook	42	0	0
Electrician	35	18	0
Boatswain	35	10	0
Carpenter, donkeyman	34	2	0
Greaser	33	8	0
Fireman, able seaman, 2nd cook	33	2	0
Ordinary seaman	22	2	0
Trimmer	20	0	0
Asst. steward, messroom boy	15	2	0
Deck boy, engine room apprentice	14	8	0

In addition, a number of improvements in working conditions were successfully negotiated. Hours of work are now limited to eight per day and forty-eight per week for both day and watch-keeping personnel employed in the deck and engine room departments. Maximum hours for members of the catering department have been fixed at nine per day whilst at sea and eight whilst in port. All personnel are now entitled to eighteen days' leave per annum, during which period a subsistence allowance of 10s. per day is payable. In addition, all crew members working as daymen are to be granted one full day off duty per month and one and a half days off after six months continuous service with the owner. Watch-keeping personnel who are called upon to work in excess of forty-eight hours per week are to receive compensation in the form of time off. Overtime pay has been fixed at the rate of 1/150 of the monthly wage per hour on weekdays and 1/75 of the monthly wage per hour on Sundays and public holidays.

The agreement also lays it down that sheets, pillows and other bedding shall be supplied by the owner and that it shall be changed every fortnight. Boots and overalls are to be provided for those members of the crew employed on dirty work. Provision is also made for free medical care and sick pay and reimbursement for the loss of personal effects as a result of shipwreck or fire on board etc. In addition, all ratings are entitled to a temporary bonus for the period during which the vessel



The filthy and chaotic condition of the Filadelfos' deck

is engaged in a voyage to or from a port in the United States, amounting to £ 12 per month.

A more seaworthy Filadelfos leaves port

When, on 7 June, this ragamuffin of the seas was finally allowed to escape from the vice-like grip in which it was held, it had been through an ordeal which neither the master nor the ship-owner is likely to forget in a hurry. Not only had the owner been forced to sign what to him must have seemed a terrifying new agreement – incidentally no more than an ordinary standard contract among bona fide seafaring nations – but, day and night, there had been repair work to carry out at the double. The life-boats were completely overhauled and rotten timbers replaced, whilst the entire tackle – including pulley-blocks and steel wire – had to be scrapped and new equipment substituted for it. Various parts of the woodwork, both on deck and below, had to be repaired and re-inforced; skylights changed and new glass fitted; whilst the crew quarters were repainted and completely renovated from top to bottom.

Even when this work had been completed the master's troubles were still not over. Before he could even think of leaving port there was a small matter of a writ from the consignee, claiming damages amounting to no less than 104,600 Swedish crowns (just over £ 27,000), and alleging that the cargo delivered was not only filthy and badly damaged but did not even

correspond with the bill of lading. A court order for the ship's seizure was executed and the Filadelfos was able to leave Gothenburg only after the owner had agreed to put up security for the amount claimed, pending the outcome of the legal action taken by the consignee.

Accomplices branded

The Filadelfos incident has also had most unpleasant consequences for the classification society *Germanischer Lloyd*. As late as April, 1950, the society's Amsterdam representative had inspected the vessel and given it a certificate of classification in the top category, valid for four years. When the ship was inspected in Gothenburg, however, the *Germanischer Lloyd* representative there agreed that it was sub-standard and that a close investigation of the case was well warranted. There can be no doubt that the disclosure of these facts will both diminish the prestige of this German classification society and adversely affect its future activities.

There can also be no doubt that recent developments in the ITF's boycott action against sub-standard shipping have caused surprise and alarm within the *Overseas Tanker Corporation*, one of the giant shipping companies operating under cover of the Panamanian flag. Important financial interests are becoming disturbed at the increased activity on the part of ITF-affiliated unions and sooner or later there may come a real clash. The



A close-up of one of the rotten and ill-equipped life-boats

ITF, for its part, is watching the position very carefully and is ready for the struggle which may well be the outcome of the formal declaration of war on profiteering shipowners adopted last year by the Amsterdam International Seafarers' Conference. However small its material resources may be when compared with those of the financial interests behind this international scandal, the ITF is determined to fight against any shipowner who refuses to introduce decent social standards and working conditions on board his vessels. The completely immoral attitude towards their employees adopted by certain operators – as exemplified by the *Filadelfos* and other sub-standard vessels sailing under the Panamanian and similar flags – constitutes a deadly threat both to the seafarers themselves and to the bona fide maritime nations.

The *Filadelfos* and the future

Our action against such shipping will be carried on more relentlessly than ever. Other Panamanian vessels, including the s.s. *Hermes* and s.s. *Arion*, have been boycotted since the *Filadelfos* incident and their owners forced to sign proper agreements. Similar treatment will be meted out to any other sub-standard ship which may enter our ports – either now or in the future. The dockers' and seafarers' unions in this and most other civilized countries are standing by for further action.

The case of the *Filadelfos* should act as an incentive to our members to back up our own organization and the international

free trade union movement in solidarity action against exploiters who are trying to undermine – for their own gain – what has been built up by patient negotiation and hard and ceaseless struggle by our brothers at sea and in the ports. The initial victories scored by us seem to indicate that we are at last on the way towards bettering the conditions on board the far too many sub-standard vessels which are today allowed to move freely about the high seas and amass profits – at the expense of their unfortunate crews – for grasping shipowners.

Manpower shortage hits Norway's merchant fleet

THE NORWEGIAN MERCHANT MARINE is meeting increasing difficulties in manning its vessels, and this summer – with large new ships being put into service – the problem seems to have reached a critical stage.

There is, in particular, a great dearth of engineering and navigating officers, but the lack of experienced seamen is also creating difficulties when it comes to completing crews.

Many foreign seafarers are, therefore, now serving on board Norwegian vessels.

The majority of these are Danish nationals, but it is reported that some German engineers are now also being employed.

Spies and informers on Polish ships

New facts on the Cominform's maritime espionage service

REPORTS REACHING ICFTU (International Confederation of Free Trade Unions) headquarters indicate that the Polish merchant navy, the most considerable of any of the satellite states, has in recent months been equipped with a complete system of spies and agents, not only to keep a watch on the activities of members of the crew, but also to maintain liaison on behalf of the Cominform with Communist groups of seamen and dockers throughout the world.

These two functions seem to be fairly clearly divided between the representative of the Secret Police (UB) and of a special branch of the Cominform, known under the cryptonym of JUG. The UB agent has since the beginning of this year occupied a regular place in the crew of every sea-going Polish ship.

His official title is Educational-Cultural Officer, and he ranks second only to the captain. Information on the working of this system was recently given to the ICFTU by a Polish seaman who left his ship in a Western European port in the hope of joining his wife and family in Australia.

This officer – the political commissar, as he is generally called by the crew – has various functions. Those implied in his official title include lecturing on Communism, labour competition and technical training; this in spite of the fact that he is usually a landsman with little or no knowledge of seafaring. He is also responsible for the labour competition system, which was introduced about the same time as the 'cultural' officers. This involves a 'points' system for good work with the award of bonuses and certificates.

At the other end of the scale, for starting work late there are reprimands on the first occasion, up to 10% loss of wages on the second, and prosecution with possibly three months' imprisonment on the third. The whole system is, of course, intensely disliked by the majority of the seaman.

Another important duty of this officer is to organise spying on the crew when on shore leave in foreign ports. Seamen are allowed ashore only in groups of three, one of whom is assumed to be the 'cultural' officer's informer.

Finally, he is responsible for security: i.e. to ensure that the crew keeps silent about the nature of cargoes and destinations, particularly in respect of voyages to Albania, where Polish ships have been calling regularly with munitions, lorries and other military equipment.

Strange Cargoes

Information about the Cominform agents is harder to come by, since they hold no official position on board. It is known, however, that their operations are directed from an office in Wrzeszcz near Danzig, which is connected with three Cominform departments: the 4th (intelligence), the 5th (military) and the 6th (communications and transport).

It is also known that on one Polish ship, the *General Walter*, this job was held by a certain Stanislaw Jablonski. Long resident in France, this man fought with the International Brigade in Spain, and during the world war was on liaison work between Communist groups in France and Belgium. Deported

from France with other Polish Communists after the war for subversive activities, he returned to Poland and joined the Secret Police (UB). On account of his contacts with French and Belgian Communists he was soon transferred to the JUG base at Wrzeszcz, and then assigned to the *General Walter*. Early in February this year he was summoned to Warsaw, but failed to arrive. His dead body was found in the train before it reached the capital. The circumstances surrounding his death are still obscure. His place on board the *General Walter* was taken by his former assistant, who went under the pseudonym of *Maly* (Titch). The real identity of the latter is not known, but he was believed to be on board during the vessels' recent voyage to Colombo (April-May 1951).

The JUG organisation is headed by two German Communists: Ernst Wollweber and Karl Hoffman. Their original instructions were to get agents into various South American countries, but these activities have now been considerably expanded. There are now two sub-centres in Rostock and Antwerp. In Danzig, agents, radio equipment and propaganda literature are loaded on board ships, mostly Polish or Soviet, but occasionally East German or Panamanian. Other agents are sometimes taken on in Rostock, as well as Communist literature printed in Czechoslovakia. Finally, in Antwerp, all this strange 'cargo' is transhipped, if necessary to vessels proceeding further, in close collaboration with the Communist so-called maritime peace committee. Polish ships which are known to have JUG agents on board are: s.s. *Rataj*, *Warmia*, *Czech*, *Puck*, *Lublin*, *Tobruk*, *Levant*, *Elblag*, *Kutno* and *Curie-Sklodowska*.

Sicily - a potential Italian 'Panama'

THE SWISS TRANSPORT REVIEW *Internationale Transport Zeitschrift*, in its issue of 15 June, draws attention to certain similarities between the Republic of Panama and the Italian island of Sicily in their attitude towards shipping companies.

The journal points out that, by virtue of a law adopted by the autonomous regional government of Sicily, shipping companies with headquarters there are not obliged to issue registered shares and, in addition, benefit from a number of advantages of a fiscal nature. These concessions have given a strong impetus to the Sicilian shipping industry and have resulted in the establishment there of a number of new undertakings. In all, fourteen shipping companies have established themselves on the island since the law's promulgation. Of these, some are completely new undertakings, whilst others were formerly established on the Italian mainland.

Internationale Transport Zeitschrift comments that the attraction which the island has for Italian shipping has already resulted in its being described as a new Panama. It is pointed out, however, that in view of differing conditions such a comparison is not fully justified.

Communists waning influence at Hamburg

Dockers of Germany's biggest seaport
support free trade unionism

THE WORKS COUNCILS ELECTIONS at Hamburg, particularly those held in the docks, have been showing a steady decline in the influence of the German Communist Party (KPD). The tendency was confirmed once more in political elections which took place there recently.

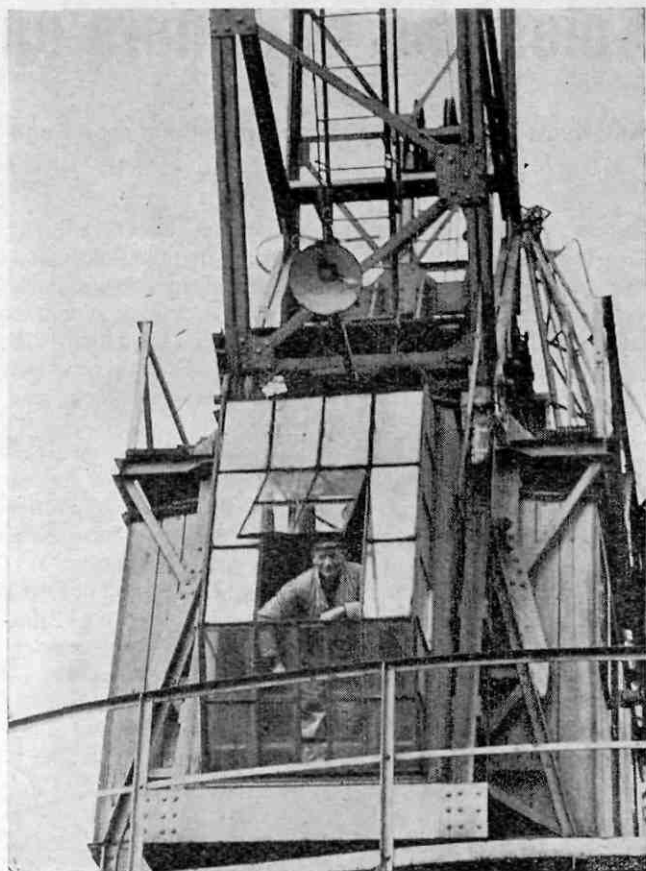
The constant changes in the leadership of the KPD are apparently of little avail in halting the process. The repeated purges and the voluntary withdrawals of the oldest, most experienced and most courageous of those who stand for a policy which takes account of the special circumstances and the actual distribution of strength reveal the inability of this Party to pursue a genuine working class policy.

The more it loses ground, the less capable is it of making an appeal to the mass of the workers and the more it has to resort to all sorts of tricks, setting up of Action Committees, convening of Peace Conferences, and the like, in order to be able to carry on any political activity at all.

One of its last supports is among the section of the Hamburg dockers which is comparatively worst off, namely the casual men on a five-day guarantee. Whereas permanent men average seven to eight shifts a week, men on the five-day guarantee average only 6.1 to 6.9 shifts. Though the men make extra money on overtime, on the other hand it is a fact that generally speaking their earnings have been pegged since the last wage increase in March of this year.

Up to then the shift wage amounted to DM 11.20* or 12.35, the hourly wage to DM 1.43 or 1.54. In March the rates were increased to DM 12.24-13.39 and DM 1.53-1.67 respectively. These basic rates are applicable to about 80 per cent of the Hamburg dockers. For a few categories of dockers they are considerably higher.

It was to be expected that the economic policy of the Government would cause a certain amount of unrest, especially among casual labour. The collective agreement which was concluded by the Wages Commission in March for the whole of the North Sea and Baltic ports is to run until September 1951, but parties to the agreement may re-open the wages question if by 1st July there is a material change in the economic situation, that is to



The crane-driver takes a look below

say, if the official cost of living index number for Hamburg shows a rise of 10 per cent compared with March 1951.

The Wages Commission was not happy about the agreement which was concluded, but it was governed by the fact that the wage increase would come into force four weeks earlier than expected and that the increase of DM 0.13 an hour provided for was substantially more than had been obtained in other industries and could therefore be regarded as a comparative success. No one could have foreseen that prices would rise as steeply as they did.

This should be a lesson for the future.

The KPD agents thought to use the fact that the official index figure has risen 5.6 per cent to provoke the dockers into a desperate struggle for cost of living increases. They just ignore the Collective Bargaining Act under which parties to collective agreements must honour their undertakings. For Communists a wage increase is something you just go after.

Recently the Communists have been intensifying their attacks on the trade union and its officials, and at the last delegate meeting of 17 April they started systematically to prepare the ground for a series of unofficial strikes which were to break out on 7 May 1951. Attempts to push through proposals addressed to action committees and works councils were abortive, and the Communists had to be content with sponsoring a proposal which was only addressed to major trade union bodies, such as the above-mentioned Wages Commission, but it definitely named 7 May 1951 as the date on which discussions on the wages issue were to be re-opened.

* £1 equals DM 11.76

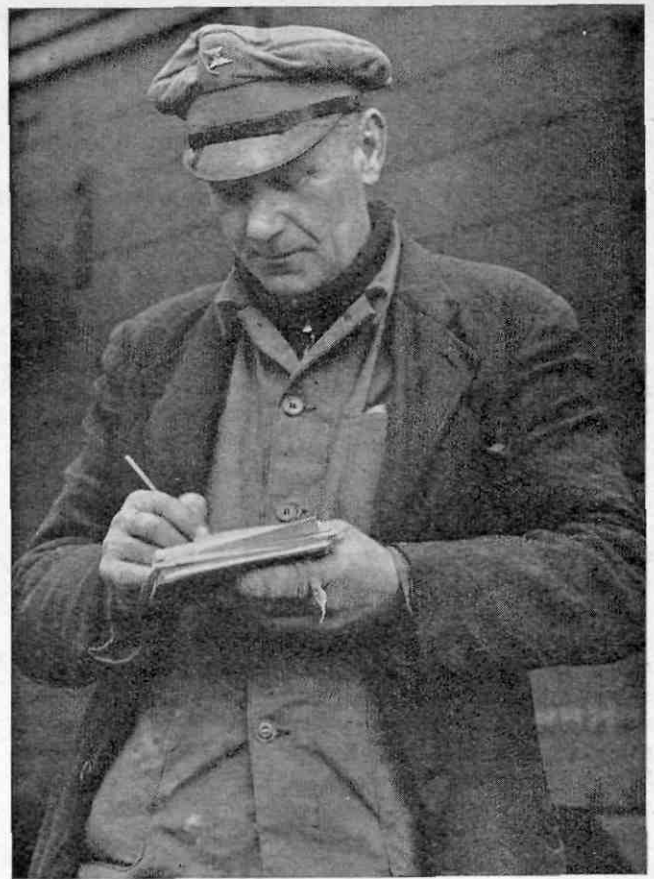


A winchman at the ready

As the trade union machinery worked too slowly for their liking, the Communists planned to stage the start of the unofficial strikes at the hiring halls on 7 May 1951. They tried to rush matters by making the Union convene a meeting at the hiring halls on Friday, 4 May. When the move failed, they demanded the holding of a branch meeting on Sunday, 6 May. This was agreed to, and the meeting took place in the union hall. Here the officials of the Union made a statement in which they discussed the economic situation and recognized the justification for demands for cost of living increases, but also emphasized that it was necessary to do this by legal trade union means and in accordance with the existing collective agreements. The meeting was fairly well attended, and after hearing the warnings of their officials and considering the implications of illegal action, the mood of the men became much more reasonable. The KPD agents and their fellow travellers tried very hard to get the meeting to agree to a resolution announcing a 24 hour token strike for 7 May. But after four veteran trade unionists had courageously backed the Union leaders and after the legal position and the ulterior motives of the sponsors of the resolution had been exposed, it was defeated by a drawn vote, whereupon the disappointed mover declared his proposal to be invalid and wanted to withdraw it.

The vote on the opposite motion, calling for vigorous steps to secure a cost of living increase but discountenancing all unconstitutional action, was adopted by a big majority.

This outcome of the meeting was not what the KPD elements had bargained for. Common sense had won over their scheming,



The foreman makes his notes

and the KPD had suffered its fourth rebuff. The first was at a works council meeting where the Communists' manoeuvre to elect these bodies through single lists of candidates instead of through separate occupational lists was stopped. But for this the Communists would have 100 per cent control of the works councils. Secondly, the thirteen trade groups of the Union succeeded in partly purging themselves of Communist elements, so that the Executive of the Union could be manned with trade unionists of the constructive type. Thirdly, as a result, the Communist representation on the district committee of the Union was reduced to one member out of eleven. The fourth rebuff was, as already stated, the failure to utilize the branch meeting to start off a series of unofficial strikes in the docks.

The defeat of the Communists was complete when on 7 May work in the docks was carried on as usual. If sensible trade unionists on future occasions show the same resistance to the handful of Communists among them, the day is not distant when the influence of these irresponsible elements will be finally broken.

The other task still facing the Union will then be to attract the unorganized dockers into its ranks. Sooner or later there must be a show-down between the organized and the unorganized dockers. Then every man will have to take sides for or against the Union.

The last position of the Communist Party of Germany on the Hamburg waterfront is threatened. For this they must blame their policy of sacrificing the interests of their own people to the objectives of a foreign power.

Transport in Africa

A continent waiting for transport unification

A recent UN survey of progress made during the post-war years

THE FOLLOWING SURVEY OF THE POSITION on the African Continent with regard to transport is based upon a mass of information recently issued by the United Nations Economic and Social Council and embodied in its publication *Review of Economic Conditions in Africa*. This latter publication is intended to form part of the preliminary version of *The World Economic Report 1949/50*.

In the sections which follow, salient aspects of the developing transport situation in Africa are considered, the main exception being inland waterways on which there is little information on a continental basis regarding volume of traffic and capital investment. Inland waterways are important in respect of the Congo in Central Africa, the Niger, Gambia, Senegal and Volta systems in Western Africa, the Nile and the Great Lakes of East and Central Africa, but not elsewhere on the Continent. The need for improvement of inland waterways has been recognized by the Governments concerned as being essential to the creation of well-developed transport systems.

It is necessary to emphasize that in a large part of Africa south of the Sahara, the least advanced technique of transport – human portage – still plays a considerable rôle in short-distance movements of small quantities of goods and that in some areas, such as Basutoland and certain desert countries, pack animals are employed. The balance between the more and the less advanced carriers varies widely among the different countries of the African Continent.

Emphasis must also be given to the very substantial development of transport which is in prospect. Extension of transport facilities in European overseas territories in Africa, south of the Sahara, fairly evenly divided among railways, roads, water transport and airways would, according to the second report of the Organization for European Economic Cooperation (February, 1950) involve 'very large sums totalling almost one and a half thousand million dollars, spread over periods ranging from four to eight years or even longer'. In addition, the projected investment in French North Africa in railway modernization alone is in excess of five hundred million dollars.

Railway Transport

Railway construction in Africa has been closely related to, and in many cases determined by, development of mineral and agricultural exports. In some areas also rate structures have been designed to favour development of export traffic. External finance has been required for most railway development in Africa, and further extensions of railway facilities will continue to depend largely on such assistance. According to Professor S. H. Frankel,² £ 384 million of foreign capital, amounting to nearly one-third of the aggregate external investment in most of

Africa, south of the Sahara, before 1934, went into railway development and by far the larger portion of this capital was engaged under public auspices.

The largest expansion of construction occurred between 1900 and 1932. In 1880 there were in operation slightly less than 1,000 kilometres of railway lines; by 1900 about 8,600 kilometres. Between 1910 and 1932, this length more than doubled. The economic depression of the 1930's checked further construction. Although the available data do not permit an accurate comparison of the pre-war and post-war situations, the aggregate length of railways in operation is reported to have contracted somewhat during the course of the second world war.

After the end of the war, however, railway construction was again undertaken on a modest scale, in response to the heightened level of economic activities in many parts of Africa and emerging development needs. Furthermore, the necessary repair of damaged railway stations and bridges has been carried out in North Africa.

In much of inter-tropical Africa, railway lines were constructed without regard to any subsequent need for linking them in order to assure a coordinated flow of traffic. As one result, the different gauges found currently constitute a problem within some territories and between different railway systems. During the post-war period, coordinated planning has been undertaken among the several Governments of Central and South Africa, with a view to eventual remedying of these deficiencies.

At the present time, Africa (excluding Egypt) has about 63,000 kilometres of main and branch lines, i.e., almost one-half of the total length of the Latin American network. Railway lines are heavily concentrated in the area covered by the Union of South Africa's system and French North Africa. The former has 21,454 kilometres of railway lines, or almost 34 per cent of the total African length, whilst French North Africa has 8,071, or almost 13 per cent of the total. Thus, the two regions account for nearly half of all the railway lines in Africa (excluding Egypt). The third largest network is in the Belgian Congo, where there are 4,749 kilometres of railway lines, or 7.5 per cent of the total.

The density of the network in relation to population in 1949 is set out on page 93.

Since the end of the war, railway freight traffic in the region has risen considerably above pre-war levels. Railway freight carried rose from 18,000,000,000 ton-kilometres in 1937 to 30,200,000,000 in 1949. Africa's increase of about 68 per cent in this period surpassed the relative increase in every other major area in the world; even so, the region's traffic constituted less than two per cent of the world's railway freight traffic.

In several countries there have been recent extensions of railway lines. On the whole, however, the principal effort made during the post-war years has been devoted to re-equipment of existing lines with locomotives and rolling stock. Through 1948, renewals lacked in a number of areas; receipts of locomotives

1. excluding Egypt

2. 'Investment in Africa', London, 1938

<i>Area</i>	<i>Population per kilometre of railway line In U S A 400</i>	<i>Area</i>	<i>Population per kilometre of railway line In U S A 400</i>
Anglo-Egyptian Sudan	2,444	Northern Rhodesia and Southern Rhodesia	1,052
Belgian Congo	2,264	FRENCH TERRITORIES:	
Eritrea	2,789	Algeria	1,969
Ethiopia and French Somaliland	19,190	Cameroons	5,595
Libya	3,153	French Equatorial Africa	8,100
Spanish Morocco	36,129	French West Africa	4,244
Union of South Africa	558	Réunion	1,921
UK TERRITORIES: Gold Coast	4,708	Togoland	2,145
Kenya, Uganda and Tanganyika	2,815	Tunisia	1,577
Mauritius	2,387	PORTUGUESE TERRITORIES:	
Nigeria	7,752	Angola	2,258
Nyasaland	4,179	Mozambique	2,938
Sierra Leone	4,008		

Length of African Railways in relation to Population, 1949

The omission of certain countries is explained by the absence of railways. In one such country, Liberia, external capital has been made available to construct a railway connecting the Bomi Hill iron ore deposits with Monrovia, a distance by air of 63 kilometres.

Length of African Roads in relation to Population

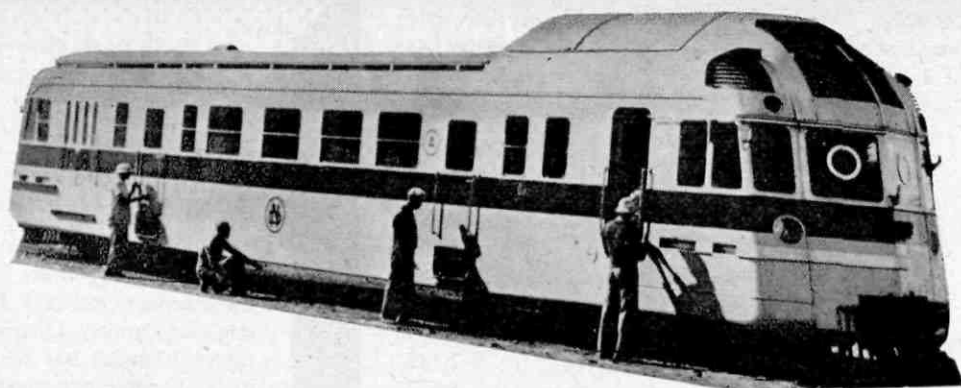
In some respects the figures are not comparable from territory to territory, for some include and others exclude tertiary roads of poor quality; accordingly, it has been considered advisable not to attempt a detailed breakdown to show the extent of durable 'all-weather' roads.

<i>Area</i>	<i>Population per kilometre of road In U S A 3</i>	<i>Area</i>	<i>Population per kilometre of road In U S A 3</i>
Anglo-Egyptian Sudan	351	Sierra Leone	752
Liberia	1,380	Southern Rhodesia	120
Union of South Africa	68	Swaziland	105
BELGIAN TERRITORIES:		Tanganyika	144
Belgian Congo	108	Uganda	293
Ruando Urendi	465	Zanzibar and Pemba	542
BRITISH TERRITORIES:		FRENCH TERRITORIES:	
Basutoland	441	Algeria	96
Bechuanaland	66	French Equatorial Africa	103
British Somaliland	248	French Somaliland	789
Gambia	258	French West Africa	158
Gold Coast	284	Madagascar	858
Kenya	348	Morocco	200
Mauritius	388	Tunisia	237
Nigeria	562	PORTUGUESE TERRITORIES:	
Northern Rhodesia	107	Angola	128
Nyasaland	414	Mozambique	211

<i>Area</i>	<i>Number of persons per vehicle</i>	<i>Area</i>	<i>Number of persons per vehicle</i>
Algeria	138	Madagascar 1946	4,772
Anglo-Egyptian Sudan	1,237	Mauritius 1948	123
Angola	848	Mozambique 1946	794
Belgian Congo	797	Nigeria	1,841
French Equatorial Africa 1945	1,291	Sierra Leone	2,500
French Morocco	102	Southern Rhodesia	57
French West Africa 1945	1,616	Tunisia 1949	150
Gambia Gold Coast	417 : 432	Uganda	752
Kenya	228	Union of South Africa	26
Liberia 1948	2,285	Zanzibar and Pemba 1948	437

Africa Motor Vehicles in relation to Population of certain countries

Except where otherwise stated figures refer to the year 1947



One of the new rail-cars now in service on the Dakar-St. Louis line

and freight cars have subsequently been accelerated with advantageous effects on the flow of traffic.

The volume of freight traffic in all French Territories, except Réunion, in 1948 was substantially above pre-war levels, the increases ranging from 23 to 125 per cent. The systems of the Union of South Africa, UK Territories, the Belgian Congo and the Anglo Egyptian Sudan have consistently carried larger than pre-war volumes of freight traffic.

These heightened levels of traffic have subjected the railways to strain. Consequently there has been recurrent congestion at a number of centres south of the Sahara, making necessary measures to increase the short and long run capacity.

Road Transport

It has long been recognized by the administration in intertropical Africa that the development of road transport as an element in a satisfactory transport system would contribute particularly to an expansion of internal exchange and to the relief of human portorage. However, the early construction of roads was hindered by such difficulties as the scarcity of labour, low levels of traffic and natural conditions. Lord Hailey noted that 'As commerce and intercourse expanded . . . the need to provide more durable roads for motor traffic has involved the formation of technical departments and a greatly increased scale of expenditure'.³ Furthermore, there has been a tendency to substitute capital for labour in the construction and repair of roads, although extensive mechanization of techniques in most areas has not yet been carried out.

Before the second world war, the level of development of arterial, secondary and local roads varied considerably from territory to territory, so that overall generalization cannot readily be made. In the 1930s efforts were made to overcome lags in the French Territories in West Africa and much construction was also undertaken under Italian auspices in some parts of East Africa. Elsewhere expansion occurred. For example, in the Belgian Congo the public network expanded from 31,000 to 67,000 kilometres between 1931 and 1939; in the Union of South Africa, under the National Roads Act, new roads were constructed and existing roads improved; in Southern Rhodesia expenditures on road construction and maintenance were greatly increased after 1935. The problem of coordination of motor with rail transportation was serious in some territories; the heavy post-war traffic carried by the railways, however, subsequently alleviated this. There were also some increases in private road motor services.

During the war the roads deteriorated or suffered war damage in parts of North Africa and Ethiopia. Some territories—for example, Southern Rhodesia—reduced expenditures on construction and maintenance. On the other hand, an expansion occurred in other areas important to military supply, including the Belgian Congo and, in West Africa, several of the non-self-governing territories and Liberia.

Since the close of the war, external finance has been available to French North Africa and Ethiopia for the rehabilitation of their roads. In Libya, which has received financial aid from the UK and France, the network had deteriorated in parts, but vital arteries have been well maintained and some new work has been undertaken by the French Administration in the Fezzan. In tropical Africa, many road construction schemes have been elaborated as part of the development plans of the different territories and, at varying rates, new construction has been undertaken. A major scheme on which work has been progressing involves the improvement and extension of the principal inter-territorial road linking the UK Territories in East Africa. A comprehensive review of the inadequacies of the road network, south of the Sahara, was made by the Conference on African Transport and the Organization for European Economic Cooperation in Paris in February, 1950. Subsequently, the United States Economic Cooperation Administration allowed about three and a half million dollars as marginal assistance



Dusky beauties on the train between Abijan (Ivory Coast) and Bobo Diulasso

3. 'An African Survey,' Second Edition London, 1945 page, 1549

to accelerate the work being undertaken in the Belgian, British and French Territories in West Africa and smaller sums for certain territories south of that region. Another International Conference was held in French Equatorial Africa in November, 1950. This formulated recommendations for improvement of roads, waterways and railways in the Belgian Congo and in the British and French Territories in West Africa.

The available information does not permit an accurate and comprehensive assessment of the pre-war and post-war situations. Some idea of the density of roads in relation to population may, however, be obtained from the relevant table on p. 93.

To a limited extent, the level of development of the use of motor vehicles in Africa is reflected in an index showing the number of persons per vehicle in certain countries. However, this index, based on both passenger and commercial vehicles does not afford an accurate basis for determining the extent of goods traffic or of long-haul in relation to short-haul and local traffic. As an approximate basis for evaluating the following figures it is pointed out that in 1948 the number of persons per vehicle in certain countries was: USA 4; Canada 7; France 24; Spain 220; Egypt 368; Turkey 1,300; India 1,720; China 8,745.

The indices (disregarding formal changes over time) show relatively high concentrations of motor vehicles relative to population in the Union of South Africa, in Southern Rhodesia and also in French North Africa and Mauritius. Except for Southern Rhodesia, Kenya has the highest concentration (less than 300 persons per vehicles in inter-tropical Africa) and there were less than 500 persons per vehicle in Gambia, Gold Coast and Zanzibar. On the other hand, the lowest concentrations were found in Madagascar, Nigeria, Liberia, Sierra Leone, French West Africa and French Equatorial Africa. This distribution of vehicles relative to population reflects not only the levels of motor traffic in the various countries but also the location of the European population in Africa and the comparatively high incomes of this section of the population.

The more detailed figures which have been available for this study show that, as compared with pre-war, the number of commercial vehicles has increased considerably in French North Africa, even in those parts where the index based on the total number of vehicles declined. New registrations, which in most cases have recently been above pre-war levels, have varied in accordance with the amount of foreign exchange available for this purpose and the degree of stringency of import controls. Facilities for the assembly of motor cars have expanded in the Union of South Africa.

Maritime Transport

Since the end of the war, maritime shipping space has been increasingly available to Africa. The index, based on total net registration tonnage of vessels entered and cleared in external trade at African ports (base 1937 equals 100), was 86 in 1946 and rose in each succeeding year to reach 100 in 1949.

The post-war trend in Africa as regards the volume of freight handled has been upward and in most countries for which data are available it has exceeded pre-war levels. The upward trend shown for Tunisia is of special interest in view of the heavy damage to ports during the war. This reflects the rapid reconstruction of port facilities which has taken place.

The service of this augmented traffic since the end of the war has involved a heavy and persistent strain on the principal ports south of the Sahara and has resulted in costly delays in movements of goods and ships. As a result of these and other

transport difficulties, serious congestion developed in a number of ports and production centres with limited effects on the expansion of commerce and utilization of production capacity in some areas. With a view to overcoming these difficulties and also to meeting requirements of anticipated development, energetic measures have been taken to expand port capacity and facilities and to undertake war damage arrears in the renewal of port equipment.

Other significant post-war changes have included a new development of direct shipping services between North America and parts of Africa south of the Sahara. This development has reflected the increased participation of the United States and Canada in African trade. There has also been a rapid development of foreign-going ships registered in the Union of South Africa, but the tonnage involved is small (in 1948 not much more than 100,000 gross tons) and the whole of Africa is still heavily dependent on overseas firms for maritime shipping services.

Air Transport

The penetration of Africa by civil aviation commenced shortly after the close of the first world war. Before the outbreak of the



Railwaymen's houses in Thies (Senegal)

second world war, Africa was connected by air with the other Continents, and long distance routes transversed it as far as the Union of South Africa. The development of regional air traffic in Africa had also begun. However, the air network was not elaborate and, in general, service was infrequent.

A very considerable development of passenger and freight traffic has taken place since the pre-war period. In most cases for which data are available, this expansion of traffic has continued at a high rate since 1947. The relative increase in freight traffic has, in some cases, exceeded the rate of growth in passenger travel. However, as a rule, the movement of goods has tended to be confined to high value commodities, comprising a small part of the African tonnage. The aeroplane has assumed its largest significance in moving persons and mails.

The post-war development owes much to the impetus received during the war for, while the principal routes to and through Africa via the Mediterranean Sea were broken up or disrupted early in the war, military requirements stimulated a vast expansion in the scope of air operations on the Continent, an opening of new routes and a growth of facilities and experience.

Post-war development of civil aviation has been marked by

an appreciable increase in the number of international trunk lines penetrating Africa and the frequency of service on them. Major world air lines have connected important centres in all parts of the Continent, extending as far as Johannesburg and Tananarive, Madagascar, making connections with one another and with other Continents. The post-war development of trans-Sahara routes has been significant.

The growth of medium length regional air networks in Africa has been even more striking. This development has been encouraged by the various sovereign nations of Africa and by a number of territorial Governments. Since the end of the war, Central African Airways, East African Airways and West African Airways have been established under British auspices. As an example of development of regional connections, it might be mentioned that South African Airways now connects with

Central African Airways and the latter operates planes to the region covered by East African Airways and the Portuguese Airline DETA. Ethiopia, the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan and Liberia have chartered air transport companies to service their respective areas and also, in the case of Ethiopian Airlines, several international routes. Internal traffic has been encouraged in the Belgian Congo, which in 1948 had 175 public and 7 private aerodromes. The curtailment of services in a few cases, owing to financial difficulties, has not interrupted the general trend towards expansion.

Projects in practically every other part of Africa are under way or are planned with a view to further development of the air network and construction of aerodromes, and improvement of ground services and meteorological and technical aids to flying. A number of significant projects have been completed.

Progress made by ECE Inland Transport Committee

DURING THE MONTH OF JUNE, the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (ECE) agreed by eleven votes to five to take note of the report submitted to it by its Inland Transport Committee.

Introducing the report, the Director of the Secretariat Transport Division stated that the results of various recent technical meetings included two draft conventions designed to make it easier for goods and passengers to cross frontiers by rail; a set of draft recommendations on standard packaging of perishable goods; and action on international monetary and tariff questions affecting rail transport.

Members of the ECE praised the work of the Inland Transport Committee towards the coordination and rationalization of European transport. They then stressed that the Committee aimed at developing efficient and cheap transport systems, which are an essential basis for a large and unified market in Europe.

Almost the only discordant note was struck by one of the representatives of the Soviet Union who claimed that the Committee 'had been transformed into a special section of the general staff assisting the military plans of the Western countries'. He claimed that this was evidenced by the urgency with which governments in the Committee were trying to draw up international rules on the handling and transport of dangerous goods (explosives) by road, rail and water.

Replying to this accusation, the Director of the Transport Division declared it to be completely unfounded.

He explained that in seeking to promote safety in the transport of dangerous goods (including certain chemicals, mining charges and hunting cartridges) the Committee was merely bringing up to date a classification system for dangerous goods adopted by the railways some fifty years ago.

He pointed out that the draft international regulations specifically exclude all transport of military goods.

ECE Transport Commission discusses coordination of inland transport

AT ITS FIFTH SESSION (MARCH 1951) the Transport and Communications Commission of the ECE Inland Transport Committee discussed at length the question of coordination of inland transport.

One of the main points considered was whether, in its international aspects, the problem of coordination was one requiring worldwide treatment, or one which could be dealt with adequately on a regional basis. In general, the Commission was of the view that the subject was primarily for regional consideration where the relevant machinery is available, although there might be some general aspects to which the Commission would need to give its attention.

It was recognized, however, that maritime shipping and aviation were means of transport whose coordination was a matter which should be dealt with on a world-wide basis.

The members for the USSR, the Byelorussian Soviet Socialist Republic and Poland gave as their opinion that questions of coordination of inland transport within the frontiers of a country are within the competence of that country, and the coordination of inland transport between countries of the same continent must be regulated by agreement between the countries who are interested.

Following the conclusion of its discussion, the Commission adopted, by a vote of ten to three, the following resolution:

The Transport and Communications Division

Being of the opinion

- 1) That the problem of coordination of inland transport in its international aspects is a subject to be dealt with primarily on a regional basis wherever adequate regional machinery exists,
- 2) That, however, there may be regions where such adequate machinery does not exist, and there may also be general aspects which could usefully be dealt with by the Transport and Communications Division, and that for this reason the Commission should continue to follow developments in this respect in the various regions and countries,

- 3) That Governments should make an effort on an international basis to remove friction arising from existing legislation on inland transport and avoid measures which will hamper the development of international transport by the various means. Requests the Secretary-General:

- 1) To make available to all the regional bodies concerned the results of studies of the problem of coordination undertaken by any of the regional bodies or initiated by the Transport and Communications Division where necessary; and
- 2) To keep the Commission informed of developments in this field which, within the framework of paragraphs 1, 2 and 3 above, may require the Commission's attention.

Shipping figures

Merchant shipping fleets in thousand gross registered tons

Country	1930	1937	1949
Canada	1,235	1,257	2,097
Denmark	1,072	1,118	1,170
France	3,471	2,844	3,070
Germany	4,199	3,928	300
Italy	3,262	3,174	2,443
Japan	4,317	4,475	1,564
Netherl.	3,079	2,631	2,990
Norway	3,663	4,347	4,916
Panama	75	512	3,016
UK ¹	20,322	17,436	18,093 ²
USA	13,103	11,788	27,814

1 including Ireland (Eire)

2 including bareboat charter from USA and CANADA

World merchant shipping fleets in thousand GRT

Year	Tons
1930	68,024
1937	65,271
1949	82,571

French to overhaul training of merchant marine officers

AN INVESTIGATION RECENTLY CARRIED OUT by the French Government and the shipping industry into the reasons for the current shortage of navigating and engineering officers in both the merchant marine and the fishing industry has resulted in the condemnation as out-of-date of present examination requirements for these groups. The present examination system – based on decrees issued in 1938 – is alleged to lay too much stress on theory and far too little on practical navigation.

The main conclusions reached as a result of the joint inquiry can be briefly summarized as follows:

- 1) Sea-going service as a career should be made sufficiently attractive to prevent officers from leaving it for the amenities of a job ashore. Officers should, in the main, be recruited from among the population inhabiting the littoral, and existing theoretical training schools should be combined into one where the prime emphasis is laid on the study of practical navigation.
- 2) The practice of training officers, who have modern scientific instruments to help them in nautical calculations, in the theory of astronomy is considered to be unnecessary. Courses of study should omit all theoretical work which goes beyond the actual needs of their training and future career.
- 3) The necessity of using modern methods to facilitate the study of navigation and application of knowledge of ship propulsion in order to warrant changes in the duties imposed upon deck and engine-room officers is stressed.

One result of the investigation has been the drawing-up of a new schedule of studies. In addition, regulations have been issued modifying the rota of duties based on the 1938 decrees.

They are based on the gross tonnage of the vessel and affect personnel from the master down to the engineer officer on watch.

The possibility of establishing a single training school is also under active consideration. Although the situation of such a school has not yet been determined, it is considered that both Marseilles and Le Havre have good claims. Cherbourg has also been visited as a potential site.

Government training schemes for Indonesian seafarers

IN A RECENT STATEMENT regarding progress made in the development of a national merchant marine, the director of the Indonesian Department of Shipping disclosed that his department was now able to draw upon some 8,000 seafarers. Of this figure, 300 men belonged to the higher categories but, at present, only ten were Indonesian nationals.

The director pointed out that seafarers, particularly those needed to take up positions of responsibility on board, did not grow on trees. For that reason, his department was devoting all its energies to the task of providing adequate training facilities for Indonesians wishing to make a career in the merchant marine. Training schemes for both officers and ratings were already in operation at Jakarta, Semarang and Macassar and the interest shown in these by Indonesian youth was very gratifying.

No sweating plates in new British vessel's crew accommodation

EVER SINCE THE GENERAL INTRODUCTION of iron vessels, ship designers have been faced with the problem of preventing the sweating of plates in crew quarters. In fact, it is no exaggeration to say that, in the early days of iron ships at least, plate sweating was responsible for more premature deaths among seafarers than any other factor for which they themselves were not in some way responsible, either directly or indirectly.

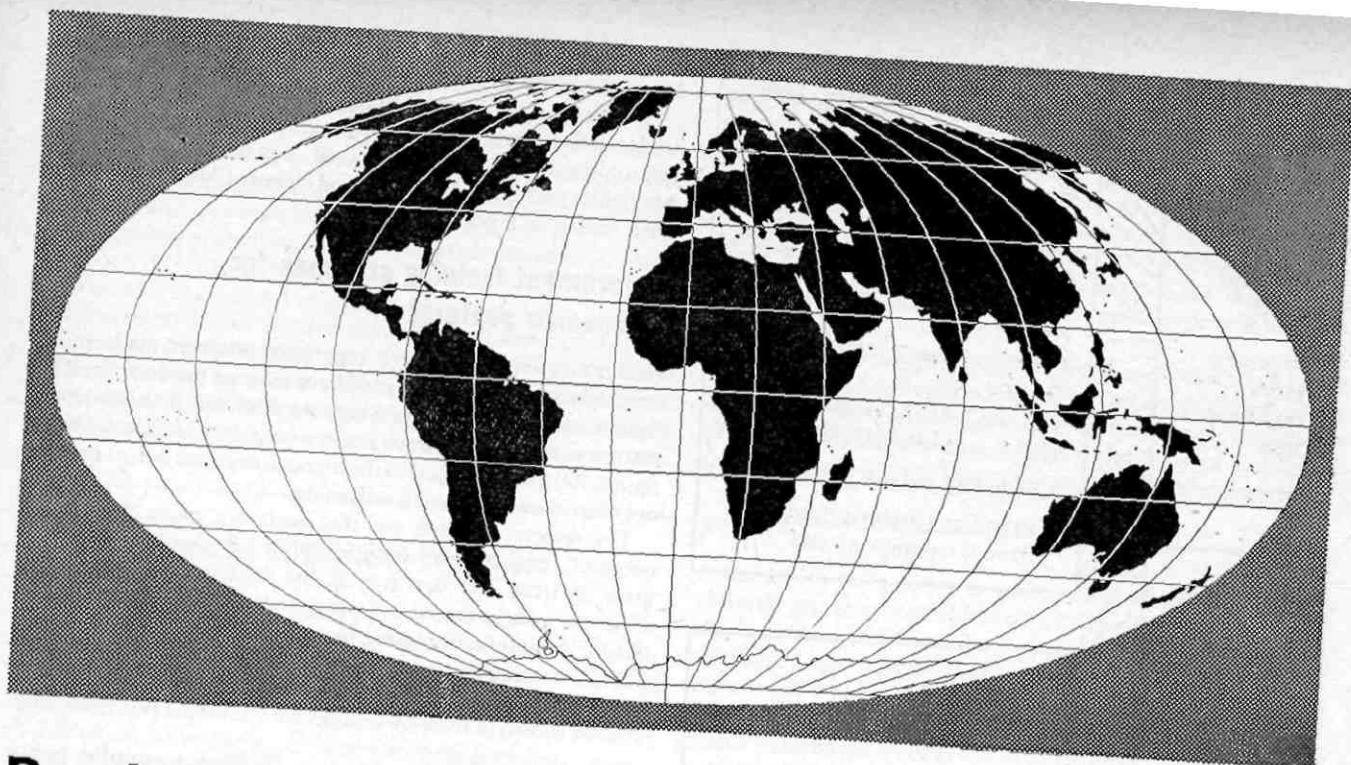
The first attempts to solve the problem resulted in the practice of fixing the bunks so that there was a clear space between them and the ship's side. Although this took up a good deal of space in the forecabin, it was nevertheless a great improvement on the old system whereby bunks were placed right against the sides of the forecabin, which continually streamed with water.

Now, a British shipping company has put into service a new type of motor vessel, on board which the crew accommodation is constructed in such a way as to provide what is claimed to be the best solution so far to the problem. Crew quarters are situated inboard, with galleries between them and the sides of the ship. It is stated that by making these outside galleries, which are used for recreation and other purposes by the crew, into ventilation ducts and giving the crew cabins inside them large windows, the old trouble of sweating appears to have been entirely overcome.

First Japanese post-war air service

A REPORT FROM TOKIO states that a Japanese industrialist has just been granted a licence to operate the first domestic air line service since the end of the war.

The proposed Japanese air company plans to buy two Sky-masters and two DC-3s from foreign air lines operating into Japan. It also proposes to contract with foreign air lines for the supply of spares, hangars, pilots and maintenance facilities.



Road and vehicle density statistics in 1948

Between the countries covered by this Table there are wide disparities in physical and geographical features as well as in agricultural, economic, industrial and social development. These factors are to be taken into account in forming conclusions based upon Road and Vehicle Density statistics.

Country	Vehicles in 000	Roads in 000 miles	Vehicles per		Miles of Road per 1,000 Square Miles
			1,000 Square Miles	1,000 Miles Road	
Europe					
Austria	58.4	21.6	1,808		
Belgium	241.5	28.8	20,466	2,704	669
Czechoslovakia	93.0	44.2	1,860	8,385	2,441
Denmark	152.8	35.0	9,205	2,104	884
Finland	42.4	36.8	326	4,366	2,108
France	1,466.0	394.4	6,883	1,152	283
Great Britain	2,727.8	183.4	28,988	3,717	1,852
Greece	21.0	9.6	410	14,874	1,949
Iceland	7.9	2.8	195	2,188	187
Ireland	77.2	49.6	2,902	2,821	69
Italy	404.6	109.4	3,089	1,556	1,865
Luxembourg	9.2	2.7	9,200	3,698	835
Netherlands	126.5	25.9	9,370	3,407	2,700
Norway	108.0	27.6	867	4,884	1,919
Portugal	72.5	16.0	2,101	3,913	222
Spain	124.5	80.1	633	4,531	464
Sweden	238.1	106.0	1,374	1,554	407
Switzerland	113.9	28.8	7,119	2,246	612
				3,955	1,800

Country	Vehicles in 000	Roads in 000 miles	Vehicles per		Miles of Road per 1,000 Square Miles
			1,000 Square Miles	1,000 Miles Road	
Asia					
Ceylon	33.3	17.5	1,332	1,903	700
Cyprus	4.8	2.6	1,333	1,846	722
India	198.3	239.1	170	829	205
Indo-China	18.4	23.0	66	826	80
Indonesia	27.4	42.6	37	643	58
Iran	22.2	16.3	35	1,362	26
Iraq	12.8	6.8	110	1,882	59
Lebanon	10.4	1.5	2,600	6,933	375
Malayan Union and Singapore	43.7	6.2	849	7,048	120
Pakistan	23.7	56.9	66	417	158
Philippines	75.2	15.1	654	4,980	131
Syria	7.4	4.0	103	1,850	56
Thailand	9.5	4.2	47	2,262	21
Turkey	14.6	28.5	49	512	96
Africa					
Algeria <i>French</i>	54.1	32.8	64	1,649	39
Angola	5.6	21.8	12	257	45
Belgian Congo	13.1	61.6	14	213	67
<i>Central Africa British</i>					
N. Rhodesia	8.8	10.1	31	871	35
Nyasaland	1.8	4.0	48	450	110
S. Rhodesia	29.5	15.6	196	1,891	104
<i>East Africa British</i>					
Kenya	18.4	17.0	82	1,082	76
Tanganyika	6.8	24.4	19	279	68
Uganda	5.5	8.5	59	647	90
Zanzibar	0.7	0.3	1,167	2,333	500
Egypt	47.2	10.8	122	4,370	28
Equatorial Africa <i>French</i>	3.2	13.6	3	235	14
Ethiopia	6.3	4.3	18	1,465	12
Madagascar <i>French</i>	3.3	15.7	14	210	67
Morocco <i>French</i>	11.7	24.5	72	478	151
Somaliland <i>French</i>	0.2	0.3	22	667	33
Tunisia <i>French</i>	16.9	5.4	376	3,130	120
Union of South Africa	455.1	171.7	962	2,651	363
<i>West Africa British</i>					
Gambia	0.6	0.6	146	1,000	146
Gold Coast	8.6	7.9	94	1,089	86
Nigeria	12.2	25.2	33	484	68
Sierra Leone	0.8	1.7	3	471	61
West Africa <i>French</i>	14.4	56.4	8	255	31
America					
Argentina	319.1	259.0	295	1,232	240
Bolivia	11.3	8.9	23	1,270	18
Brazil	256.2	161.3	78	1,588	49
Canada	1,786.2	552.0	494	3,236	153
Chile	64.0	29.9	221	2,140	103
Colombia	37.8	11.2	86	3,375	25
Ecuador	8.4	4.4	30	1,909	16
Mexico	235.1	43.6	306	5,392	57
Peru	37.6	20.4	78	1,843	42
U.S.A.	37,360.5	3,009.0	12,361	12,416	996
Uruguay	41.4	25.1	573	1,649	348
Venezuela	60.9	11.5	167	5,296	32
Oceania					
Australia	926.0	528.2	311	1,753	178
New Zealand	281.3	77.1	2,687	3,649	736

From 'World Road Statistics', published by the International Road Federation



Transport problems in Germany

How they arose and proposals for their solution

By Hans Jahn, President of the German Railwaymen's Union

The immediate post-war position

IN THE IMMEDIATE POST-WAR YEARS the German transport system was faced with a difficult task of reconstruction. The rebuilding of railway lines, bridges and roads, and the repair or replacement of all types of vehicles represented one of the essential conditions for the restoration of normal life.

Thanks to the outstanding performances by the German railwaymen, who built their industry up again in the teeth of indescribable difficulties, it proved possible to cope successfully with the enormous traffic which the industry was called upon to face immediately after the war.

Following on the currency reform, the German transport system was subjected to a profound strain. Many people are inclined to think that too much fuss is being made about Germany's transport difficulties. After all, they say, transport has only a subsidiary role to play in the country's economic life. However, let us look at a few figures:

Transport's rôle in the German national economy

On the basis of its share of the national revenue, transport represents about 10 per cent of the German national economy. Comparable figures are 10 per cent for agriculture, the same percentage for the mining industry, and 35 per cent for the remaining sectors of industry. Thus the rôle played by transport in the national economy as a whole is considerable. In addition, whilst most other branches of the economic system are linked with only one section of the national economy, transport is intimately interconnected with them all.

As a result, transport is subject to a greater variety of obligations in respect of freight rates and working and safety regulations. By its very nature, transport cannot be so independent as other branches of the national economy.

Difficult position of the Federal Railways

If one glances through the columns of the daily press or at the trade journals, one is struck by the fact that difficulties in the field of transport are continually being ventilated. The Federal Railways are particularly involved.

According to the budget for 1951, their deficit is in the region of 113 million D-marks. At the end of 1949 they had a deficit of 1.3 milliard D-marks, including both long and short term liabilities. It is true that the situation has somewhat improved but it is still impossible to satisfy the urgent demand for renewals, owing to lack of capital.

A few observations on this point will help to explain the situation. In Italy, France and Belgium responsibility for the repair of railway war damage has been assumed in full by the governments of those countries. If this had been so in the case of the German Federal Railways, their material position would have

been considerably better. Since the currency reform and up to the end of 1949, the Federal Railways have by their own efforts raised 600 million D-marks for the repair of war damage. Prior to the reform a sum of 1 milliard D-marks had been raised for the same purpose. War damage which still remains to be made good in constructional work alone will necessitate the expenditure of 1 milliard D-marks. A similar sum is needed for making up arrears in maintenance and renewals.

During the coming year, the Federal Railways will require 540 million D-marks in order to make good the most urgently needed repairs to war damaged railway installations and rolling stock.

The position of the road haulage and inland waterway industries

The position of the road haulage industry also leaves much to be desired. Many road transport undertakings, particularly the smaller ones and those operated by owner drivers, cannot make ends meet. The costs of amortization cannot be met and when a vehicle has reached the end of its useful life it cannot be replaced. In other words, the road haulage industry is no longer able to operate in a normal fashion.

The inland waterway industry also has its troubles. For years hundreds of vessels lay idle at the wharves in Duisburg and Verding and the families living on them were without a regular source of income. In addition, Germany's inland shipping is now technically obsolescent and, in consequence, foreign inland waterway undertakings with their more modern vessels have been enabled to obtain a considerably larger share of traffic than was formerly the case.

The impact of the technical revolution on transport

What is the reason for this truly menacing position throughout the whole of the German transport industry, a position whose gravity cannot adequately be described in a few words as here?

The difficulties are, to a very large extent, the result of the tremendous technical revolution which has taken place and the fact that the vitally necessary conclusions which should have been drawn from this technical revolution have been neglected. This may in part be due to the fact that it is not easy to obtain a general view of the whole transport complex and also perhaps because many people in positions of responsibility are afraid to draw the far-reaching conclusions that must be drawn and that will affect the lives of many people.

How did this technical revolution in the field of transport come about? Motor cars, buses and lorries began to appear on the roads only in the present century but in the years which followed the first world war the resultant modernization of road transport made tremendous strides. The number of lorries in the German federal territory already amounts to 358,000

compared with 238,600 goods wagons in effective operation on the German railways. There are 41,000 lorries of over four tons capacity in federal territory compared with 22,000 in 1938 for the whole territory of the then German Reich. These figures are in themselves sufficient to indicate that the monopoly of the railways has been effectively broken. The following few figures will give readers some idea of the consequences of these changes. The share of the railways in the national income, a figure which includes only wages, salaries, interest and profits and does not include investments and sums written off, amounts to 3 milliard D-marks of which about 2 milliard are accounted for by goods traffic. The corresponding figure for the road haulage industry is between 750 million and 790 million D-marks.

The goods traffic mileage of the railways in 1950 is estimated to have been in the region of 40 milliard kilometres, or about 25 milliard miles. Comparable figures for the road haulage industry are 9.4 milliard kilometres, or 5.9 milliard miles.

Railway freight charges the focal point

From this it can be seen that the railways on the average carry goods that, by reason of the long distances or the low values involved, bring in about five pfennigs per kilometre, whilst road haulage carries goods bringing in an average of nine pfennigs per kilometre. The question which immediately arises is: why the appropriate conclusions with regard to transport and freight charges have not been drawn from a technical development which produces such illogical relationships between the various means of transport?

In 1920, at a time when the railways still enjoyed an effective monopoly position in the transport field, a system of freight charges was drawn up which was of very great importance for the economic system as a whole in that it ensured a suitable balance in the German population distribution as between the industrial and agricultural areas. At the same time, this system made it possible to provide all parts of the country with the requisite quantities of bulk goods, such as coal, timber and ores, at reasonable prices. Naturally the cost per ton/mile for a short distance is considerably higher than for a longer distance and for politico-economic reasons freight rates for long distances were therefore reduced in order to link the outlying areas, then East Prussia and now Schleswig-Holstein and parts of Bavaria, with the industrial heart of Central Germany.

The scaled tariff was introduced on the railways for reasons of general economics. In addition, the amount of the commodity to be carried and its value were both taken into consideration. Piece goods and parcels, express goods, full loadings and bulky goods of light weight all had their special freight rates. Further freight charges were also scaled according to the commercial value of the goods carried. It can thus be seen that the freight rate system of the German railways represented a carefully thought out and balanced plan, which was in line with Germany's political and economic needs. Unfortunately, however, it was intended to apply to a situation which is entirely different from that with which we are faced today.

Freight charge relationships in the transport industry

Inland waterway transport was never very favourably placed under this system. For one thing, the arrival and departure tariffs which are necessary to shipping are extremely high, whilst the rates for the type of long distance carriage chiefly undertaken by inland waterway transport are comparatively low.

The relationship between rail and road freight charges is characterized by the adaptation of the Reich road transport tariff system to that of the railway freight system which we have already sketched in two essentials. This principle goes back some 25 years. It worked well so long as the railways enjoyed monopoly of goods traffic, but now that that monopoly no longer exists, the situation is changed, although the appropriate conclusions with regard to freight rates have not been drawn, an omission which has appreciably contributed to the transport chaos from which Germany is now suffering.

By its very nature, the lorry is particularly suited for carrying goods for short distances. It can transport goods from door to door without intermediate loading. Comparatively little packing is required and in most cases the lorry can obtain a return load. Road transport over short distances has not confined itself to the more valuable types of goods, but has also begun to handle goods in the lower freight range.

Inland waterway transport can carry a ton of goods with 0.2 horsepower. Friction is almost non-existent and water transport is the most suitable method for carriage of bulk cargo when sufficient time is available. The carriage of a ton of goods on the railways, on the other hand, requires two horsepower, whilst on the roads ten horsepower, i.e. five times as much, is needed since friction from the road surface is considerably greater than that from a railway track.

In addition to the factor which we have already considered, there is a second one closely related to it. In 1950 the German Federal Railways carried goods (chiefly bulk goods) over an aggregate of approximately 25 milliard miles. For this traffic plus passenger traffic, coal to the value of 300 million D-marks was consumed.

In the same period road transport carried goods over a total of approximately 5.9 milliard miles and for this and for road passenger traffic, diesel oil and petrol to the value of approximately 750 million D-marks was consumed, of which between 150 and 200 million D-marks were required in foreign currency.

Freight charges and real costs of transport

The question of the real costs per ton/mile for the carriage of goods, etc. by rail, road and inland waterway transport therefore now arises.

The Federal Railways maintain their permanent way, their own signalling and safety systems as well as their own railway police force. Road transport also pays enormous sums for road building and maintenance but here we must know whether the amounts actually paid meet the full costs of such work. In addition, it may well be asked: who builds and maintains the inland waterways? The question of the real cost per ton/mile for the carriage of goods, etc. by rail, road and inland waterways now takes on a different aspect.

If the problem were considered as a whole, then a new system of freight rates, based on real costs, would have to be worked out. However, the situation is not as simple as that. If it were actually done, it would be possible to secure a well-balanced relationship between the various forms of transport, but only at the cost of a complete structural transformation of the German Länder, the economic decay of outlying districts and the concentration of industry in the regions of large deposits of natural resources, for instance the Ruhr District.

To obviate this, therefore, a solution must be found which will balance Germany's various economic interests as was once done by the old railway freight rate system. Scales of charges

based on distance would have to be retained as well as special rates for certain districts and certain industries. However – and this seems to be an important point – such exceptions to the general freight rate system based purely on costs would have to be very accurately calculated; and those who fixed them would have to be fully aware of their ultimate extent. Moreover, the cost of such exceptions should not be permitted to burden one branch of the transport system only, merely because that particular branch happens to be the property of the German people. I am, of course, referring to the railways. Instead, costs would have to be fairly distributed between the various means of transport or spread out over the national economic system as a whole.

In addition, the question of the obligation to carry freight must also be considered, as also the obligation of the railways to keep wagons available during the harvest period or severe winter weather. Only in this way will it prove possible to adapt the logical principles of the old railway freight rate system, which took account of the interests of the economic system as a whole, to the changed situation of our own day.

I am convinced that it is possible for us to achieve a sane and healthy reorganization of our transport system on the basis of a proper and effective adjustment of the various branches of the transport industry, one to another, by following the principle that real costs of carriage should be paid, together with an appropriate adjustment of freight charges as between various parts of the country. We are much too poor to allow ourselves the luxury of several interests pulling in different directions. Only on the basis of real cooperation and assessment of all the factors involved will we be able to arrive at a coordination of the means of transport.

The solution I propose would effect considerable economies throughout the whole industry and would, therefore, redound to the benefit of the economic system as a whole.

Railway safety measures

However, Germany has still other tasks to carry out in the sphere of transport. It is responsible for protecting the lives and limbs of its citizens. The measures taken by the railways in this respect are extremely impressive. Level crossings are all protected with gates. Main and auxiliary signals safeguard the line. In addition, station officials are responsible for giving supplementary hand signals. The dead man's handle on electric trains brings the train to a halt, should the driver fall ill, and the inductive safety system makes it impossible for a train to overrun a halt signal. Thus every possible contingency has been provided for, with the result that railway accidents are extraordinarily few as is proved by the following figures:

In 1949, the railway accident records showed that throughout the entire Bi-zone 666 people lost their lives, including 105 passengers, 232 railway employees, 3 postal and customs' officials, as well as 326 persons killed not whilst travelling on the railways but at level crossings, etc. The records for the four railway districts of North Rhine-Westphalia indicate that 245 people were killed (as against more than 2,000 fatal casualties on the roads), including 24 passengers, 79 railway employees, 1 customs' official and 141 persons killed at level crossings, etc.

When we consider that the figure for railway employees includes also men killed, not only in connection with the actual railway traffic but also, for instance, in railway workshops; and further that the figure of 141 persons not connected with the railways includes many deaths for which not the railways but

road transport was responsible, then the comparison between rail and road deaths in North-Rhine-Westphalia is between more than 2,000 killed on the roads and, at the outside, 100 to 150 persons killed in actual railway traffic operations.

Road safety problems

What is the position on the roads? There are very few safety measures designed to prevent road accidents. According to a report issued by the Federal Statistical Office, the number of road accidents during the past year rose by 53 per cent compared with the figure for 1949. In the 182,695 traffic accidents which were reported as having occurred in the federal territory last year, 4,211 people were killed and 107,811 injured. Motor vehicles were involved in 90 per cent of all these accidents. The lorry driver who operates and drives his own vehicle is today worried about his livelihood. In an effort to make ends meet, he often drives to the point of exhaustion. That is bad both for him and for the community. However, when the operator of a road transport undertaking compels his employees to do the same, that is even worse.

It is at this point that we come face to face with the social problem. Those employed in the road haulage industry are ruthlessly exploited and overworked and, in consequence, they tend to become a permanent source of danger to their fellow citizens. The problem has become one of social urgency which should be tackled by every possible means. On the railways, wages, service and working conditions are regulated for all employees and officials. In the road transport industry, on the other hand, such regulation is entirely non-existent. The problem is still further intensified by the existence of cut-throat competition. Only when both these problems have been satisfactorily resolved can there be hope that the danger on the roads will decrease.

It may perhaps sound rather callous if one approaches the problem from the angle of cost accounting, for behind the figures of road accidents and deaths lies a wealth of human suffering. Two thousand families have been bereaved and 44 per cent injured or even crippled for life. The authorities should intervene here to a far greater extent than they have done so far. There must be no false diffidence when approaching this problem. The most important task which should be undertaken is the creation of a force of traffic police, adequate in every respect to deal with the problem and provided with the necessary authority. Up to the present time, the arrangements made in this respect have been entirely inadequate. The financing of the creation of such a force would involve a sum representing no more between 5 and 10 per cent of the amount of damage caused by accidents each year.

The future of the German transport industries

As to our inland waterway system, its importance as a branch of our entire transport complex will, in my opinion, not diminish and the waterways, which have partly been donated to us by nature and partly created by the toil and industry of our workers, will continue to perform a useful service. Similarly, the use of the motor lorry, whether for short or long distances, has come to stay. I believe further that the country bus services are of great economic and cultural service to the community since they open up the countryside to a far greater extent than can the railways, owing to the excessive costs of construction of railway track designed to reach isolated villages. The fact that rural bus services enable peasants, farm labourers and their

families to journey from otherwise isolated villages to the nearest towns in order to do their shopping and take part in urban cultural life is to be welcomed.

Finally, there is undoubtedly a hopeful and important future for the German railways within the framework of the economic system as a whole, as well as for the German people themselves, who have worked hard for generations to supply the country with a great network of railway arteries. Millions and millions of marks have been invested in this vast undertaking and it would be the height of folly to neglect anything which would keep this investment in productive use with real economic benefit to the community.

In this connection, however, it is both interesting and a little

saddening to note the statement contained in the budget forecast of the Federal Ministry of Transport, according to which the Central Control Office of the Federal Railways in its report of 27 October, 1950 estimates that at the present rate of renewal, railway track will have to serve for 322 years instead of between thirteen and fourteen years at the normal rate of renewal of 7.5 per cent.

In conclusion, it is perhaps appropriate to stress our desire for European cooperation. Which branch of national life is better suited to express the interdependence of our peoples than the transport industry? We are strongly in favour of the integration of European transport on the basis of full equality. It is an essential prerequisite for European unity.

Peron seizes control of Argentine Locomotivemen's Union

GENERAL PERÓN AND HIS WIFE have scored a final success in their campaign to make the Argentine trade union movement a completely submissive tool in their hands. The latest victim is *La Fraternidad*, the locomotivemen's union.

Except for that of the printers, *La Fraternidad* is the oldest trade union in the Argentine Republic, having been founded in June 1887. It has always been a closely-knit fighting union, with a strong sense of international solidarity. Its connection with the ITF dates back to the year 1908, and after the first world war it hastened to re-establish the relations that had been interrupted, insisting on paying arrears of affiliation fees so that its membership should be continuous. It was largely owing to its efforts that the Argentine union of other grades of railwaymen, the *Unión Ferroviaria* – which also affiliated immediately with the ITF – was established in 1922.

Now it has gone the way of the rest of the Argentine trade union movement. Actually it has been a member of Perón's General Confederation of Labour (CGT) for some time, but until now its Executive Committee has always had a majority of political opponents of Perón, and has therefore followed an independent line. This was naturally displeasing to the dictator, and probably still more so to his wife, who likes to pose as the fairy godmother of the trade union movement, but the prestige of *La Fraternidad* was very high among the Argentine workers, so Perón made the best of the fact that the organization was at least a nominal member of the CGT, and was content to bide his time.

At a recent meeting of the Federal Council of the CGT the representatives of *La Fraternidad* strongly opposed an article of the Rules of that Confederation which empowered it to intervene in the affairs of affiliated organizations, and even to take them over when it was thought necessary. Actually this article has never been officially approved. But that was not all. The same meeting called upon all organizations affiliated with the CGT to support the campaign for the election of General Perón as President of the Republic for a new term, and to appoint four speakers for the CGT political platform.

The Executive Committee of *La Fraternidad* met and by a majority decided to refuse to obey the order, pointing out that an article in its own Rules forbade it to engage in politics. Then the blow fell. On 9 May, when its Executive Committee was in session, an armed mob of Perón's supporters raided the offices

of *La Fraternidad*, forced the whole of the Executive Committee to resign, and proceeded to elect a new one, which included the five members of the old one who were supporters of General Perón, and who are actually in his pay, since they hold well-paid sinecures as trade union advisors, inspectors, etc., with the Ministry of Transport. Needless to say, the new Executive, although its election was obviously illegal, was promptly recognized by the CGT and the Department of Justice.

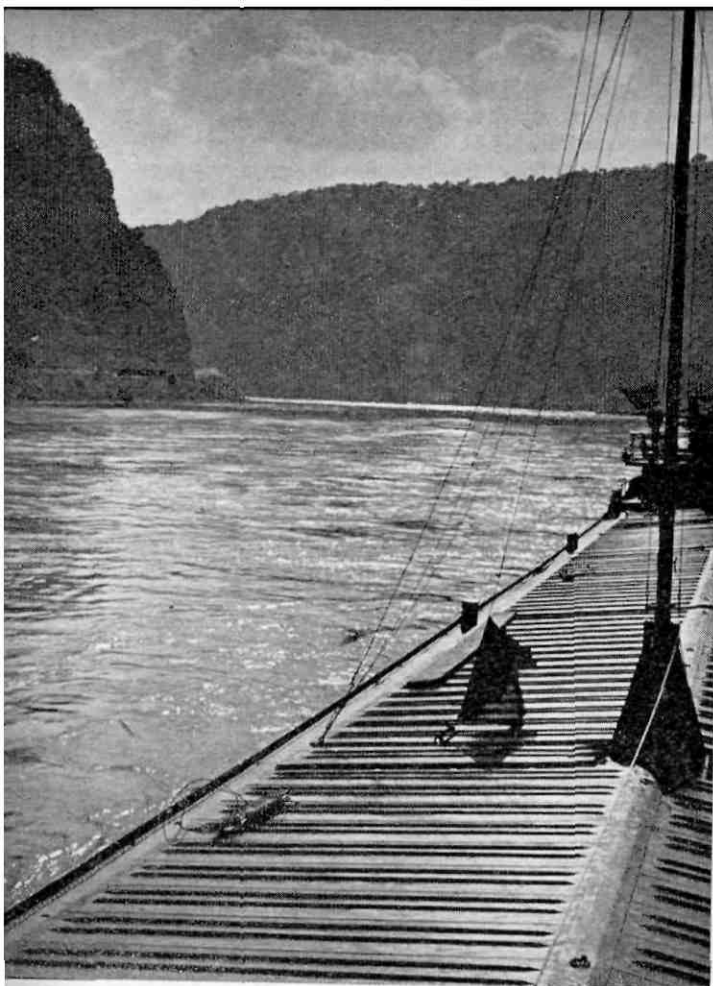
The incident gave rise to several spontaneous strikes, and a number of railwaymen were arrested and others dismissed, though the Government was later forced to cancel these measures as feeling was rising among the railwaymen.

Perón now has the whole of the machinery of the trade union movement entirely in his hands, but he is losing the support of that considerable part of the workers that was an important factor in his rise to power. The railway strikes which took place at the turn of the year in defiance of the Executive Committee of the *Unión Ferroviaria*, the Government-controlled railwaymen's union, and for participation in which over thirty railwaymen are still in prison, are proof enough of this.

The latest attack on *La Fraternidad* has exacerbated feelings, the locomotivemen are rallying to the support of their organization, and a committee has been formed to challenge in the courts the right of the bogus Executive to lead it. The CGT sees the danger and is trying to confirm its position by a simulacrum of democracy. New elections are to be held to choose a new Executive Committee for *La Fraternidad*, but as happened in the case of the *Unión Ferroviaria*, steps will be taken to see that only supporters of Perón can vote.

The international trade union movement cannot let pass unnoticed these continual violations of the right to freedom of association by the dictatorial regime in Argentina. The ITF has already raised the matter with the International Labour Office, and it is to be expected that its fact-finding commission will in due course propose to the Governing Body that a full investigation be made into the position of the trade union movement in Argentina.

We have also asked the International Confederation of Free Trade Unions for its cooperation and we understand that it has not only made strong representations to the ILO but is also asking the Economic and Social Council of the United Nations to undertake an immediate investigation into the present situation.



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The Rhine, Principal river of Western Europe

Scene of the Rhine boatmen's struggle for better working conditions

Photographs by E. SCHWAB - Switzerland

1 The interests of five countries are involved in the Rhine which rises in Switzerland, flows through rich industrial areas in Germany and France, connects with the Belgian canals and passes on to the sea through the great ports of the Netherlands

2 Robert Lieby of France, twenty-three year old helmsman aboard the *Richebourg*, is one of 45,000 Rhine boatmen

3 Principal river of Western Europe, the Rhine has a fleet of 7,700 freight and passenger boats, tugs and lighters which carry about 40,000 tons of traffic

4 Mr Lieby's daughter thinks this is fun but Rhine ships are not ideal playgrounds for youngsters

5 Differences in the social security systems in the five countries make it difficult to qualify for old-age pensions.

Willem C. Vroegop of the Netherlands has spent fifty-eight of his seventy-four years on the Rhine

6 The number of hours worked in port vary from country to country

7 This is the way Rhine housewives do their shopping

8 Men injured abroad often don't qualify under the social security regulations of any country



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Victims of their jobs

The Rhine Boatmen's struggle for social security

By Th. Smeding, President of the Dutch Transport Workers Federation

THE STRUGGLE TO WIN SOCIAL SECURITY and employment protection for Rhine boatmen regardless of the flag under which they sail has entered the final and critical stage.

For thirty years, the International Transportworkers' Federation has led the fight to secure international regulations on western Europe's principal inland waterway. Without such regulations, Rhine boatmen are being penalized because of differences in the social security systems and conditions of employment in the Netherlands, Belgium, Germany, France and Switzerland.

Trade and navigation on the Rhine have long been subject to international safeguards. But the boatmen and their families who work the river do not always enjoy such protection, except for that provided by navigation safety rules.

To break a leg, fall ill or grow old is never a welcome event. But at least most workers in these five countries can count on social security to cover expenses. A Rhine boatman on the other hand, particularly one engaged on a foreign ship, frequently finds that his eligibility for social security protection depends on whether or not his country of employment has concluded reciprocal treaties with other countries on the question. Even then, he has no assurance that he will receive the same benefits from the signatory nations as the laws of these states often provide various types and degrees of social security coverage.

Cases which are typical of the injustice to which Rhine boatmen are frequently subjected when it comes to collecting social security benefits are illustrated in the following examples. A boatman who may be so unlucky as to fall ill away from home today finds it very difficult in practice to secure free medical care under the social security system of his own or another country. And a boatman employed on a foreign ship who becomes a father is obliged to pay his wife's hospital and delivery expenses out of his own pocket.

Nor does a Rhine boatman who, during his lifetime, may sail under the flags of several countries have to be much of a mathematician to figure out his old-age pension – it is usually so small. Why? Because, under the present set-up, he is not permitted to total his periods of employment served aboard ships of various countries. It is also difficult to qualify for survivors' and invalidity pensions.

The second injustice to which Rhine boatmen are currently subject concerns conditions of employment – which vary widely from country to country. For example, the number of hours worked depends on the flag under which he sails. A boatman aboard a Netherlands dumb barge works a fifty-five hour week in port, while a man aboard a French ship works a forty-hour week. Overtime rates, when they are paid, also change from one country to another. These differences, moreover, prevail with regard to night rest, weekly rest, paid holidays, manning and wages.

In the absence of international agreement, therefore, Rhine boatmen are victims of their jobs.

The International Labour Organization has long been aware of the need to lay down international standards for those employed on international inland waterways. As early as 1920, an ILO conference recommended that countries whose territories are riparian to waterways used in common by their boats should agree to limit the hours of work of persons employed on such waterways, after consultation with the workers' and employers' organizations concerned. It is interesting to note that the recommendation to governments never got beyond the paper stage until after the Second World War.

In March 1947 a delegation from the International Transportworkers' Federation visited the ILO to discuss the plight of Rhine boatmen. The problem was then brought to the notice of the Organization's Inland Transport Committee which recommended the convening of a special conference of government, worker and employer delegates from countries with interests in Rhine navigation.

The Governing Body of the ILO called the conference in 1949 and delegations attended from the Netherlands, Belgium, France, Germany and Switzerland – the countries with a primary interest in this European spinal cord – and the United Kingdom. The United States sent an observer and the ITF, the United Nations and the Central Commission for Rhine Navigation were among the organizations which sent representatives. This conference laid the basis for the adoption of two detailed agreements at a second conference held in Paris in July 1950.

The first agreement would enable Rhine boatmen to remain fully covered by social security regardless of the flag under which they sail. A boatman who became sick or was injured abroad would enjoy the same medical attention as the nationals of the country concerned. His family would also be entitled to the same medical care as the families of the country in which they might be at the time. Periods of employment spent by boatmen in various countries would be totalled for the calculation of invalidity, old-age and survivors' pensions.

Under the second agreement, Rhine boatmen would enjoy the following minimum conditions of employment on all Rhine ships:

- 1) an eight hour day and forty-eight hour week in port;
- 2) ten hours rest at night in summer and twelve hours in winter;
- 3) paid public holidays, to include New Years' Day, Easter Sunday and Monday, Whit Sunday and Monday, Christmas Day and 26 December in addition to;
- 4) twelve paid holidays after one year's service with the same undertaking;
- 5) paid overtime;
- 6) a weekly day of rest;
- 7) special allowance to boatmen remaining on board for watch duty during holidays;

- 8) warm weather allowance for boatmen attending steam engines; and
- 9) sufficient manning to enable the fulfilment of the above conditions.

Machinery is also provided in both agreements to ensure that the terms are carried out.

The leap remains to be made from the paper to the operational plane. Neither agreement will become operative until accepted by the parliaments of the five countries. Switzerland recently ratified that on social security and it is to be hoped that – with encouragement from the trade unions – the Netherlands, Belgium, Germany and France will soon follow suit.

Ratification of the employment agreement is being held up by Switzerland which has not yet fulfilled the conditions preliminary to parliamentary action.

The final push is the most difficult and whether or not the goal will be reached will depend largely on the effectiveness with which the trade unions in various countries play their roles.

Labour will repossess New Zealand air lines

THE PRESENT NEW ZEALAND GOVERNMENT has recently taken the first step towards its declared aim of denationalizing New Zealand Airlines by accepting a tender from a privately-owned air line company to operate a cargo service between the North and South Islands, linking the two main railway systems.

The New Zealand Labour Party has issued a statement regarding this action in which it announces its intention – if re-elected at a subsequent General Election – of purchasing at cost-plus-improvement any air lines so disposed of.

Transport and the national economy

'I BELIEVE THAT THE TRANSPORT PATTERN of this State, or for that matter any State, must be woven on the background of the national economy.'

The above quotation is taken from a speech on the Report of the Commissioner for Transport, delivered recently in the Queensland (Australia) State Parliament. It is, together with the additional quotations given below, extremely instructive. The speaker demonstrates, although obviously unintentionally, how impracticable it is to attempt to ensure a sound national policy of transport co-ordination within the framework of a world economy, which is irreconcilable with any national transport set-up.

The relevant points from the speech are as follows:

'It is a simple matter to make representations to the Minister for Transport or the Commissioner for Transport for a permit to be given to people to operate a road transport service in competition with the railways, or for an air transport service, or a shipping line, but it is another matter for the Minister or the Commissioner to view that application in the light of the national economy.'

'It must be remembered that in this country we do not produce oil and that we do not produce rubber and that to a very limited extent only do we make motor-cars and other motor vehicles. Every penny spent on motor transport goes out of this country, and that fact must not be forgotten when we are considering the transport pattern of this State.'

'We know also that many wealthy monopoly companies, such

as the oil companies, the rubber companies, and the motor-car companies exist – and when looking at our transport pattern we must see that we do not impoverish this State and place it any more in pawn to the overseas rubber companies and the overseas motor-car companies than it is now.'

Jugoslavia denounces Soviet hegemony on the Danube

JUGOSLAV DELEGATES who had been attending the fourth session of the Danube Commission, held in Galatz, Rumania, walked out of the meeting on 2 June alleging that the attitude of the majority of the members of the Commission had made it impossible for them to participate further in its work. The head of the delegation, Dragoljub Djuric, announcing his delegation's decision to return to Belgrade and report back to the Yugoslav Government, stated that the Cominform majority were openly revising the Danube Convention in a way detrimental to the interests of the smaller Danubian countries and that all their decisions were aimed at strengthening the Soviet Union's domination of this international waterway.

The Yugoslav newspaper *Borba*, in a comment on the delegation's withdrawal, declares that after three years of work within the Danube Commission it has become quite clear that the policy of the USSR with respect to the Danube is identical with that pursued in the past by the Great Powers, although it had been hoped after the Danube Conference of 1948 in Belgrade that the interests of small States would be protected.

Turning to the work of the session itself, the newspaper writes that although, in order to maintain at least a pretence of international cooperation, certain Yugoslav technical amendments were adopted, the most important proposals made by the Yugoslav delegates were rejected and they were left with no alternative but to walk out of the conference.

The new regulations on Danube navigation – adopted by the Cominform majority after the Yugoslav representatives had left – contain only vague formulations which make possible direct interference in the internal affairs of the riparian States. For instance, they fail to establish precisely the competence of States with respect to the use of ports and quays situated on their respective territories, providing only for the rights of vessels and containing no stipulations regarding their obligations towards the authorities of the riparian countries.

In effect, concludes *Borba*, these regulations aim at transferring the competence of the riparian States to the Danube Commission and thus, in fact, to the Soviet Union.

High cost of road accidents in USA

ADDRESSING A CONFERENCE of motor truck owners recently in Washington, the United States under secretary of commerce for transportation revealed that the estimated annual economic cost of traffic accidents, totalling \$ 2,250,000,000 (nearly £ 750,000,000), comes to much as was spent in 1950 to improve the nation's highways and about two-thirds of all road expenditure, including maintenance.

He said that 'the 1950 death toll on our highways set in motion nearly 35,000 funeral processions; other traffic accidents left about 90,000 persons permanently crippled or impaired; less severe injuries afflicted another million people'. He added that last year's total traffic fatalities were about 11 per cent greater than those of 1949.



Fishermen at work on the Dogger Bank

Copyright The London Times

Europe's expanding fishing fleets by J. Sellæg

THE WAR RESULTED in the destruction of a large part of the fishing fleets of a number of countries. This was of course particularly the case in the countries which were involved in the war. The fishing fleets of Germany, Great Britain, France, Holland, Belgium and Norway were greatly reduced. On the other hand, some of the neutral countries were able to expand their fishing fleets considerably during the war.

After the war there was a great need for increased supplies of food, and it was natural that an attempt should also be made to develop the fishing industry as much as possible. In most countries fish and fish products fetched good prices. Plans were made for rebuilding the fishing fleets, and during the five years which have elapsed since the war a number of European countries have not only rebuilt their fleets but have increased their capacity considerably compared with pre-war days.

The Norwegian fishing fleet suffered very heavily as a result of the war, even though the damage was perhaps not so serious as feared at first. Nevertheless many of the boats particularly the bigger types, were lost, and this part of the tonnage it has not yet been possible to replace. Thus we have at present fewer vessels of over 90 feet than in the years 1939-1940

After the war a great effort was made to rebuild the fishing fleet, and it may be said that the target which was set has been reached. The total capacity of the fleet is estimated to be slightly more than it was in 1939. The composition of the fishing fleet at 15 July 1948 as set out in the table at the foot of this page.

During the past two years there has been little change in the position as shown.

steam-propelled vessels	151
covered petrol-propelled vessels	12,421
open vessels	18,570
covered sailing vessels	48
open vessels without engines	1,780
Total	32,970

It is expected, provided the stock of winter herring does not decline, that the amount of fish caught will in the coming year be slightly higher than it was in the year before the war, when it was about one million tons. The biggest increase is accounted for by herring.

Sweden's fishing fleet grew considerably during the war. At present it is being expanded by the acquisition of bigger boats which can operate in distant fishing grounds.

Denmark's fishing fleet in 1947 comprised some 68,000 tons and is expected a few years hence to reach 80,000 tons. This growth is largely due to bigger boats which can fish in distant waters. The Danish fishing industry is at present faced with difficulties partly due to the decline in fish stock in the North Sea and partly to increased competition in foreign markets.

The Faroe Islands have also increased their fishing fleet considerably. It has nearly doubled since the war and now totals about 30,000 tons compared with about 17,000 tons before the war. The Faroe Islands at present have 38 trawlers, whereas before the war the number was extremely small indeed.

Iceland's fishing fleet today comprises some 50 trawlers, most of them new modern vessels and many of them the smaller petrol-propelled type of vessel. The capacity of the fleet has increased considerably since before the war, and consequently Iceland's contribution to fish supplies is expected to show a substantial increase in the next few years.

No data are at present available regarding the size of the British fishing fleet. In 1939 it consisted of 1,472 trawlers and 662 small vessels engaged in herring fishing. In addition Britain has some 10,000 small boats engaged in offshore fishing.

The British building programme provides particularly for the building of modern large trawlers for long-range fishing and to some extent also for the renewal of the tonnage engaged in offshore and herring fishing. It is uncertain, however, to what extent the trawlers operating in the North Sea and neighbouring waters will be replaced, in view of the fact that North Sea fishing has become particularly unremunerative as a result of over-fishing.

Great Britain will no doubt also aim at increasing her fish and herring catches substantially in the coming years.

The fishing fleet of pre-war Germany in 1938 consisted of 373 trawlers, 168 luggers (boats built specially for herring fishing and salting the catch on board) and 1,198 cutters.

This fishing fleet was heavily reduced by the war, but since the war a great effort has been made in Western Germany to reconstruct it. At first she was not allowed to build trawlers exceeding 400 tons. This restriction has meanwhile been lifted. At present, according to the information available, West German shipyards are building 75 trawlers for the German Government, most of them of 550 tons.

In 1949 the German fishing fleet grew from 1,653 to 1,754 vessels. The 1949 fleet comprised 225 trawlers, 115 luggers and 1,414 cutters.

Germany's catch of fish and herring before the war amounted to 669,000 tons. The catch of Western Germany reached 280,000 tons in 1948 and 470,000 tons in 1949. This notwithstanding the loss of most of Germany's export

markets. Exports to Eastern Germany, as far as known, were negligible.

Certain circles in Germany doubtless aim to make her independent of all imports of herring and fish.

As far as herring are concerned, it is nevertheless a fact that there will always be a need for some imports, provided that the prices of the imported supplies are not too high. Consequently there are grounds for hoping that we shall be able to retain a market for our fish in Germany.

Good prospects for South African fisheries industry

THE LAST TEN YEARS have seen important changes in the structure of the South African fisheries industry. During the war, new markets were opened up and the resultant increase in the number of canning and fish-processing factories has enormously improved the material position of the country's fishermen. Most of the latter now enjoy incomes and a standard of living which could have been unthinkable prior to the war. The old-style fisherman's cottage has been replaced by new modern accommodation, existing harbour installations have been modernized and new harbours constructed, whilst training schemes for those employed in the industry have been introduced. There are today in South Africa some 5,000 persons earning their living as fishermen, with a similar number employed in the canning and fish-processing industries. In all it is estimated that approximately 50,000 persons are in some way dependent on the fisheries industry for their bread and butter.

At the present time, the South African fishing fleet consists of 2,219 vessels, made up of thirty steam trawlers, seven motor trawlers, two steam vessels used exclusively for line fishing, 750 motor boats, 238 sail and rowing boats of more than thirteen feet in length and 1,243 dinghies of less than thirteen feet.

In 1944, the South African Government took the step of setting up a Fisheries Development Corporation in order to give maximum aid to the industry. The Corporation helps both new and existing undertakings with capital and, in addition, finances and carries out research work. The Corporation's original research ship *Africana I* has recently been replaced by a more modern vessel the *Africana II* and the latter, equipped with radar, echo sounding apparatus, etc., is at present engaged on a two-year research voyage off the west coast, the main object of which is a study of the pilchard.

The possibilities inherent in the South African industry appear to be virtually unlimited. It is assumed that the pilchard shoals, found off the west coast and of such importance to the country's canning industry, form part of even larger shoals inhabiting deeper waters. It is hoped that the investigation now being carried out by the *Africana II* will substantiate this assumption. Only a small sector of the ocean and sea-bottom has as yet been the subject of such investigations, but the results already obtained show that there can be no doubt that, in the foreseeable future, South Africa will become one of the world's leading sources of high-class fish products.

The position of the seafarer in present-day Western Germany

A RECENT ISSUE OF *Hamburg in Figures*, the official publication of the Hamburg Statistical Office, contains an interesting demographic study of the position of the seafarer in the West German Federal Republic. Basing himself on figures relating to crew members returned during the official census of 13 September 1950, its author establishes the following facts regarding the manpower strength of both the merchant marine and the deep sea fishing industry.

In September, 1950, the combined labour force employed on board merchant (including both coastal and deep sea) and deep sea fishing vessels totalled 14,962 persons – of which 198 were women. Of this aggregate, 9,100 persons or 61 per cent were accounted for by the officers and crews of merchant vessels, with the remaining 5,862 or 39 per cent being employed on board deep sea fishing vessels. It should be noted that the figures quoted refer only to those actually employed in the two industries and take no account of unemployed seafarers or fishermen or those who have left the sea to take up employment ashore.

A comparison with similar statistics for the year 1938 is given in the next column.

In other words, a reduction in tonnage of 82 per cent has resulted in the labour force employed on board being cut by approximately 71 per cent, a development which is explicable by the fact that the crew density of the larger and more modern vessels which have been lost was less than that of the small ships still being operated.

It is, however, when one comes to analyze the present structure of the labour force that one realizes how far-reaching have been the consequences of tonnage losses and restrictions placed on West German shipping operations. One is struck by the fact that the percentage of the combined labour force now employed in the deep sea fishing industry has trebled in comparison with that of 1938, having risen from 13 per cent to 39 per cent. In addition, one notices the important changes which have taken place in the category structure of the labour force, changes which are evidenced by the figures in the following table:

Industry	1938	Sept. '50	% decr.
Merchant shipping	45,140	9,100	-79.8
Deep sea fishing	7,256	5,862	-19.2
Total	52,396	14,962	-71.4
Tonnage (in 1000 GRT)	4,358	774	-82.2

Prior to the war there were in the German merchant marine 261 engine room ratings to every 100 engineers and artificers. Today the figure has dropped to eighty-one. This development is largely due to the fact that the proportion of motor vessels operated has greatly increased as has also the percentage of small vessels. The increase in the number of smaller vessels used also explains the fact that the number of navigating officers proportionate to other categories is greater than in 1938. The majority of such officers are accounted for by ships' captains, whose improved relative position is shown by the fact that there are today no more than sixty-five mates to every 100 captains as compared with 374 per 100 in pre-war days. The a further increase is to be expected. The same holds true for the proportion of deck rating employed has also increased, largely as a result of the introduction of the three-watch system, and engineers and artificers, since it is likely that any expansion of German tonnage will result in an increased utilization of motor as opposed to steam vessels. So far as deep sea fishing is concerned, the relative position of the engine room personnel has not deteriorated to the same extent as in the merchant marine, whilst the proportion of deck ratings has shown a definite tendency to rise since the end of the second world war.

Category	Merchant marine		Deep sea fishing	
	Sept. 1950 - 1938		Sept. 1950 - 1938	
Navigating officers	2,300	4,342	888	1,181
Artificers & engineers (including assistants)	1,113	3,833	706	836
Other officers	83	1,625	94	162
Deck ratings	3,674	12,820	3,174	3,409
Engine room ratings	905	9,985	578	947
Galley personnel	549	4,383	420	458
Steward personnel	332	6,676	—	30
Others	144	1,476	2	233

The category 'Other officers' refers to ships' surgeons, supervisory personnel and wireless operators in the case of the merchant marine and to wireless operators only in that of deep sea fishing. The category 'Others' refers in the main to working family members.

Turning his attention to the age structure of the individual categories, the author of the study establishes that, in September, 1950, 42 per cent of all ships' captains in the merchant marine had passed their fiftieth birthday. On the other hand, the average age of the mates was considerably lower.

Nevertheless, the numerical strength of the latter is such that it will not be possible for all retiring captains to be replaced from among their ranks. Consequently it will, in future, be necessary to fall back on those navigating officers who have sought other employment ashore.

A similar position exists in so far as engineer officers are concerned. Some 29 per cent of the men in this category were over fifty years of age as at September 1950 and the existing pool of engineering assistants is not large enough for replacement purposes. In the case of the artificers again, the percentage over the age of fifty is only slightly less than in that of the engineers.

The situation in the deep sea fishing industry is, however,

considerably more hopeful. Although the percentage of skip-pers over the age of fifty is higher than in the merchant marine (51 per cent), the majority of mates fall within the age categories twenty-six to forty and there seem good prospects that gaps in the ranks of both navigating and engineer officers resulting from retirement can be filled from among the junior categories.

The conclusion drawn by the study's author from his survey of the present position is that, in view of the possibility of a still further increase in tonnage, it has become a prime task of the German maritime industry to train men in sufficient numbers for replacement purposes. Attempts will also have to be made to attract at least some of those seafarers who have found employment ashore back to the sea. The success of such attempts will depend in no small degree on the wage and working conditions current in the industry. Similar considerations apply to the problem of how to attract German seafarers at present serving on board foreign vessels back to the home industry.

The Seafarers Welfare Plan A model of American trade union achievement

By Paul Hall, Secretary-Treasurer, Seafarers' International Union, Atlantic and Gulf District; Chairman, SIU Welfare Plan Trustees

IN THE SHORT TIME that the SIU Seafarers' Welfare Plan has been in existence, from 1 July, 1950, to date, it has more than fulfilled our expectations. During negotiations with the operators, the Union's Negotiating Committee steadfastly refused to have the plan run by insurance companies. Examples provided by other plans then in existence showed that too much of the money went for administrative expenses, most of which was profit for the insurance company administering the plan. Since then, the experiences of other maritime unions, which subsequently negotiated welfare plans that were run by commercial insurance companies, have proven us to be doubly right.

The Seafarers' Welfare Plan is the only one which is self-administrative, which means that practically every cent that comes into the fund is available for benefits. Administrative costs of the Seafarers' Plan amount to less than three per cent of the monies coming in, compared with upwards of eleven per cent that is charged by insurance companies.

The Seafarers' Plan is the only one with a steadily growing reserve. As of today, the Plan has assets of \$ 816,000: \$ 506,000 in government bonds; \$ 160,000 cash on hand, and approximately \$ 150,000 owed to it. (At any given time the Plan will have money due, which cannot be paid until the ships at sea have paid off. The more ships the SIU has made agreements for, the more money it will have outstanding, payable at payoffs.)

The Seafarers' Welfare Plan is the most flexible. New or increased benefits can be added any time the trustees agree that the fund is in a strong financial condition. The recent doubling of the death benefit to \$ 1,000 is an excellent illustration of the flexibility of the Plan. At the present writing, new proposed benefits are being considered. Which ones will finally be adopted will depend on the results of the careful survey being made as to possible costs, desirability of one over the other, the future state of shipping - which will affect future income, etc. But one thing is certain. Nothing will be undertaken unless, one, it fulfills a need, and, two, the Plan can successfully carry the new load.

Another example of the flexibility of the Seafarers' Plan was demonstrated last year. A few days before Christmas, the Uni-

on's Negotiating Committee proposed that the Welfare Plan make a \$ 10 Christmas gift to the men in the hospitals. Immediately the Union and the Shipowner trustees met, discussed the matter, decided that the Plan could easily afford a holiday gesture of remembrance and voted the payment. This is a small example - though very important to the men laid up in hospitals, far from their families and their friends. However, it does prove two things: the flexibility of the Plan, which allows it to act quickly, even unorthodoxically if necessary, to provide for a seaman's well-being; and that the Plan is not a cold, commercial proposition, that both sets of trustees consider a seaman as a human being, not a statistic in an insurance company ledger.

The Seafarers' Welfare Plan is the only one that has such liberal eligibility requirements; to come under the Welfare Plan, a man need only have worked one day for a contracted company during the previous twelve months. Under the Seafarers' Welfare Plan benefits are indefinite; a man is paid as long as he is hospitalized.

In addition, the SIU Negotiating Committee succeeded in making eligible for all benefits, present and future, a group of 120 oldtimers who were so sick or so disabled that they had been unable to work for years, and who could not meet the one day a year requirement. Seamen all know that the most pitiful cases of them all are those oldtimers, who, after having given their lives to the sea are not any longer, through illness or accident, able to work and are left high and dry. The SIU was the only Union to remember these oldtimers, although all unions have them, and get for them benefits equal to those received by men who can meet the work-eligibility requirement. Four of these men, incidentally, have died since then, and the death benefits were paid to their designated beneficiaries. The insurance-for-profit plan of the insurance companies are not interested in the seaman's welfare. The Seafarers are.

We believe that the Seafarers' Welfare Plan has made history in the maritime industry. We believe, also, that as the superiority of our Plan is better known to the trade union movement it will serve as a model for other maritime organizations.

Air crew shortage affects British civil aviation

THE BRITISH JOURNAL *The Aeroplane* reports that both private operators of aircraft and the Government Corporations in Great Britain are faced with a very serious shortage of air crew personnel.

The shortage, said to be due to the increased intake of men into the expanding Royal Air Force and a large-scale wastage of men through unemployment during the five years following the war, means that operators now facing what may well be one of their most successful post-war years are being held up by a grave lack of crews. British European Airways has stated that its crews are under strength to handle summer commitments and charter companies are finding it almost impossible to engage the new crews necessary to handle their expanding business. There is even a suggestion that members of the RAF may be seconded to BEA in order to help the latter during its critical summer peak period. Some credence is lent to this by the fact that a few members of the Ministry of Civil Aviation possessing valid licences have already been loaned to the Corporation for the same purpose.

Staff shortage on South African Airways

THE BRITISH *Modern Transport* reports that there is growing uneasiness among the South African travelling public regarding the operations of South African Airways.

Questions have recently been asked in the South African Parliament about staff resignations from the airline. In reply, the Minister of Transport said that every precaution to ensure safety was still being taken. He agreed that the ground staff was now not up to strength. The establishment of ground staff should be 855 men, but the present number was only 734. He stated that so far as he knew there had been no increase in the number of emergency landings.

Replying to questions regarding recruitment, the Minister said that it was not a strict requirement that all members of the staff must be bilingual. It was true that the general policy for employment by the Government was that both Afrikaans and English were required, but if there was a shortage of staff any-body would be recruited whether he was bilingual or not.

New maritime safety equipment being tested

A NEW DEVICE for maintaining a continuous plot of approaching vessels at sea as seen on the radar screen is reported to be receiving sea trials aboard a US tanker. The equipment is intended to help navigators in avoiding collisions under low visibility conditions by enabling them to determine the course and speed of other vessels as shown on their radar screens.

It consists of an endless plotting chart on electrically-driven rollers in an aluminium case. The chart passes under a compass ring carrying an attached parallel rule and plastic half-moon disc. The speed of the rollers can be adjusted to the speed of the vessels on which it is used.

As it is small and compact, the device may be mounted adjacent to the ship's radar screen on the bridge, but it does, nevertheless, work independently of the radar. The compass ring can be rotated so that it may be set and clamped to the ship's true heading. The centre of the rotating roll of paper thus becomes the position of the vessel using it, as is also the case with the centre of a radar screen operating on board ship.

As vessels are observed, their bearings and ranges are plotted directly on the moving chart and the transparent disc carrying the necessary scale and parallel rule enables the navigator to compute quickly the vessels' course and speed. The course, speed and closest approach of any vessels observed may be readily determined after two or more positions have been plotted.

International through tariffs for coal transport urged

THE COAL COMMITTEE of the Economic Commission for Europe (ECE) has recently asked the ECE Secretariat to approach the Commission's Inland Transport Committee with the request that the latter explore the possibility of establishing international through tariffs on a tapering scale for the transport of coal in all cases where such tariffs do not already exist.

The Coal Committee is stated to have taken this step after its attention had been drawn to the close bearing of international transport charges on the cost of coal. It is pointed out that at the present time international tariffs for certain types of traffic are based on the internal tariffs of the various railway systems. Such tariffs comprise firstly a basic fixed charge to which is then added a second charge varying in accordance with the distance over which freight is carried. Since the fixed charge itself is usually in excess of the true cost involved in the crossing of a frontier, it is obvious that international transport is more and more heavily penalized as each new frontier is crossed.

The possibility of applying to all goods international tariffs, independent of internal tariffs and comprising scales tapering with distance for the throughout-haul, has been examined by the ECE Working Party on Tariffs. The latter considered that the introduction of such tariffs would constitute an effective means of developing and facilitating international trade, but that in order to reduce the risk of unbalancing the finances of the railway systems, the study should be confined, in the first place, to less than wagon-load goods traffic. At the sixth session of the Sub-Committee on Rail Transport the International Railways' Union was requested to undertake such a study.

Since the Sub-Committee on Rail Transport is not expected to be convened again until 1952, it is considered likely that the Inland Transport Committee will request the Sub-Committee's Chairman to have the question of the application of international tariffs tapering with distance to the transport of coal placed on the agenda of the next session of the Working Party on Tariffs, which will be held in November or December of this year.

Ernest Bevin memorial issue

A LIMITED NUMBER OF COPIES of the May issue of the ITF Journal, dedicated to the memory of the late Ernest Bevin, are still available at the Secretariat, as are also copies of the original photographs used to illustrate it, including the last portrait of Brother Bevin. We shall be pleased to supply those interested with copies of both the Journal and photographs whilst stocks last. Apply ITF, Maritime House, Old Town, Clapham, London, SW 4.

The Utrecht Railwaymen's Conference

By P. Tofahrn,
Assistant General Secretary of the ITF

IF EVER ANYBODY HAS DOUBTED the usefulness of – let us rather say the need for – periodic conferences of the Railwaymen's Section of the ITF, the conference held from 13 to 17 August 1951 in Utrecht should have contributed towards dispelling such doubts. Nobody dreams of unifying the living and working conditions of railwaymen throughout the world, but most railway trade unionists are alive to the need for ascertaining which principles are of universal application to railways and railwaymen and which must, sooner or later, guide the action of every railway trade union. For this work the international conferences of railwaymen are indispensable.

At Utrecht four important resolutions were submitted. The movers and supporters of three of these were told that some of the principles they advocated could not be regarded as universally valid. Who was right? At a conference you determine that by a vote. However, the matter does not end there. Life goes on and gives both the majority and the minority new opportunities for thinking things over with a deeper insight than before.

Settlement of labour disputes on railways

Divergence of views occurred in the discussion of Brother J.G. Baty's report and resolution on the settlement of labour disputes on railways, a subject that had not been on the agenda at previous conferences. In this first discussion the delegates did not come to grips with the problem. They were very inarticulate in stating the points of disagreement.

Baty stated that the causes of disputes were conflicts of interests which occur in one or more of the following three ways:

- 1) The railwaymen's claims to fair conditions of employment clash with the interests of private owners of railways; or
- 2) They clash with private or special interests which disguise themselves as the public interest; or
- 3) They cannot be met owing to the bad state of railway finance resulting from the faulty transport policies enforced by governments and parliaments.

Perhaps in some countries the situation is more complicated than that, but there is a good chance that even complicated situations can be reduced to these sources of conflict. In countries where all or a substantial proportion of the railwaymen are



The headquarters of the Dutch Union of Transport Personnel in Utrecht, scene of the International Railwaymen's Conference

civil servants, the conflict of interests may take other forms, e.g. it may involve all civil servants and the whole of budget policy instead of only railwaymen and transport policy. Is this difference in form also a difference in essence? Probably not.

With regard to the settlement of disputes, the conference agreed with the mover that fully developed negotiating machinery, empowered to deal with all questions arising between employers and employees, had to be regarded as the chief instrument. However, we all know that sometimes employers and trade unions cannot come to agreement. What then?

In a democratic State, the parties must be free to fight it out. This freedom rules out compulsory arbitration. On that point, there was agreement. However, before fighting it out, the British, the Americans – and in theory also the Indians – try public investigation. Both parties must appear before a special body and, like plaintiffs and defendants in a court of law, state and justify their claims and refusals. This procedure ends with recommendations to the parties which, as a rule, form the basis of a settlement. Brother Baty recommended the generalization of this procedure because of his conviction that a well-informed public opinion takes the side of social justice. His recommendation did not find favour with a number of delegates whose experience is that governments are wont to whip up public opinion against the railwaymen when there is the threat of a railway strike. The point was not debated and thus an opportunity of showing the outstanding merit of the public investigation proce-



On the platform at the Utrecht conference. From left to right: P. Tofahrn, Assistant General Secretary, J. B. Figgins (UK), Chairman, and H. J. Kanne, (Netherlands), Vice-Chairman

ture, namely that it enables the trade unions to refute effectively any incorrect or tendentious statement made by employers or authorities, was missed.

Participation in Management

Opinions differed too on the participation of railwaymen in the management of railways. There was a general adherence to the principle that, because decisions affecting the prosperity or future of railway undertakings affect the lives of the railwaymen and their families, the railwaymen should have a say in these matters. Moreover, as they have a knowledge of their industry which enables them to make intelligent and useful contributions to discussions preceding such decisions, it is in the public interest that they should be consulted.

Some delegates claimed advisory powers only. They argue that while it should be compulsory for managers to consult the spokesmen of the workers, a clear separation of the administrations' and the trade unions' functions and responsibilities is necessary for safeguarding the trade unions' freedom to defend the interests of the workers in all circumstances.

However, the majority was not to be satisfied with the right merely to advise the administrations; they claimed the right to co-determination. That majority included workers' representatives on the boards of administration of nationalized railways. These latter maintained that representation of the trade unions on such boards afforded additional means of defending the workers' interests but did not entail giving up the freedom to attack decisions taken by the boards. In fact, they argued, the trade union fight against bad decisions starts in the board room.

The mover of the resolution on the question of participation in management, Brother Hans Jahn, gave an account of the German workers' fight for the right of co-determination. Co-determination affects in the first place the strategic industries – and these include the railways – which were controlled by Hitler's most important supporters. Control over these industries may not be given again to oligarchic or political cliques. It is of the greatest importance for the whole of Europe that the German workers obtain in these industries a very large share of power. This illustration showed that the question cannot always be considered as a purely industrial matter. According to the political climate prevailing in a country at a given time,



UK and Japanese delegates. From left to right: E. Black, T. Holly-wood, S. Weighell, Y. Yamato (National Railway Workers' Union of Japan), H. W. Franklin (President, NUR) and R. Clarke, JP

trade unions may be satisfied with advisory powers or with a minority representation on the controlling bodies, or they must claim, as the German unions do, no less than half of the seats.

Participation in the control of the railways is not enough. Railwaymen must also have the means to influence transport policy and consequently must seek representation before or on the policy-making bodies.

Railwaymen's Pensions

Brother Devaux submitted a programme on railwaymen's retirement and survivors' pensions. Nobody found that it was too ambitious or too timid. The programme advocates compulsory retirement at sixty-five for the bulk of railwaymen, and at an earlier age for those whose job uses their forces faster than normal; in non-temperate climates also the age limit should be considerably below sixty-five. In some countries the age limit is already lower – in one country much lower – and the railwaymen of these countries were urged to resist the raising of the pensionable age. However, some delegates listened incredulously to this exhortation. In Europe and North America, men and women in all walks of life live longer now than in past generations and the retired railwaymen of our time draw their pension for many more years than those of thirty or fifty years ago. The pension burdens are correspondingly heavier and in some cases threaten to become crushing. In addition, men of fifty-five or sixty resent more and more the obligation to retire while still able to follow their calling. For many it is not only a question of continuing to earn full wages instead of receiving a pension, but, in addition, they object to being deprived of what constitutes their principal interest in life.

Which is the correct system of financing pension schemes? Devaux showed that the method of relating the amount of the pensions to the capital accumulated in pension funds on behalf of an individual worker has a severe draw-back, namely the loss of purchasing power of money. Even when currencies remain technically stable, Devaux maintained, the loss in the life time of a generation is considerable. When currencies undergo devaluations, the loss can be, and often is, catastrophic. Therefore, Devaux thinks that the only sound method is to relate the pensions of the pensioners today to the contributions paid by or on behalf of the active railwaymen of today. The principle of soli-



A section of the conference at work, showing speeches being interpreted into German (ITF interpreter standing on extreme right)

clarity demands that those who work pay the pensions of those who are no longer able to work. The pensions must be fixed in relation to the wages and salaries earned by the active railwaymen of today and not to the wages and salaries earned by the pensioners in the past.

The Utrecht delegates were not all prepared to follow that road. They pointed to the fact that a combination of the 'capitalization' and the 'distribution' method was in operation in some countries and yielded satisfactory results – at least at present. The conference therefore abstained from making a recommendation on the point.

Coordination of Transport

Coordination of transport was once more on the agenda. It will still often be so because there is no likelihood that uneconomic competition between rail and road will cease in most countries in the near future. This competition leads to an oversupply of transport equipment, entailing the haulage of empty railway and empty road vehicles. The money wasted on needless haulage of empty vehicles is not available for the improvement of the conditions of employment of railwaymen and other transport workers. As long as the fight against this waste must be carried on we will discuss coordination.

Brother Bodeau had submitted a report and a resolution dealing especially with the closing of unremunerative branch lines. On this matter he had expressed ideas with which all railway trade unions agree, namely, when the economic case of a line is hopeless, give it up and don't waste money. However, look after the railway's and the railwaymen's interests. When a road service must be substituted for a railway service, let the railway be responsible for the road service unless you have a public body comparable to the British Transport Commission. Further, see to it that the railwaymen remain in the service of the railway undertaking and retain the rights acquired whilst in railway employment.

The debate on the question showed the problem of coordination is not becoming simpler. The railways cannot apply a rates policy that would enable them to take full advantage of their technical superiority there where it exists. If the railways were to charge the same amount for carrying a ton of coal as for carrying a ton of silk, the railways would often 'beat' the road

carriers but the disturbance in economic life would be such as to compel governments to step in and stay the railways' hand. Many more aspects peculiar to the transport policy of the different countries were quoted: fiscal charges, obligation to carry goods and passengers at reduced rates for national, social and cultural purposes, etc. To give the railways what belongs to the railways and the road what belongs to the road is a question that must be settled by proper organizations of transport. On the European Continent organization of transport is a problem that is becoming less and less soluble within the boundaries of each country. Certain transport undertakings must choose as their field of activity not one country but an area comprising several countries or parts of several countries; the number of such undertakings is growing fast and they endeavour to reach farther and farther afield. The European national States are becoming too small for modern transport.

Towards a European Transport Authority

That fact will probably contribute more and more towards the setting-up of a European Transport Authority than all appeals for European unity, our own included.

The Utrecht Conference had before it a brief report showing the progress the idea has made since the Railwaymen's Conference adopted its Innsbruck resolution on the European Transport Authority. The most notable event in these two years was that the ITF resolution had induced the Strasbourg Assembly to instruct a committee to draft a constitution for a European Transport Authority. Several delegates criticized the fact that such work was being undertaken without representation of the ITF, and fears were expressed that certain interests would come to more or less private agreements which the trade union movement would have to combat. A highly interesting contribution was made by the Director of the Transport Division of the Economic Commission for Europe, Mr P. Charguéraud-Hartmann, an observer to the Conference. He showed that all the work done by the Inland Transport Committee of the ECE was relevant and preparatory to the organization of European transport. He maintained that that Committee could and probably would perform much of the work pertaining to a European Transport Authority as envisaged by the ITF. Mr Charguéraud-Hartmann pointed out two important factors:

the Eastern European countries are represented on the Inland Transport Committee of the ECE; the ITF has the right to representation on the Committee and is making use of it.

The Conference gave full credit to the work of the ECE and acknowledged the fact that the ITF has a right to representation there. However, the Conference had also to take note of the fact that in another official Assembly the question is being discussed without the participation of ITF representatives.

The discussion showed that since the 1949 conference the scope of the problem has widened on account of the plans for working agreements between the ports of North-West Europe, plans which have caused apprehensions on Southern Europe.

Transport of Arms

It can hardly be said that any delegate was pleased to have to discuss a question with so intense a political flavour.

The ITF Congress of 1950 had adopted a resolution on the transport of arms and it was held necessary to consider whether the application of the resolution had shown any need to take further measures. In the opinion of the conference there was no need for special arrangements except representation of the railwaymen on the Central Vigilance Committee whose task is to counteract any attempts to impede the transport of arms supplied to Western Europe under the Atlantic Treaty by plotting labour unrest in transport undertakings. The conference repeated the appeal to continue carrying and handling arms the purpose of which is to prevent or repel an attack against the free peoples.

Conclusion

We also discussed other matters: hours of work on Greek railways and on the railways of Asia and Africa. We devoted the best part of a morning session to discussing an appeal for support by the All-India Railwaymen's Federation and decided

to send a message to the Prime Minister of India, Mr J. Nehru, asking him to help our Indian fellow railwaymen to obtain justice from their employer. That question is not yet settled and will be talked and written about on another occasion.

The Utrecht Conference may come to rank as one of the important events in the life of the ITF, but not on account of far-reaching decisions on matters of immediate importance. The work done there should contribute to improving and intensifying the work done by the affiliated unions at home because it has enlarged the body of knowledge on important questions. The conference was an encouraging experiment in internationalism. The atmosphere of comradeship was such as can only exist in a gathering of people united by a common purpose. A large measure of credit for this must go to the hosts: the Dutch Union of Railwaymen and Tramwaymen – which has given up this homely and historic name for that of 'Dutch Union of Transport Personnel'. The organization of the conference inside and outside the Union's spacious building was perfect. The hospitality arrangements bore witness to the generosity and cordiality of our Dutch fellow trade unionists and made the delegates happy by being informal and instructive.

The Mayor of Utrecht and the General Manager of the Netherlands Railway Company received the delegates and treated them to eloquent speeches and refreshments. When the Utrecht delegates have forgotten the names of the Mayor and the General Manager, they will still remember that they were received in a bell-tower which is a beautiful example of Dutch craftsmanship of the late Middle Ages, and in an imposing modern building which bore witness to the daring and skill of contemporary Dutch architects and builders. They will remember Utrecht as a characteristically beautiful town where old and new are mingled with very good taste, and the Utrecht conference as a happy week of work and comradeship.

East Germany hurrying to complete new transport links

THE EUROPEAN EDITION of the *New York Herald Tribune* reports that some ten thousand workers in the Eastern Zone of Germany are working day and night to complete two new strategic traffic lines which will make the East German transport system independent of West Berlin.

The two projects now under construction are said to be a railway loop around Berlin and a new canal linking the River Oder with the coast. Once these are completed, the East German transport authorities will no longer have to send railway and barge traffic from one part of the Eastern Zone to another by way of railway lines and waterways running through the Western sectors of Berlin. The railway link is scheduled to be finished by January next, whilst the completion of the canal has been set for next May.

The East German news service ADN, in a recent statement, has said that '2,500 persons are working day and night' on the digging of a canal – thirty-four kilometres in length – between the town of Paretz and Niederneuendorf (west of Berlin). The work was described as 'the greatest construction project of the German canal system since 1945'.

The Director General of Shipping in the Eastern Zone has also termed the construction of the canal as 'the biggest task of

all' undertaken by the Communist inland waterway authorities. He said that it was hoped to complete it 'in the incredibly short time of one year'. All other tasks would have to be subordinated to this undertaking.

The *New York Herald Tribune* points out that the new canal will link two already existing canal systems and will allow the East German authorities to route their barge traffic from the Elbe to the Oder and back again unhindered by Western observation and control.

It would also allow them to block off the Western sector waterways, and thus stop barge traffic from West Germany to West Berlin, without making any difficulties for their own transport system.

The strategic railway loop will serve much the same purpose as the new canal. It will make it possible to route the entire East German and Soviet rail traffic around Berlin and to cut off the railway lines leading into the Western sectors without jeopardizing East German transport.

The Soviet Zone newspaper *Der Morgen* says that 'more than 7,000 skilled workers' are employed on the new rail scheme, which will include the construction of at least seventeen new railway bridges.

Berlin's railwaymen fight for freedom

This heroic struggle continues unabated

THE GREATER BERLIN BRANCH of the German Railwaymen's Union (an ITF affiliate) occupies a special and difficult position among the fifteen trade unions now affiliated with the Berlin District of the German Trade Union Federation.

Although Berlin is under the joint occupation of all four of the Great Powers – France, the United Kingdom, the United States and the USSR – the railways of the city have, ever since the Nazi collapse in 1945, been under the sole jurisdiction of the Soviet occupation authorities. This situation has had most unpleasant consequences for the railwaymen of Western Berlin who, although living in the Western sectors and therefore bound by the constitutional legislation of those sectors, are nevertheless subject to Soviet labour law and social insurance arrangements.

The fact that only part of their earnings is paid in West German currency puts them at strong financial disadvantages whilst, on the other hand, they are increasingly the object of a campaign of terror carried on against them by the Soviet-dominated Railway Administration and its stooges, including the Railway Industrial Group of the so-called Free German Trade Union Federation (FDGB) in the Eastern Zone of Germany.

This latter organization claims for itself a trade union monopoly among the railwaymen of Greater Berlin, despite the fact that the German Railwaymen's Union represents the vast majority of those railway workers living and working in the Western sectors. In this claim it is, of course, supported by the Communist Railway Administration which considers the Railwaymen's Union of Berlin as a 'criminal' organization and loses no opportunity of victimizing and discriminating against its members. Under these conditions genuine trade union work, i.e. on the basis of real co-operation between the Railway Administration and the German Railwaymen's Union, has been rendered completely impossible.

It should not be thought, however, that the latter has shown any intention of knuckling under to the Communist authorities and their underlings of the East German pseudo-trade union movement. On the contrary, its fight for recognition as the only trade union organization genuinely representing the railwaymen of Western Berlin has been vigorously prosecuted in the face of what might seem to outsiders overwhelming difficulties. Attempts by the Communist railwaymen's trade union to absorb or smash it have been strongly resisted and spurious appeals for 'unity' (under Communist leadership, naturally) have been consistently and scornfully rejected.

The organization's resistance to the Communist machine has inevitably meant that many of its members have fallen victim to the Soviet terror campaign. But, despite all efforts to intimidate them by gangster methods, the democratic railwaymen of Berlin are determined to fight on until they have won the right to genuine and unhampered freedom of association.

In so doing they are strong in the knowledge that they may depend not only on the solidarity of their colleagues in the West German Federal Republic and all other countries of the free world, but also on the sympathy of liberty-loving railwaymen in the Eastern Zone of Germany.

The ITF salutes the struggle of a small but infinitely coura-

geous band of men who, by their consistent opposition to totalitarianism, have kept the torch of freedom blazing in an area in which, but for them, it might by now have long since been extinguished.

German transport unions propose Federal Transport Council

ON 24 APRIL, discussions on current German transport problems were held between the Federal Minister of Transport and the leaders of two ITF-affiliated transport workers' unions. During the course of this meeting, the union leaders – Hans Jahn, President of the German Railwaymen's Union and Adolph Kummernuss, President of the Union of Public Service and Transport Workers – handed to the Minister joint proposals for the creation of a Federal Transport Council. In effect, these union proposals aim at a nation-wide coordination.

In their brief, the two unions have defined the tasks of the proposed Council as follows:

- 1) to advise the Federal Minister of Transport, the Federal Government, the Federal Parliament and the Federal Council on all questions relating to transport economics and legislation. This applies primarily to the ending of the present irreligion between operational efficiency and politico-economic tasks; rationalization of the transport industry; and the construction of roads, highways and transport installations;
- 2) to adopt an independent attitude towards all draft legislation, legal decrees and other measures affecting the field of transport and to submit relevant proposals;
- 3) to further social development in the transport field;
- 4) to set up committees of experts which shall be entrusted with the task of undertaking inquiries and investigations into transport problems. In this connection, special attention should be paid to investigation of healthy and harmful competition in the transport industry, the problem of prime costs, coordination and tariff questions;
- 5) to recommend the creation of autonomous administrative organs for the rail, road transport, inland waterway and deep-sea shipping industries which would aim at an effective coordination;
- 6) to cooperate in a European coordination.

CSU no longer recognized

The Canadian Labour Relations Board has recently driven the final nail into the coffin of the Communist-dominated Canadian Seamen's Union (CSU) which, it will be recalled, was expelled from the ITF for its part in the Communist-organized maritime strikes which took place from April to July 1949 (see *Death of a Union* in our January-issue).

The Board has announced that the union, once strong on both the Great Lakes and the Canadian East Coast, has been stripped of its bargaining rights in two tanker concerns – Texaco and Shell. These latter were the last of the big companies in which the CSU had been recognized.

Decasualization of dock labour (1)

THERE IS STILL A CERTAIN AMOUNT of prejudice, especially in employers' circles, against the decasualization schemes which have become a feature of the dock industry of some countries, and there are also a number of other factors, temporary or local, which sometimes hamper the smooth working of such schemes. But the dockers, as an occupational group, are satisfied that decasualization is sound and beneficial, not only to the workers, but also to the industry and the community as a whole, and that practical experience will amply vindicate their judgment.

The Dockers' Section of the ITF has latterly once more taken up the question in order to get an international view of what is happening in this field. As the inquiry proceeds we shall no doubt have some pronouncements to make on the value of labour decasualization and some suggestions as to what might be done to bring such schemes within some form of international regulation, with a view to preventing, in this field as in others, inequality of standards acting as a brake on social progress.

The first initiative of the ITF in this direction dates back to 1945, just after the last war, when it sponsored a proposal on the subject of dock labour decasualization at the first session of the newly constituted Inland Transport Committee of the ILO. As a result of that first initiative the Inland Transport Committee, when it held its third session in Brussels in May 1949, formulated a number of principles for recommendation to Governments. Since then the ILO has been watching to what extent the recommended principles have been accepted in the different countries. The results of its observations are presented in a survey made by Mr A. A. P. Dawson and published under the title *The Stabilization of Dockworkers' Earnings*, in the March and April 1951 numbers of the ILO's *International Labour Review*. Showing as they do that nationally the Brussels principles have already found a considerable measure of acceptance, they provide an interesting background to the idea of placing decasualization schemes on the basis of international regulation, and we are therefore reproducing the ILO article in full in the present and subsequent numbers of this Journal.

The evils of employment on a casual basis are now widely recognized by Governments, employers and workers. Few wage-earners can be assured of deriving an adequate annual income by offering their services on call. With regard to dockworkers,¹ who form the largest group of workers subjected to casual employment in the past, the tripartite ILO Inland Transport Committee is 'convinced of the need for providing greater regularity of employment for dockworkers', and believes that

The Docker, statue by Constantin Meunier (1831-1905)



'registers of regular dockworkers should be established in the ports' and that 'consideration should be given to the need for providing where practicable a minimum guaranteed income for registered regular dockers who are available for work'.²

Types of stabilization schemes

Definite attempts have made for more than fifty years to regularize the employment of dockworkers, and a number of schemes of varying comprehensiveness and success have been put into operation at different times. The measures of decasualization employed include various kinds of action having a stabilizing effect on the income of each dockworker, even though it may not be the primary purpose of every one of these kinds of action to stabilize incomes. They include attendance money, equalization of earnings, guaranteed minimum income, weekly contracts and supplementary employment; and are described in the following paragraphs.

Attendance money

In return for making themselves available at regular intervals, at specified times and in certain places, and for being prepared to undertake any work to which they may be assigned, dockworkers covered by such schemes are paid attendance money in respect of those calls³ at which they are unable to obtain employment. The amount so payable is proportionate to the number of attendances by each worker within a period, and is at the rate of a specified, fixed sum for each attendance proved. Failure to attend certain of the regular calls when work assignments are made, unless due to such excusable or inevitable factors as sickness, involves not only forfeiture of an equivalent proportion of the attendance money for the period, but may also involve temporary or permanent suspension of rights under the scheme, especially if the failure to attend is frequent. Attendance money payments are thus based on the principle that the worker undergoes a sacrifice and contributes a service in making himself available for employment at regular intervals, waiting perhaps a matter of hours for assignments that may not come; and is entitled to compensation from the industry which benefits thereby. Attendance money schemes in operation in Australia, Belgium, Curacao, France, New Zealand and the United Kingdom, are described in detail later in this part and in the second part which is to follow.

Unemployment benefits, if they are payable to dockworkers as from the first day of involuntary unemployment and not only after the first week without work, differ from attendance money in that they are financed in part from sources outside the dock industry, while the payment of attendance money is financed by the industry itself.

Equalization of earnings

In so far as dock work has become specialized and skilled, demand for dockworkers will switch from one type of skill to another as the different types of cargo come in day by day, and demand for the more experienced workers will naturally tend to be heavier. Thus, a certain degree of inequality in the amount of employment which each dockworker can obtain, especially in terms of short-period averages, is inevitable. The experienced worker earns more than the inexperienced, and the higher levels of employment and earnings offered in return for certain types of skill encourage the worker to acquire one of these types or even more than one.

There are, however, factors which contribute to inequality in



the distribution of employment and which are not inevitable. These factors include lack of coordination in hiring and in the flow of shipping, uncontrolled access to dock employment and haphazard recruiting. Their character, and their remedies, are outlined below.

Decentralized, uncoordinated hiring

In each dock there may be many places at which workers are hired every day, each administered independently with no connection or exchange of information between them, and too distant from one another to enable workers to seek employment at more than one in good time. There is nothing to prevent a surplus of labour vainly seeking employment at one hiring point while at another place of recruitment too few workers present themselves, and may be called upon to work exhaustingly. This is quite simply remedied by reducing the number of places at which all recruitment for the docks is handled, and arranging for intercommunication between them in order that surplus workers at one point may be transferred to points at which labour supply is deficient. This process can be, and has been, carried further by maintaining intercommunication between ports as well as between the hiring points in each, and arranging for the transfer of dockworkers between them when necessary.

Uncoordinated shipping

The capacity of some ports is more fully used than that of others, and the total capacity of a country's ports may exceed the volume of shipping which they handle. Thus, there arises a need to coordinate the demand for dock labour as well as the supply of it. Given a sufficiently comprehensive and adequately authorized national administration, shipping may be redirected in certain cases, or encouraged to reduce the pressure on busy ports by making greater use of the ports with idle capacity. Where total port facilities are more than adequate, shipping may be concentrated in the most modern, best situated and vital ports as a matter of long-term policy, with adequate provision for the retraining and re-employment of labour⁴ and other resources in the other ports.

Uncontrolled access to dock employment

The employment opportunities of those making their regular living by dock work may be seriously threatened by inflows of itinerant labour, or by persons seeking dock work either as a stopgap between jobs elsewhere or as an occasional supplement to regular employment in other occupations. This may be remedied by placing restrictions on access to employment in the docks.

Those classified as regular dockworkers according to some formula become identifiable as being entitled to seek employment in the docks by means of a system of registration or identity documents, other workers being given temporary access to dock employment only at such times and for so long as requirements exceed the supply of regular dockworkers. It is clear that this remedy can only succeed in having a stabilizing effect on dockworkers' earnings if the number of men regularly to seek work in the docks does not exceed or fall short of the average level of demand for dock labour by a substantial margin. Otherwise, such schemes lose most of their utility.

For instance, under many of the registration schemes in operation today, the dockworkers are classified, not into one group, but into several, the available work being distributed in

such a way that all or most of the workers in any one of these groups are hired before the workers in any of the other groups lower in the scale of priority are offered employment.

In most cases, it is only possible to safeguard the security of livelihood of that group of dockworkers with first claim to available employment, since labour requirements will drop from time to time to a level not much in excess of the number in this group, and the earnings of workers in the other groups will fall sharply. Thus, unless measures are continuously applied to ensure that workers in these other groups are in fact 'occasional', 'temporary' or 'emergency' workers, as they are generally called, there is a great danger that only a certain portion of the regular dockworkers looking to the ports for their sole source of livelihood will enjoy stable earnings, while the remainder of them, finding themselves registered in groups with only a secondary claim to available employment, will enjoy even less stability of earnings than would the average regular dockworkers in the absence of any registration scheme at all.

On the other hand, if registration restrictions are drawn too tight, a shortage of labour will result, to the detriment both of trade and, in the long run, of the economic security of the dockworkers. Hence, control of the registers is a delicate and important matter.

Most of the important maritime nations have introduced systems, and illustrations of some of the methods employed are provided in the descriptions given in the second part of the article.

Haphazard recruiting

Even in the absence of any policy of decasualization, there is likely to be some element of preference, prejudice or favouritism in the selection of workers awaiting calls each day, which has a stabilizing effect on the earnings of those most frequently hired as a result of their reputation for skill, industry and reliability or by virtue of more arbitrary considerations. However, because arbitrary considerations can play an undesirably large rôle, hiring by rotation is more satisfactory. Rotatory hiring involves the keeping of such records as are necessary to enable those responsible for hiring to grant priority of employment to each dockworker, or each dockworker able to perform the task at hand, in direct proportion to the length of time since he was last employed. Under another method, which is not quite rotatory and which requires more detailed records, each worker is granted priority of employment in inverse proportion to his total earnings (minus certain deductions for which provision may be made) over a specified period in the immediate past.

Experience with both of these types of work rotation has been gained in Sweden, where methods for the stabilization of the dockworkers' earnings vary considerably from port to port. As soon as each registered worker completes a particular assignment, his name is added to the list and he is, figuratively speaking, at the back of the queue. As new jobs are assigned to workers at the top of the list and other workers join the queue at the bottom of the list, his name moves towards the top. If he knows how many workers are likely to be required at the next few calls, he need not attend those calls if there are sufficient workers in front of him on the list to meet expected demand. However, if he is not in attendance at a call at which his name reaches the top of the list, it will be put to the bottom of the list again. Persistent failure to make himself available for work would involve the risk of removal from the register.



On page 119 and above: typical Swedish dockers at work

The 'statistical' method, by which work is shared according to earnings, is applied in Sweden both on an individual basis and, in some northern ports, on a gang basis. That is to say, where the workers are hired in gangs, the gang to be re-employed first would be that whose total earnings for the group were least during the immediately preceding period. Dockers failing to attend calls when it is their turn to be allocated to new employment may be penalized by the addition of a fictional sum, or 'blind payment', to the record of their previous earnings, thereby retarding their chances of re-employment. One serious drawback of the statistical method is its adverse effect on productivity, since those workers with the highest earnings on a piece-rate basis are penalized by the relative diminution of their right to re-employment.⁵

In the United States port of San Francisco, work is rotated not only by the 'queue' method, but also by sharing out new work in inverse proportion to the number of hours already worked in the preceding period by those seeking a new job⁶.

Guaranteed Minimum Income

In New Zealand and the United Kingdom, as is described below, dockworkers are guaranteed a minimum wage, their earnings being kept up to a stipulated minimum level by such additions as may be necessary at the end of each wage period. This is not the same in effect as attendance money, attendance money being paid irrespective of other earnings during the wage period, while the guaranteed minimum wage is payable only in so far as it exceeds the total earnings from dock work, including attendance money, during the wage period. Nor does

the payment of a guaranteed minimum wage destroy the case for attendance money. If hourly wage rates are relatively high, or the guaranteed minimum wage is low, a dockworker may succeed in earning during the first two or three days of the week a sum equal to the guaranteed minimum for the whole week. His chances of employment for the remainder of the week may appear to him to be uncertain, so that an inducement has to be provided to ensure that he will continue to report for work. Attendance money constitutes such an inducement and is in effect a payment for the service of attendance.

Weekly Contracts

From the dockworkers' point of view, there is no difference in economic security between a guaranteed minimum wage – whether guaranteed to him by the State, by the employers in association or by any other form of over-all dock administration – and a regular wage received under a weekly contract binding him to one employer and entitling him to at least one week's notice of termination of employment. In either case, there is an equally stabilizing effect upon his earnings, and he enjoys the same degree of economic security as wage-earners having similar conditions in other industries. But from an administrative point of view, there are important differences between employment under permanent contract and the guarantee of a minimum wage. A guaranteed minimum wage scheme requires the establishment of special machinery and involves either close co-operation between employers, or Government intervention, or both. The cost of such a scheme has to be met and shared. If a certain proportion of dockworkers are regularly employed by

individual employers, the problems of decasualization are reduced, not only because fewer workers remain to be decasualized but also because the tendency for workers to enter the dock labour pool in excess of all labour requirements in the docks is reduced. For instance, if there are 4,000 dock workers in a given port, all casually employed and obtaining an average of six hours' work a day, the engagement of half of them (2,000) under weekly contracts giving them an eight-hour day would leave an average of only four hours' work a day for the other 2,000, some of whom will then be encouraged to seek other employment and should be assisted in doing so. Reduction in the size of the dock labour pool is the inevitable concomitant of decasualization schemes in practically all ports, and for this reason such schemes are best introduced in a period of full employment. If no provision is made for facilitating the transfer of surplus dockworkers to other occupations as an accompaniment of any measures taken to regularize dock employment, those measures will fail to contribute to the welfare of the working people.

A considerable degree of regularity of employment has been achieved at Haifa, where a majority of the port workers are employed on a non-casual basis. There are about 2,500 workers in this Israeli port. Of these, 600 have regular employment as Government workers, customs officials, clerks, and labourers doing building and road repair work for the Port Authority, and are organized in a Union of Government Employees. The other 1,900 belong to the Haifa Port Workers' Union, which has signed a contract with the employers, endorsed by the Port Authority and valid until the end of 1951, ensuring regular employment for as many as 1,400 of its total membership. Under this contract, the latter are guaranteed twenty-five to twenty-six days of employment a month, except in case of earthquake, blockade, or strikes in other ports reducing the volume of traffic at Haifa. Now workers may be hired on a permanent or temporary basis as the need arises. Workers are dismissed only after consultation with the Union, with rights of seniority upheld. Wage rates are set according to the national cost-of-living index, and there is a graduated group bonus for work performed above a certain norm per day agreed upon by a Work Production Committee, which is composed of representatives of the employers and the workers.⁷

In Poland, dockworkers were employed very irregularly for periods of short duration up to 1939. At the present time, however, their economic security is in practice assured by the existence of one large organization known as *Portorob* (Workers' Stevedoring Enterprise) which undertakes nearly all of the handling of cargo and employs most of the dockworkers on a regular basis. The Central Marketing Office of the Coal Industry, *Paged* (the Polish Wood Agency) and the Hartwig international despatching agency, are the only other employers of dockworkers. The workers are engaged by *Portorob* through the employment office, and are offered permanent contracts assuring them of continuous employment. This is achieved by assigning them to other work in the ports or in the immediate locality when ordinary dock work is slack, and by undertaking to supply the three other employers mentioned with some of the dockworkers they need from time to time.⁸

Supplementary employment

Finally, the total earnings of dockworkers are made more stable – in the absence of attendance money or guaranteed wage schemes covering all of the workers – if they can obtain supplementary

employment in other occupations on those days when they are unable to obtain work in the docks. Publicity and information can be provided giving guidance to dockworkers as to the kinds of supplementary employment which they would be able to do and which are available in their locality, and projects may be actually initiated to provide such supplementary employment, as measures of relief in the event of a trade recession, damage to equipment and facilities, or any other factor causing prolonged unemployment.

During the war, the volume of unemployment became very serious in Swedish ports as a result of the impediments to trade arising from the hostilities, and dockworkers were encouraged to turn for support to such supplementary employments as fishing, forestry work, the manufacture of skiing gaiters, shoes, utensils and tools, toys, souvenirs and furniture, housebuilding, and blacksmith's work. Moreover, arrangements now exist between port employers and employers in adjacent workplaces whereby the 'occasional dockworkers', who are in a category having only a secondary claim to dock employment, may be readily transferred between dock work and their work for these outside employers.⁹

Attendance money, guaranteed minimum wage and registration

Practices which have a stabilizing effect upon, or are intended to stabilize, the earnings of dockworkers have been classified in the foregoing discussion under the five headings of attendance money, equalization of earnings, guaranteed minimum income, weekly contracts and supplementary employment. An adequate description of the various forms in which these practices appear in the different parts of the world cannot be given within the limits of a brief survey. The remainder of the present discussion is therefore limited to a detailed consideration of the three types of stabilization measures which appear to be most effective: attendance money, the guaranteed minimum wage and registration. In so far as dockworkers continue to be hired on a day-to-day basis, the only manner in which their earnings can really be adequately stabilized is by providing in one way or another for the payment of attendance money, for the guarantee of a minimum wage and for such measures, including the registration of both workers and employers, as will ensure that the demand for and supply of dock labour is equated at a level just sufficient to handle the volume of traffic in the ports at all times. Measures providing for attendance money and a guaranteed wage are much more effective than any system for the equalization of earnings can be by itself. Supplementary employment is an inadequate and unreliable support not available at all ports. Weekly contracts, while they simplify the problem and should be encouraged and extended as far as possible, cannot completely replace the need for attendance money and a guaranteed wage unless the vast majority of the dockworkers are taken into the permanent employ of some body strong enough to bear the burden of an inelastic payroll in the face of widely fluctuating receipts as the volume of port traffic varies. Under these conditions the economic security of the workers would be as great as under a scheme of attendance money and a guaranteed wage, but the level of efficiency – of output in relation to cost – would probably not be as high. The necessity to harmonize the two objectives of economic security for all dockworkers and economic efficiency in the performance of all dock work cannot be overemphasized. Not only are the broader interests of the whole community in general and of the consumer in particular involved, but also the welfare of the dockworkers themselves in

the long run, since their livelihood depends indirectly on the relationship between dock labour cost and the volume of trade.

In considering the details of attendance money and guaranteed wage schemes it is convenient to treat each country separately, in order to gain a complete and integrated picture of the administrative machinery established in the docks of each.

(to be continued)

1. Attention is drawn in these articles to all schemes which stabilize the incomes of those who are employed on a casual basis in docks and ports. The schemes in operation today have a coverage which varies from country to country and do not always provide for all those included within the term 'dockworker', 'stevedore', 'longshoremen', or whatever other name is given in each country to those who assist in the 'turn around' of ships and the handling of their cargo in ports. Thus, the term 'dockworker', as used throughout both articles, refers to those portworkers for whom provision is made by the different stabilization schemes under discussion.

2. In a resolution concerning regularization of employment of dockworkers, adopted unanimously at the Third Session (Brussels, May 1949).

3. A 'call' (or 'turn') is an occasion on which hiring of dockworkers or their assignment to jobs takes place, and recurs regularly, once or twice each working day.

4. In so far as there is no need for such labour in the ports to be retained.

5. Handelsdepartementet: *Stuververksamheten i Svenska Hamnar* (SOU 1947:28, Stockholm, 1947).

6. International Labour Organization, Inland Transport Committee, Third Session, Brussels, 1949, Report II: *Decasualization of Dock Labour* (ILO Geneva, 1949), p. 19.

7. Louise Hoffmann: *Haifa's Port Workers*, in *WORK* (Chicago), May 1950.

8. *Przegląd Związkowy* (Warsaw), No 1 January 1950, p.39.

9. *Stuververksamheten i Svenska Hamnar*, op. cit.

Jugoslavian rules for Danube navigation

THE JUGOSLAV FOREIGN MINISTRY has now sent a Note to the Danube Commission informing it that the Yugoslav Government will draw up its own rules for navigation on the Danube which, while keeping to the Danube Convention, will include all those provisions rejected by the Soviet satellite majority at the Fourth (Galatz) session of the Danube Commission and exclude provisions adopted there which run counter to the spirit and letter of the Danube Convention.

It will be recalled that the Yugoslav delegation to the Danube Commission's Galatz session walked out after the Cominform

majority had refused to accept Yugoslav amendments to the Soviet draft of the basic rules of navigation on the Danube. The delegation accused the Cominform countries of attempting to establish a Soviet hegemony on the international river.

The Foreign Ministry Note points out that the Yugoslav delegates at Galatz had exerted every effort towards the adoption of basic rules which would meet the real needs of safe and free navigation and ensure the rights and legitimate interests of all Danubian countries. To this end, it had submitted a number of amendments to a draft which, in addition to being incomplete and imprecise, contained provisions which favoured one country – the USSR – to the detriment of all other riparian states.

Giving additional reasons why the Yugoslav Government could not accept the rules which had been adopted, the Note affirms that these did not even clearly confirm the competence of each riparian country to adopt provisions on the employment and control of its ports and banks, or define the obligations of vessels towards the competent authorities.

Furthermore, the rules granted absolute priority of passage to vessels navigating the main stream over vessels entering the Danube from its tributaries. This constituted direct discrimination against Yugoslavia, since there are several tributaries within her territory which are constantly used by Yugoslav vessels.

Nor did the rules adopted contain provisions confirming the sovereign right of the authorities of the riparian countries to investigate, in accordance with the spirit of the Danube Convention, the causes of damage, collision and other losses caused by foreign vessels within their territory.

In conclusion the Yugoslav Note declares that 'the majority endeavoured to impose upon the riparian countries the greatest obligation, while not granting them corresponding rights of navigation, which, in fact, coincides with the interests of the Soviet Union in view of its position and the existing relations between States in the Danube Basin'.

Gold braid and human sharks

A picture of life in Gdynia today

Gdynia – Poland's most important seaport – is situated on the Gulf of Danzig, approximately eighteen miles north-west of Danzig in the district of Pomorze. In 1949, it had a population of 115,000.

When, after the first world war, Poland did not obtain Danzig, a start was made with the construction of a Baltic seaport on Polish territory at Gdynia, then an unimportant fishing village. In 1950, the port occupied an area of fourteen square kilometres, with quay space twenty-three kilometres in length.

After a direct railway line for the transport of coal from Upper Silesia had been opened in 1931, Gdynia became the most important junction for the export of Polish coal and one of the

most-used Baltic seaports. In some years, its traffic exceeded that of Danzig. During 1950, 7,108 vessels of some 6,700,000 registered tons entered the port.

Direct shipping routes connect Gdynia with Scandinavia, Western Europe and America. Before the war, it was a base for the Polish Navy and had some importance as a fishing port. Today it occupies a key position in the Cominform's military plans for the Baltic area.

The following first-hand account of life in this contact-point between East and West is reprinted in translation from the official journal of the IFT-affiliated Norwegian Seamen's Union.

In the Baltic Sea

IN MAY, 1950, A SHIP OF UNKNOWN NATIONALITY was found drifting in Swedish territorial waters in the Baltic. When Swedish coastguards went on board they found not a single living soul. The motor was silent, whilst the galley showed every sign of having been left in haste. A meal in the captain's cabin stood untouched, the drawers of his desk had been

pulled out and their contents emptied on to the floor. In the crew cabins everything lay about in the wildest disorder. Lockers were empty, drawers had obviously been ransacked and bedding ripped apart.

During the course of 1950, five small motor vessels and sailing ships were found deserted and drifting in the Baltic. Two of



A view of the reconstructed port of Gdynia. The Polish MS Batory, centre of controversy in New York and more recently in Bombay, is seen to the left of the picture

them were Polish, the others had no identification markings.

What had happened? No-one knows nor is anyone ever likely to know. But those who have some acquaintance with the methods of the Communist Police State will be able to guess what drama had been played out on these crewless vessels.

This year there were still other boats, other ships – loaded with refugees on their way from the ‘People’s Democracies’ to freedom. Some of them reached their goal, others were intercepted by those sharks of the Baltic – the naval police – whose fast patrol boats scour the sea for victims at all hours of the day and night. Innumerable cases in which Scandinavian and West European ships have been intercepted by Polish naval vessels in Baltic international waters can be cited. What was the reason? Suspicion of smuggling of arms or spies, based on information received from agents operating in the dockside pubs of Danzig, Stettin or Gdynia.

Welcome in Gdynia - new style

A bitterly cold January wind welcomed us as the s.s. *Fossli* steamed into Gdynia’s India Quay.

It was late at night and freezing hard, but neither time nor weather means anything to the Cominform naval police. With bayonets fixed and Russian machine pistols slung loosely over their shoulders, their reception committee stood, ready and waiting, on the quay. A little while later, ten men marched on board to have a closer look at us. Passports have to be surrendered and are closely examined by Polish naval officers, who are accompanied by a member of the Cominform’s secret police. The firemen and deck hands who are off duty have to give up their night rest and turn out on deck. And here we must stand, teeth chattering and stiff with cold, whilst the military police go over the ship with a fine toothcomb.

What’s going on? Has the war begun already? Do they think we’re carrying a cargo of tanks and fighter-planes?

But the police officer only smiles broadly:

‘Just normal passport and currency control’, he says.

A People’s Democratic control. They open lockers, pull out drawers, look behind doors, shine their torches into ash containers, open the boiler of the donkey-engine, carefully examine the air vents.

Heavy army boots tramp over the boat deck as if the ship belonged to them, search and rummage about. Only when

they have turned the whole vessel upside down and looked into every nook and cranny, only when they are quite certain that we have weapons and no spies on board, do they leave. Then and only then are our passports returned and we are free to go back to our quarters to try to catch a couple of hours’ sleep.

Down there on the quayside, however, the military police are still keeping watch, with machine pistols pointed menacingly in case anyone should try to smuggle himself into the country without papers.

In the early morning, after having been given a pass by the police stationed at the foot of the gangplank, we walk up towards the bus stop. A shadow detaches itself from the darkness and approaches us – a man in uniform.

‘Polish money? Swedish money?’

‘No!’

‘Cigarettes? Stockings?’

‘No!’

He runs his hands over us, searching every seam. Pocket book, suit and overcoat are all investigated. But he doesn’t find anything and finally lets us go.

A little further on, we are approached by Gdynia’s man in the street.

‘Business? Geschäft? Anything to sell?’, he whispers in a hotch-potch of languages.

Others appear, repeating the same monotonous phrases. Anything to sell? Business? They follow us like hungry dogs, then, unsuccessful, they shake their heads ruefully and melt back into the darkness.

At first sight it seems that that part of Gdynia’s population which is not in uniform lives from the black market and seamen. You will be amazed at the number of Polish military police who patrol the streets and at the jeeps full of gold-braided officers which race to and fro. The ordinary people of Gdynia, however, walk around in simple, rather shabby clothes and do not look much different from those in other places. In the pubs you can drink vodka and beer and dance until far into the night.

But go into the bars in the side-streets one evening. Go into the Central Café or the night club near the railway bridge, and notice the men in civilian clothes who sit down near you and listen carefully when you discuss your problems with an English seaman.

Here – in these night-spots – you will find the Cominform’s busiest agents hard at work. You will see Polish ‘seamen’, who are not seamen at all. You will find girls – speaking English and the Scandinavian languages – who are also working busily. Not all of them are prostitutes. Some are speculating in the secrets of the cold war – in spying, in hunting down refugees and in murder.

Let us, for example, take the case of Mr Davenport – the first mate on board a British ship which called at Gdynia some time ago.

Davenport got to know an English-born girl in the Central Café. Glad to have met a fellow countrywoman, he told her in confidence that he was engaged in helping political refugees to escape to Western Europe.

His confidence was, however, misplaced for he was immediately arrested and put in gaol, together with two of his shipmates who knew about the refugee transports.

This all happened many months ago, but to this day no-one has any inkling of their fate. An enquiry made by the British authorities was met with the reply that the Poles had never heard

of either Davenport or the other missing members of his crew.

Another point which should perhaps be mentioned here is that in present-day Poland the death penalty has been introduced for the crime of selling foreign currency. In fact not only the death penalty, but also summary trials. That means that if one is caught by the police, one can be shot out of hand.

Poland's key position

In order to understand the reason for this sinister atmosphere of intrigue and the brutal regulations which have been introduced, it is important to remember that Poland occupies a key strategic position in the Cominform's military plans for the Baltic. Everywhere fortifications are being built, submarine bases and rocket ramps constructed and batteries of naval guns placed in position. The whole strength and resources of the Polish nation are being concentrated on the armament programme.

The effectiveness of these plans stands or falls on whether or not refugees are able to escape from Poland and tell the outside world about conditions there. In other words, provided that no news of what is really going on there or information which could in any way disclose the real face of the 'People's Democracy' can seep out.

How important are these bases for the Cominform becomes obvious when one learns that the intelligence service in the Baltic ports is responsible to the Soviet Minister for State Security.

As chief of its spy service in Poland, the Kremlin has appointed one of its most feared underlings, Lieutenant-General Peter Mikhail Mikhailovitch, a merciless MGB chief who lives in the Russian General Consulate in Gdynia – one of the city's finest buildings and which, incidentally, was the headquarters of the Gestapo during the war. Mikhailovitch is the head of a military intelligence service which stretches from Stettin to Moscow and is responsible only to the Kremlin itself.

His immediate subordinate is Colonel Sviridov. Sviridov is the planner and conspiratorial genius of the spy service. He was formerly a trusted agent on Malenkov's staff of police spies and informers.

In Danzig, the intelligence service is led by Colonel Alexis Vassilev, who not only plans its activities in Danzig, but also organizes the recruiting of informers and contacts. His second-in-command is the twenty-five year old Captain Smirnov who, from time to time, has made journeys to Lübeck in the British Zone of Germany to contact Communist agents there.

Apart from these four, there are also a number of other notorious international Communists who have been entrusted with special tasks within the Baltic spy service, as well as in international shipping. It would take too long to describe all their activities here, but it may be mentioned that their unscrupulous activities were not unknown to the ITF even before the outbreak of the war.

Gaught in the ideological net

A Polish Press Agency announcement lets the cat out of the bag

ON 3 JULY, THE POLISH PRESS AGENCY announced to the world that in future 'Polish deep-sea fishing vessels are to have special instructors on board during the voyage to organize ideological training for the crew'.

On learning this, one is inclined to wonder exactly why Polish deep-sea fishermen have been singled out for special attention by their Government. Has the free air to the high seas perhaps become a pernicious environment in which the only ideology recognized and, presumably, well-established in the new People's Democracy is unable to thrive? Could it be that Polish fishermen are sometimes tempted to discover for themselves exactly where behind the horizon the Iron Curtain ends?

Although we would very much welcome some enlightenment on these points, the Polish news agency unfortunately seems rather reticent as to the reasons for the innovation. Of course, we readily agree with the Polish authorities on one fundamental fact, namely that ideologies are environmentally conditioned. On the other hand, however, we have no reason to believe that Polish fishermen differ from their colleagues in other countries in that they are in constant contact only with their occupational victims – fish. And, in view of their dumbness, we hardly think that the latter could constitute a source of political contagion which would justify a political commissar accompanying the hard-working fishermen throughout the whole of their fishing trips. After all, it must be no small inconvenience for the poor fellow who has to do it.

Really, it all sounds most puzzling and we think that the Polish Press Agency's reports should be censored more efficiently.

Postscript

If we are to judge from a report received after the above was written, the virus (whatever it may be) appears to have been transmitted to the fishing fleet via the Polish merchant marine. The Polish Government has announced, in a decree dated 30 June, that it has decided upon the creation of a corps of merchant marine 'officers for culture and education' who will enjoy the same status as the ship's master so far as all matters connected with 'culture and education' are concerned.



A general impression of the Gdynia quayside, showing Polish fishing vessels unloading their catch

Meeting of UN experts on road signs and signals opens

THE SECOND SESSION of the United Nations Group of Experts on Road Signs and Signals was opened at Geneva on 13 August.

After adopting its agenda and electing its chairman, the Group began consideration of the first substantive item, namely 'the examination of results of field tests of danger (warning) signs conducted under the direction of the members of the Group of Experts'.

In welcoming the Experts, Mr D. Owen, Assistant Secretary-General in charge of the United Nations Department of Economic Affairs, remarked that at the first session, which was held in New York, they had been able to observe the American system of road signs. They would now be given an opportunity of observing the other principal system, the European.

Mr Owen summarized the events which led to the formation of the Group, the important progress achieved at their first session, and the equally important work carried out between the first and second sessions, under the direction of the various members of the Group, by the competent authorities in their respective countries.

He expressed his belief that a solution of the problem entrusted to the Group would not only be an important contribution to the promotion of world safety, but, in furthering the cause of uniting the nations of the world, would contribute to the broadest objectives of the United Nations.

The terms of reference of the Group of Experts provide that it should meet for the purpose of studying the problem of devising a unified world-wide system of road signs and signals and should thereafter make recommendations based on its findings.

In their report on the first session, which was submitted to the United Nations Transport and Communications Commission, the Experts indicated the measures which it was possible to recommend at that time, and indicated aspects of the problem requiring further study by the Group.

The Experts subsequently decided to carry out investigations in their own countries before making specific recommendations at their second session. These investigations included studies for a uniform system of warning and other regulatory signs, signals to be given by traffic police etc., as well as laboratory tests on human reactions to certain colours under different lighting conditions.

The results of these enquiries will be examined at the second session, which is expected to last about four weeks. From them the Experts hope to evolve a new world system of road signs which will be finally embodied in a draft convention.

ECE working towards a coordinated European transport system

DELEGATES FROM FIFTEEN COUNTRIES and many international organizations, who recently attended a meeting of the Inland Transport Committee of the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (ECE), reached agreement on the major aims of a general transport policy for Europe. They also agreed on an intensive work-programme to achieve those aims.

The Committee placed on record that the object of the general transport policy 'is essentially to organize transport at the European level in such a way as to provide the required services as economically, efficiently and uniformly as possible, to facil-

itate trade and to reduce the cost of the goods carried'. In order to achieve that aim 'it will be necessary, in particular, to coordinate investment in the various branches of international transport and to practise a policy of international tariffs'.

The necessary bases for a general transport policy, without which any decisions would be taken 'in the air', are mainly statistics, actual transport costs, flow of traffic. When considering investments, in order to decide whether better to develop certain traffic by road or by improving railway lines, it is necessary to know how much the roads or the rail lines would cost, how much investment is required, and what flow of traffic could be expected. These are extremely complicated economic and financial questions which the Inland Transport Committee has been studying for two years, and which it now considers sufficiently advanced to enable it to specify aims by considering the problem in all its aspects.

For the next stage in its policy work, the Committee has decided to re-organize its structure so that it can deal with European transport costs, accountancy and tariff problems for all forms of inland transport (road, rail and inland waterway) simultaneously. The Committee itself will, from time to time, hold special sessions to coordinate activities in general transport policy-making, and to keep its programme up to date with changing needs. The first of these special sessions has been set for 8 January, 1952.

Far East inland waterway experts tour Europe and USA

TWELVE EXPERTS on inland water transport from six Far Eastern countries - Burma, India, Indonesia, Pakistan, Thailand and Viet-Nam - are now engaged on a three month-tour of Europe and North America in order to observe technological advances in river and canal transport. The tour, the first of its kind to be undertaken under United Nations auspices, is sponsored jointly by the Technical Assistance Administration (TAA) and the Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East (ECAFE).

The proposal for the tour originated in recommendations made by an ECAFE Committee of Experts on Inland Transport and endorsed by ECAFE at its Seventh Session. ECAFE proposed the formation of 'a team of technical inland water experts, drawn from several countries of the region, to study abroad the technological advances in inland water transport methods, and thereafter to submit a detailed report...'

The primary aim of the tour is to study improved types of craft, including tow-boats, which would be most suitable for introduction into Asia and the Far East. The experts will also seek ways of improving Far Eastern waterways.

In Thailand, Burma, Pakistan and India - also to be visited - the group will study existing inland water transport problems, and will hold consultations designed to establish a regional approach to the subject matter of the tour.

One problem of particular interest to the countries of the Far East is the need to increase the carrying capacity of the small craft known as 'country boats', the most common type of river boat used in the region. The mobility of these country boats is poor, since they are dependent on wind and current. Accordingly, ECAFE has recommended that a demonstration project be organized for experimentation with 'suitable tugs, pusher craft, or other means of moving country boats and barges on inland waterways'. It is intended that, following the conclusion

of the present tour, such a demonstration project will be undertaken on a selected stretch of a waterway in the Far East; the terms of reference of the group of experts include the making of recommendations concerning the ultimate form and method of this demonstration.

On the basis of these ECAFE recommendations, the substantive planning of the tour has been completed by TAA in co-operation with ECAFE. Arrangements have been made to ensure that the experts will have an opportunity of conferring with government officials, technicians, transport operators, and engine manufacturers in all the countries visited, and to view the most important waterway installations in each country.

USSR accepts maritime safety regulations

THE GOVERNMENT OF THE USSR has recently deposited with the British Foreign Office its acceptance of the International Regulations for Preventing Collisions at Sea drawn up in London in April and June 1948.

It will be recalled that the 1948 Conference agreed to revise the existing regulations for preventing collisions, but decided not to annex the amended regulations to the International Convention for the Safety of Life at Sea. It also decided that the Government of the United Kingdom should be invited to forward the regulations to other Governments which had accepted the original safety rules for their approval. It was left to the same Government to fix the date on and after which the international regulations shall be applied when it considers that substantial unanimity has been reached on their acceptance.

Up to the present date, acceptances have been deposited by the Governments of twenty-nine countries, as follows: Australia, Belgium, Brazil, Burma, Canada, Chile, Denmark, Dominica, Ecuador, France, Greece, Iceland, India, Iraq, Ireland, Italy, Mexico, Netherlands, New Zealand, Nicaragua, Pakistan, Poland, Spain, Sweden, Turkey, Union of South Africa, the United Kingdom, the USSR, and Yugoslavia.

Slow ratification of Safety of Life at Sea Convention

SINCE THE FORMAL RATIFICATION last year by the United States of the International Convention on the Safety of Life at Sea, only Denmark, France, the Netherlands, Norway and Sweden of the countries possessing more than one million gross tons of shipping have expressed their formal acceptance. Prior to its adoption by the United States, the Convention had already been ratified by the United Kingdom, which thus became the 'bureau power' in all matters except those pertaining to amendments until such time as the proposed Inter-Governmental Maritime Consultative Organization of the United Nations comes into being and takes over the duties assigned to it by the Convention.

Those nations with less than one million gross tons of shipping which have already accepted the Convention are New Zealand, South Africa, Iceland and Portugal. Ratifications by major maritime powers are still awaited from Canada, Greece, Italy and Panama. So far only Canada has initiated action regarding formal ratification. At the same time, acceptances by countries with less than one million gross tons are pending from Australia, Finland, Ireland, Belgium and Argentina, although the latter country has expressed no expectation of early action.

The Convention itself can only become effective one year after it has been ratified by fifteen maritime nations, of which at least seven must be countries with no less than one million gross tons of shipping. The present total of ratifications is still four short of that needed.

US restricts ship transfers to Panama flag

DURING THE MONTH OF JULY, the United States Senate passed a Bill designed to restrict the transfer of US merchant vessels to foreign owners.

Senator Magnuson (Democrat), who introduced the Bill, alleged that US shipowners had been evading taxation by placing their vessels under the flag of the Panamanian Republic and stated that the practice was so widespread that the fourth largest merchant marine in the world was that now sailing under the Panamanian flag.

The new Bill will prohibit the sale or transfer of a US-owned ship to a foreign country without the written approval of the Defence Secretary, the Secretary for Commerce and the Secretary of State.

USSR refuses to return American lend-lease vessels

THE SOVIET UNION HAS RECENTLY notified the United States Government that it 'refuses to consider' the return of 670 ships loaned to Russia under the lend-lease agreement operated during the Second World War.

A note to that effect was handed to the US State Department during the course of another meeting with Soviet representatives regarding the settlement of the \$1,800,000,000 Russian lend-lease account.

The United States has demanded the return of 672 naval, merchant and small military craft, representing virtually all the ships made available to Russia under the war-time agreement. The Soviet refusal applies to only 670 of these vessels, since Russia has already agreed to hand back two icebreakers. The latter have, however, been stuck fast in the Siberian ice for several months past.

A State Department official has disclosed that the Soviet Note charged that the US Government had violated an agreement to sell the ships. It was further alleged that the US did not need them in any case. In support of this latter contention the Soviet Note said the US had recently sold surplus military craft to several South American countries.

The State Department refuse to acknowledge the validity of the original offer to sell the ships to the Soviet Union since this was made on the condition that Russia should make a 'prompt and satisfactory' settlement of the over-all lend-lease account. This condition had not been met and, as a result, the offer to sell had now been withdrawn.

The United States Government has made it plain that it intends to continue to press for the return of the vessels despite what appears to be a final 'no' from Moscow.

International transport organization for Africa proposed

IT IS REPORTED THAT THE CREATION of an international transport organization for the whole of Africa has been pro-

posed by the one-time Secretary-General of the International Transport Organization for Central and South Africa.

The proposal suggests that the work of the projected organization – which would be concerned with all African goods traffic – should be organized by a permanent secretariat. The latter would receive its directives from a committee consisting of representatives of all member-States belonging to the organization, which, it is proposed, should meet at least once each year.

Shipowners blamed for Dutch maritime manpower shortage

IN A RECENT COMMENT on a number of cases in which Dutch seamen have been arrested for cargo thefts and large-scale smuggling, *De Koopvaardij*, official journal of the ITF-affiliated Dutch Seamen's Union, blames the current shortage of experienced seafarers for an influx of undesirable elements into the Dutch merchant marine.

The union journal points to the fact that there are at the present time some 6,000 Dutch seafarers serving on board foreign vessels, 4,000 of them having found employment in the Norwegian merchant marine alone. It claims that one of the principal reasons for this loss of valuable manpower is the fact that if a Dutch shipowner considers that a seaman employed by him has misbehaved, he can, through the Shipowners' Association, see to it that that seaman is blacklisted throughout the entire Dutch shipping industry.

It is true that a seafarer who believes himself to have been unjustly and arbitrarily dismissed may appeal to the local court but decisions in such cases may take many months, during which time the seaman concerned has the choice either of remaining unemployed or seeking employment aboard a foreign ship.

In addition, seafarers who are legally found guilty by the Dutch Shipping Council of an offence warranting temporary forfeiture of their seaman's card often find that when their cards are eventually returned they are still unable to obtain employment on Dutch vessels because here again they have been blacklisted by the shipowners.

Our affiliate points out that although there are obviously cases in which undesirables have to be excluded from the merchant marine, seafarers should not be hounded off Dutch vessels merely because they have committed some minor offence normally punishable only by temporary suspension. In any case, decisions regarding permanent exclusion should be taken by the Shipping Council and not by the shipowners, acting in arbitrary fashion.

ERP aid to West German ocean shipping

According to an announcement made by the United States Economic Cooperation Administration in Washington on 4 September, the West German Federal Republic has been authorized to spend \$5,000,000 on ocean shipping.

Increase in British merchant marine labour force

THE BRITISH MINISTRY OF TRANSPORT has recently issued a statement, based on a census of the effective section of the Central Register of Seamen, showing the number of Merchant Navy officers and ratings as at 30 June of this year.

A comparison with the corresponding figures for 30 June 1950 reveals that the latest figure of 144,452 represents an increase of 900 over last year's labour force.

The effective section of the Central Register of Seamen comprises seafarers (except Asiatic seafarers normally serving on

Articles opened or closed in Asia) reported as members of the crew in a current Agreement or 'List' rendered under the relevant sections of the Merchant Shipping Act of 1894.

The Register also includes seafarers who having ceased to serve on such Agreement since 30 June 1950 and not having surrendered a British seaman's identity card, are considered as being available for seagoing employment.

The actual figures issued in the statement, broken down according to category, are as follows:

	June 30 1951	June 30 1950
Masters and deck officers (certificated) . . .	13,275	13,033
Masters and deck officers (uncertificated) . . .	2,196	2,530
Apprentices and cadets	4,820	4,558
Engineer officers (certificated)	7,315	7,070
Engineer officers (uncertificated)	15,732	15,553
Radio officers	3,254	3,158
Deck ratings	32,985	32,827
Engine room ratings	20,673	22,384
Catering ratings (incl. pursers and writers) . . .	41,412	39,904
Miscellaneous (including surgeons)	2,790	2,535
Total	144,452	143,552

Problems in coordinating Canadian transport

Railway Employees and Other Transport Workers

by J. E. McGuire, National Secretary-Treasurer, Canadian Brotherhood of

ANY CONSIDERATION OF THE COORDINATION of Canada's transportation services must inevitably take into account the fact that Canada's biggest railway problem is Canada itself. More than any other nation in the world, Canada is a child of the railways.

History of Canadian transport is that of the nation itself

In the beginning, of course, rivers and canals provided ready-made highways to the interior of the continent. But once away from his ships, boats and canoes man had to travel either by foot or in vehicles drawn by oxen or horses.

Canada's first railways were built primarily to speed freight and passengers past those stretches in the rivers where navigation was impossible or where it had been stopped altogether by the icy grip of winter. But as men realized the speed with which freight could be moved and began to appreciate the fact that there were enormous stretches of the country where navigable rivers simply did not exist, the vision of transcontinental railways began to stir their imaginations.

The original provinces did not come together to form the Confederation known as the Dominion of Canada until thirty-one years after the first Canadian railway was laid, and it is significant that the railways were physical realities before the Dominion became a political reality. Indeed, our whole social and economic fabric is built upon a framework of rail, river and road, and the less clearly defined but nonetheless real roadways of the sea and sky. The railways made confederation of the various provinces possible and, indeed, Canada is perhaps the only country in the world which has two railways, the Intercolonial and the Canadian Pacific, written into its Constitution. Without the one, there would have been no Confederation at all. Without the other, the Dominion would have stopped at the western borders of the old Province of Canada; British Columbia and the Prairie Provinces would have been lost to the United States of America.

The problem that is Canada is a many-sided problem: geographical, political, physical, economic and technical. You must grasp somehow the enormity of the country, the sheer mass, the amazing variety, the manner in which its population is strung out in a narrow band of humanity – never more than two hundred miles in depth – along the southern border or bottom of the great land mass that is represented in this half continent. Immigration, accelerated since the war, will, of course, enable Canada eventually to correct this unbalanced distribution of her population. But for the moment conceive if you can of a nation of fourteen million people occupying a territory that, in European terms, would reach from that point where the Atlantic laps the shores of Portugal to a point 2,100 miles beyond the Iron Curtain.

Of those factors listed above as making up the problem to which we are giving consideration, certainly geography must rank as the most important.

On a rough basis, nature divided Canada into five geographical divisions and as a result of this prior distribution of favors by nature, there are five general political units as well. Geographically speaking, then, and starting from the Eastern seaboard, there is the Maritime area which includes the Atlantic Provinces of Newfoundland, Prince Edward Island, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick; then there is Quebec, which is French-speaking Canada; then Ontario, which, like Quebec, is a self-contained unit though the two are sometimes linked together and referred to as the Central Provinces; then the Prairie Provinces of Manitoba, Saskatchewan and Alberta. Beyond the Rocky Mountains and snug by the shores of the blue Pacific lies British Columbia, the fifth geographical and political division of Canada. North of the Prairie Provinces lies another great land mass known as the Northwest Territories, but because this area is so undeveloped, so little known and so politically immature, no real consideration need be given it within the terms of reference of this article.

As the Canadian people took their first, faltering steps along the road to nationhood, the great problem was to reconcile the divergent interests of those five geographical and political areas. The short term and immediate gain that appealed to many of them, the early merchants and traders, was to engage as freely as possible in trade with the nation to the south, the United States of America. This was a perfectly understandable impulse because the natural flow of traffic up to that time had followed the physical lines of the continent. There was a closer affinity between the interests of those living on the eastern seaboard – whether they were located within Canada's borders or the borders of the United States – than there was between those living on the eastern seaboard in Canada and those living in Ontario, for example. Likewise, there was a closer interest, a more compulsive urge to trade between the peoples living on the prairies and those living in the middle-western states than between the people on the prairies and the people in Quebec. But the long-term aim of the fathers of Confederation was to set up a political entity separate and distinct from the United States and to make it work they had to force the trade to flow east and west, contrary to the original ways in which it had begun, so that the economic life blood of the struggling nation that was Canada would be enriched and the flesh of prosperity would clothe its gaunt geographical bones.

Government interest in the growth of transportation

Some idea of the extent to which governments became financially involved in the transportation picture may be gained from a reference in the Rowell-Sirois report, a voluminous study of Dominion-Provincial relations completed in 1939. The statement is made there that by 1866 the investment of governments in Canada in transportation was equal to 60 per cent of the total provincial and municipal debt, and about one-third of provincial and municipal current expenditures were incurred

for transportation purposes. The fact was that the provincial and municipal governments, in underwriting waterway and railway construction, had undertaken obligations far larger than their limited economic strength warranted. This mushroom growth in transportation services continued well beyond the end of the nineteenth century. Between 1903 and 1917 railway mileage in Canada almost doubled in comparison with a population increase slightly in excess of 40 per cent. The report makes this further interesting observation:

'Government aid took the form of direct cash subsidies, loans and security guarantees. The last was used lavishly by both the Dominion and provinces. Under the prevailing spell of expansion, the burden of government bond guarantees was taken lightly as it did not appear that these would cost the guarantor anything except in 'exceptional' cases. By 1916, Dominion guarantees of railway securities exceeded \$135 million and the provincial guarantees were not far short of such an amount. With the outbreak of the war (1914-18) the inflow of foreign investment capital dried up overnight and the guarantees assumed a hitherto undreamed of importance. In order to complete construction, further loans were necessary and the governments were faced with allowing the roads to go bankrupt and so become liable under the guarantees or with making further loans in an attempt to prop up the tottering structure.'

'Under these circumstances, the Royal Commission of 1916 was appointed to investigate the whole railway situation with particular reference to the best policy to be adopted on behalf of the insolvent railways.'

The Royal Commission reported in favor of the Dominion taking over the Canadian Northern, the Grand Trunk, and the Grand Trunk Pacific and together with the already existing government-owned railways forming a consolidated system. The Dominion then proceeded to implement its recommendations and by 1922 was vested with full control of the various railway properties.'

These properties were developed and became known as the Canadian National Railways.

Meanwhile the growth of motor transportation had been taking place at a rapid rate and this produced effects on railway traffic that were little appreciated at the time. Not only did motor traffic affect rail traffic in a physical sense, but because it drew off so much of what had hitherto been the more lucrative fields of railway transportation, the financial structure of the railways was also sadly affected. From 1921 on, there was a steady decline in railway passenger traffic.

An unexpected development during the depression was the rapid increase in the use of the airplane. This mode of transportation was particularly valuable in Canada in the far north where no railway lines were in existence and highway transportation was unheard of. People were able to move about in that part of the country only by dog team in the winter or by watercraft during the summertime. Air traffic therefore developed in the north and threatened to expand rapidly all over the country. This rapid expansion forewarned the government of the problems it would face in holding traffic. As a result, the decision was made to organize a government air service and in conjunction with the Canadian National Railways, the government of Canada incorporated a company to provide a trans-Canada air service, known today as the Trans-Canada Air Lines.

Transportation has been of tremendous significance to Canada in the past, and it is quite safe to predict a vital rôle for it in the future. The value of its contribution to our national

welfare depends upon the efficiency of the entire transportation plant - rail, road, waterways and air. Effective though these elements may be, what are some of the proposals put forward for the improvement of the various forms of transport?

Amalgamation of the Railways

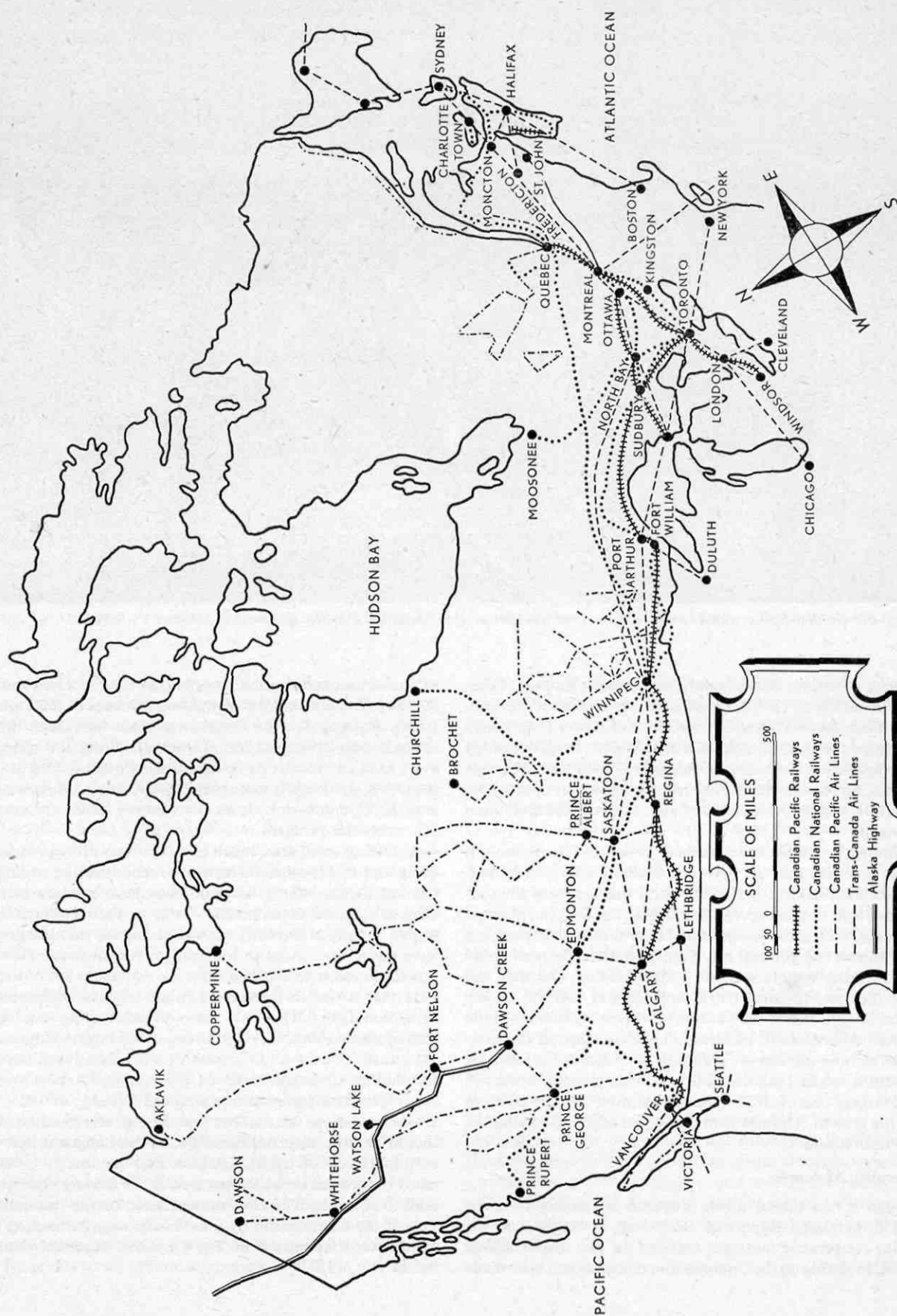
Amalgamation of railway lines is a device that has been proposed several times. The largest transportation system on the North American continent, Canadian National Railways, represents an amalgamation of many properties. But the Canadian National System is not the result of a long-range, preconceived transportation policy. Amalgamation was forced on the Government of the day, as already indicated, because of the series of failures resulting from an era of unrestricted construction of lines by private enterprise. To this day, the Canadian National carries on its books a legacy of fixed debt which distorts its annual reports and gives aid and comfort to those who state that public ownership is inefficient and unworkable. Despite the complexity of its financial structure, a natural consequence of the variety and number of the properties of which it is composed, it is generally acknowledged that Canada's socialized railway system is operated efficiently.

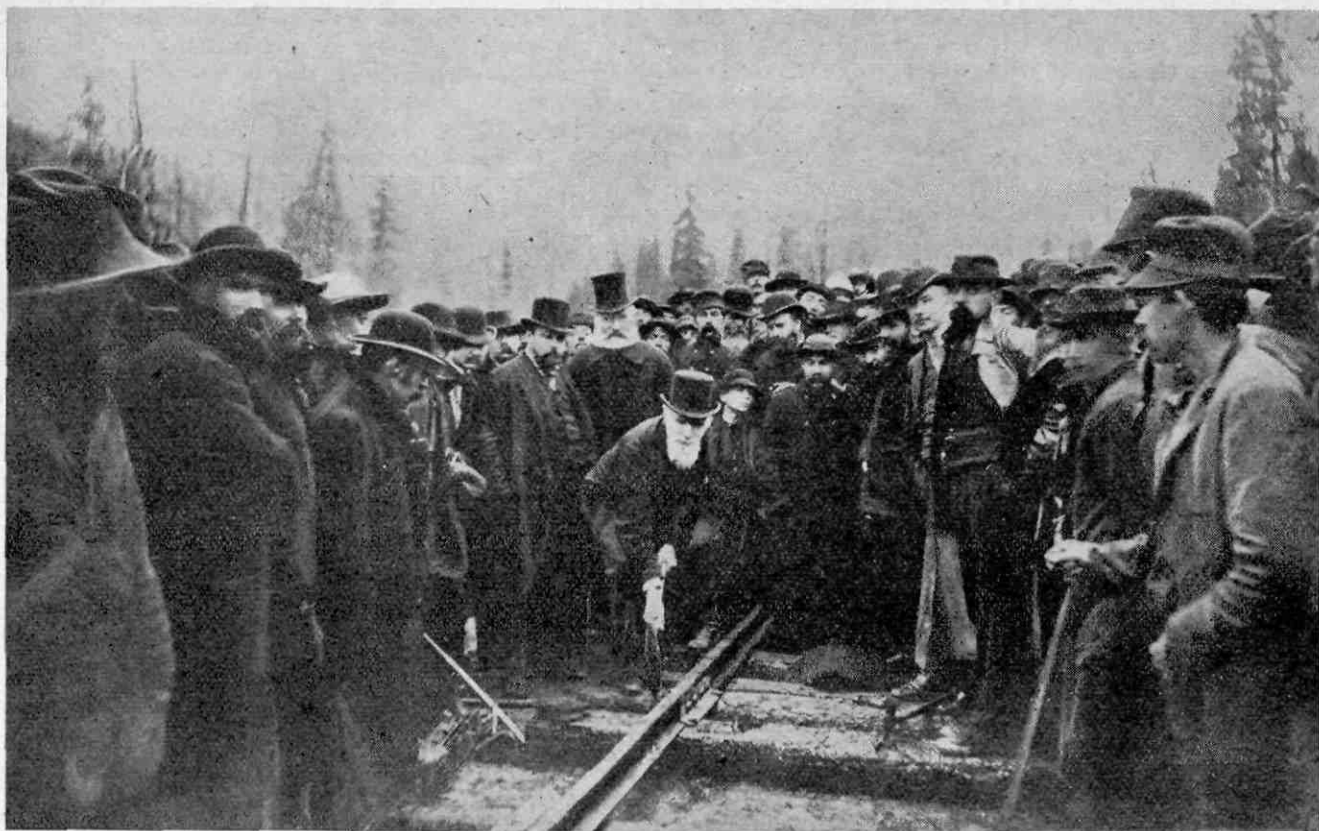
During the lean years of the great depression, however, the Canadian National became the target for a campaign of criticism distinguished more for its bitterness and hysteria than by its adherence to the facts of the situation. The core around which criticism eddied and swirled was the proposal for amalgamation of the two great railway systems put forward by the late Sir Edward Beatty, former President of the Canadian Pacific Railway Company. The Beatty Plan, ably presented by its author to a Royal Commission on Transportation which was sitting at that time, called for unification of the two lines under conditions which would have ensured that 'the two railways should continue to own their present properties'. On the basis of 1930 traffic, savings of over \$75,000,000 annually were estimated, which would be made possible by the proposed abandonment of 3,258 miles of the Canadian National, and 1,743 of the Canadian Pacific, and through other economies.

But much more than the uprooting of steel rails was at stake. Whole communities faced disruption, their total population estimated by the Minister of Railways at that time to be 200,000, and the most damaging part of the proposals for railway workers was the certainty of wholesale reductions of staff that would follow the joining of the two lines. Canadian National officials, in statements before the Royal Commission, were emphatic in declaring their doubts about a realization of the savings and advantages that were claimed. One of them reflected the growing uneasiness about the objectives of the proposal, on the part of the public and the unions, when he stated that the scheme 'was predicated upon a docile or practically helpless public and an equally docile or helpless staff of employees'. In its report in 1932, the Royal Commission rejected the proposal in the following words:

To establish a monopoly of such magnitude and importance would place in the hands of those responsible for the administration of the system powers that would, if not properly exercised, prejudice the interests of the Dominion as a whole.

A view expressed by the Brotherhood in 1938 before the Special Railway Committee of the Senate of Canada drew considerable attention and support. This was to the effect that the so-called railway problem is only part of a larger problem requiring attention, involving the very nature and basis of our





Driving the Golden Spike which completed the construction of the Canadian Pacific Railway, November 7, 1885

economic structure. Subsequently, the Special Railway Committee in its report (1939), rejected similar amalgamation proposals, and the Report of the Royal Commission on Transportation, (under the chairmanship of Justice W.F.A. Turgeon) which was completed in February of this year, stated that 'There is, therefore, no reason whatever to recommend either unification, amalgamation or public ownership of all railways in the Dominion of Canada'.

Although it is difficult to correctly assess public opinion, it appears probable that the views expressed by these official bodies reflect the thinking of Canadians on this aspect of the subject. Throughout their development, the Canadian people have had to cope with great distances and a stern climate in pursuing their business and cultural life. Transportation has been – and still is in many remote sections – their life-line, and they will not be disposed to entrust it to any form of control, or any political group, unless they are certain there will be no abuse of power. Memories of incidents that took place in the early days of railway monopoly, especially in Western Canada, are still fresh. Canada's political and economic climate, while still pretty largely one of 'free, private enterprise', is not likely to assist the growth of a railway monopoly of any kind whatsoever in the near future.

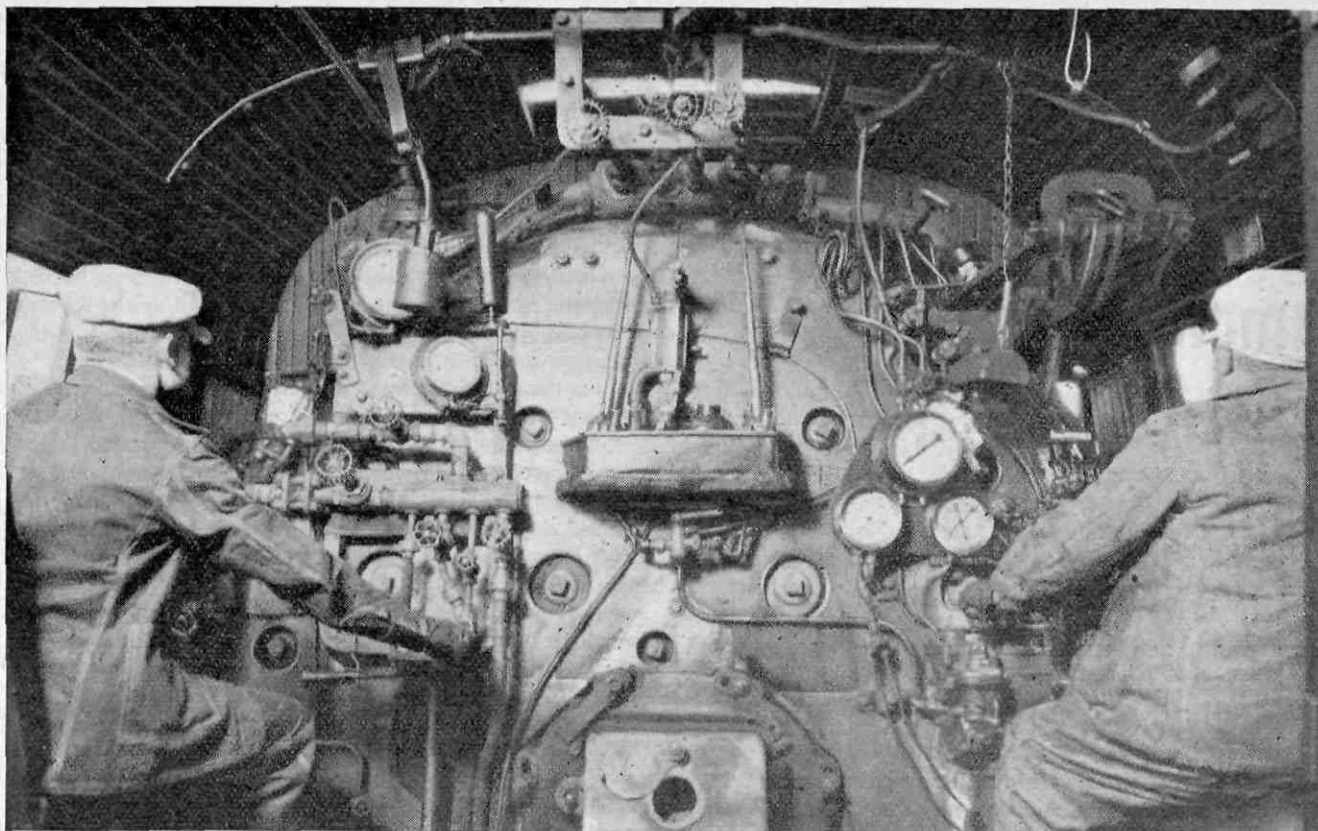
Cooperative Measures

Although it had turned down proposals for amalgamation, the Royal Commission Report of 1932 dealt at length with the need for cooperative measures between the two major railway systems. In setting up the Commission, reference had been made

to 'the serious and continuing deficits of the Canadian National Railways System, and the diminished revenues of the Canadian Pacific Railway System, conditions which have been brought about in part by duplication of tracks, facilities and services of every kind and in part by competition by other modes of transportation, particularly motor vehicles operating on highways . . .', and the Commission's terms of reference called for study of this particular problem.

As already intimated, much of our railway mileage came into being for other than sound reasons of economic and social need. Carried forward on a wave of boundless enthusiasm about Canada's future development – and by their enthusiasm for profits – many of the early railway promoters do not appear to have given much heed to long-range consequences. However, it is much easier to criticize from the vantage point of the year 1951 that it was to foresee the future when a wilderness was being conquered. There are many sound reasons – and others that appeared sound – for the railway development of those days.

Indicative of the rapid growth of our railway facilities is the fact that the Canadian National, in its Annual Report for 1950, lists eighty companies comprising the System; in 1923, right after amalgamation, the number was close to one hundred. There should be little surprise, therefore, at the statement that there is 'duplication of tracks, facilities and services . . .', because many of the lines now incorporated in our railway systems were built to compete. The Government acted on the recommendation of the Commission by introducing into Parliament a bill which was later passed as The Canadian National-Canadian Pacific Act, 1933.



Engineer and fireman seen in the locomotive cab of a CPR Class T1-a Oil Burner. Photo Canadian Pacific Railway Company

In reviewing the Act, the Turgeon Report pointed out three features: it is to enable the railways to effect economies; cooperation by agreement is the means of attainment of the objective; and both the burden and advantage are to be equitably distributed between the two railways.

The Act has been used chiefly to bring about passenger train pooling, the estimated annual joint economy on this account in 1949 being \$972,000.00, and the total joint economy \$1,189,240.00. This latter figure included other measures such as joint use of freight and passenger facilities, joint switching, handling of freight by one company for the other, and line abandonments. Only a small number of miles of line were abandoned, 62.1 on the Canadian National and 44.1 on the Canadian Pacific railways.

The coming of war in 1939 brought with it a new emphasis on utilization of all existing facilities, and work on cooperative projects ceased between 1941 and 1947. In the period 1947-48 only two joint economies, involving the abandonment of twenty-two miles of track were effected. However, the list of completed projects does not reflect all the attempts at coordination under the Act. Many other projects were studied by the Joint Cooperative Committee which had been set up, but several of these were judged uneconomical, others were interrupted by war activities, and some were disallowed by the Board of Transport Commissioners although recommended by the Joint Committee. This last-named category includes nine proposed abandonments, comprising 457 miles of track, apparently blocked by provinces, industries and communities served by such lines.

There seems to be general agreement that the Canada Na-

tional-Canadian Pacific Act has served a useful purpose. The Turgeon Commission concluded that 'the possibility of making further economies is restricted by the growth which has taken place in the volume of traffic; but the importance of preventing extravagant competition remains'. The danger of short-sighted economies was noted: 'Lines which it was once thought prudent to abandon have since been justified by increases in the volume of traffic; and the growth of population has made some measures of cooperation unnecessary'. The Report recommended that the Act be continued but with an amendment to provide that the annual report to Parliament of the Canadian National Railways shall in the future contain a separate section which will summarize information concerning the results achieved and the economies effected. On June 14, 1951, the Government took the first step in carrying out this recommendation by introducing a Bill to amend the Act along the lines suggested. The Bill will be discussed at the autumn session of Parliament.

The cooperative action taken under the Canadian National-Canadian Pacific Act is important because it throws some light on the possibilities of such action, and on its limitations. Although the approach to individual measures of economy may be different from the approach that would be made if complete amalgamation of the two systems was the object, there is enough similarity to give some indication of the consequences for the communities and individuals concerned. The record of resistance to many of the proposed curtailments of service suggests that any piecemeal approach must be content with extremely limited goals.

(to be continued)

Educational work among Austrian Railwaymen

By Hans Patocka,

Educational Secretary, Austrian Railwaymen's Union

IN ORDER TO GIVE A GENERAL REPORT on the educational work carried out by our union we must first provide a general idea of the structure of our organization, because that will assist the reader to understand the present organization of our educational work.

The Austrian Railwaymen's Union has 184 local branches and a total of 118,000 members. These branches have each a separate territory, and, according to the size of the territory, varying numbers of members. There are local branches which have perhaps no more than hundred members, and other branches which have as many as 8,000.

Each of these 184 branches has an educational secretary, who is assisted in his work – particularly in the larger branches – by one or more assistants.

As these educational secretaries are chosen only from amongst members who themselves have an educational level above the average, it follows that the Educational Secretariat of the union in Vienna enjoys the services of a capable staff of collaborators distributed over the whole country.

The Austrian Federal Railways employ a total of approximately 75,000 workers and officials, of whom approximately 25,000 were engaged prior to the year 1934, whilst the remainder (approximately 50,000) were engaged only after the year 1938. Thus, generally speaking, the personnel of the Austrian Federal Railways consists of approximately 25,000 older men, most of whom have already served for more than twenty-five years on the railways, and approximately 50,000 younger men with not more than from ten to thirteen years service.

This circumstance is reflected in the composition of the general body of elected union representatives (*Vertrauensmännerapparat*). There are a number of older men who have had long and valuable experience in the trade union affairs of the railwaymen, but also many younger men who grew up during the fascist era in Austria and whose experience of trade union work proper therefore dates only from the year 1945. Unlike their

older colleagues, these younger men have had no opportunity of growing up and developing with their trade union organization, but were suddenly, almost overnight, thrust into responsible trade union work. Thus they had had no opportunity of gaining experience in the difficult and responsible work of trade organization. It is not surprising that in this respect too the eleven years of Fascism (from 1934 to 1945) made themselves disagreeably felt. Our educational work therefore had primarily to take this circumstance into consideration.

In addition, there were so many vital tasks to be performed, and so many important problems to be solved, in the first two years after the end of the war that in this period there was very little time for fruitful educational work, and this accounts for the fact that the Educational Secretariat of the Austrian Railwaymen's Union was set up only on 1 January 1947. At the national congress of the union in April of that year an Educational Committee was elected which consisted of eight of our leading union officials.

This Educational Committee meets from time to time to discuss whatever may arise within its orbit and to adopt decisions in all important matters.

The educational work of our union consists generally of (a) the education of the men's elected representatives (*Vertrauensmänner*), and (b) the education of the ordinary rank and file members of the union.

Our educational work on behalf of ordinary members is carried on in numerous meetings and through our trade union press, whose publications regularly reach our members. The work is supported by theatrical performances, films and wireless, though up to the present the union has not had any very great opportunity of utilising either the film or the wireless. The Austrian working-class movement, and in particular the educational secretariats of the various trade unions will have a great deal of hard work to do and many battles to fight in the future in order to increase its influence not only in the making of films, but in the drawing up of wireless programmes.

However, the main weight of our educational work is directed towards the training of the union's elected representatives (*Vertrauensmänner*).

The Austrian Railwaymen's Union has no less than 6,000 elected representatives throughout the Republic, and the problem of how best these men could be most speedily provided with the training necessary for them to do their work properly was raised and thoroughly discussed as early as the year 1947.

We came to the conclusion that the best way to train them would be in special schools in which they would live in for a while and devote themselves wholly to their training. But how could that be done for 6,000 men? A simple calculation was sufficient to show that anything of this kind would prove much too costly, and the idea therefore had to be abandoned. We then had to cast around for other ways and means.

We decided that these union representatives and officials should be brought together in the branches, i.e. at a great number of smaller points throughout the country, and put through courses there in their free time. However, for this a large staff of trained teacher-speakers was necessary, and there was an acute lack of suitable men. There was a great shortage of men who were themselves trade unionists, who possessed the necessary technical knowledge and the necessary ability to pass it on to others.

Thus, before we could begin to train the men's elected representatives we had to begin training the necessary teacher-

speakers. In June 1947, therefore, we organized a four weeks school course. It was attended by about seventy colleagues from all parts of the country, each of whom had first to pass a test to confirm his suitability for the course. But despite all our care in choosing those who were to attend the course only ten candidates proved suitable as teacher-speakers after going through the course.

In 1949 and 1950 further courses were held, with the result that we were gradually able to increase the number of suitable teacher-speakers at our disposal until today the union is comfortably in a position to call its representatives and officials together at the various centres and train them in trade-union work.

It now proved necessary to cast around for new methods of teaching in our educational work.

We were convinced that the spoken word alone was by no means sufficient to ensure that all the difficult material involved could be retained in the memory permanently, and we therefore adopted the following method:

Suitable experts were employed to write pamphlets in a popular and easily understood fashion on all subjects of which the union considered its elected representatives should have some knowledge. Such pamphlets were then printed in editions of 10,000 each. When such a subject is to be discussed with these elected representatives each of them is given a free copy of the pamphlet in question and requested to acquaint himself with its contents. Three or four weeks later, groups of representatives (usually between thirty and forty) are then called together at the various centres for a general discussion, to which the union also sends a trained teacher-speaker. The contents of the pamphlet in question are then thoroughly discussed for a whole day from morning to evening. In this way it has proved possible to acquaint very many of our union's elected representatives with quite complicated problems relating to their functions.

In this respect it is necessary to add that the union has succeeded in coming to an agreement with the Board of Directors of the Federal Railways according to which each elected representative of the union is granted one day's paid leave a month for the purposes of trade union education and training. With this we have succeeded in reaching almost all our representatives and in training them efficiently at comparatively little cost.

These 'discussion days' were first introduced in January of this year, but already our experience has shown that they have met with real success.

As the whole educational work of our union has to be done between the beginning of September of one year and the end of May of the next, the educational secretariat usually draws up its programme in March or April for the coming educational year and submits it together with an estimate of its cost.

This annual educational programme is discussed and adopted by the Educational Committee previously referred to, whilst the amount of money to be spent on it is discussed and decided by the Management Committee, another body which consists of leading members of our union.

Only after both these committees have discussed the proposals and agreed to them can we make a start with the carrying out of the educational programme. The point of this close control is that a careful check must be made on all trade union expenditure, because it is the money of our members which is involved and it must be expended economically and fruitfully.

The following six-point educational programme was adopted for the educational year 1951-52:

1 The 'discussion days' previously referred to, which are held

to educate and train our elected representatives, are to be continued as from September of this year.

The subjects to be dealt with include the working regulations of railwaymen, social insurance and social policy in general.

2 'Speakers' training', which is to be furthered by a meeting of all official speakers twice a month in the union headquarters in Vienna, a sort of voluntary 'working community' in which each speaker will demonstrate his abilities before his colleagues.

3 The continuation and extension of the 'Railway Science Lectures', which have been held in Vienna with great success. This consisted of a series of lectures held once a month in the headquarters of the Federal Railways in Vienna from five o'clock to eight on a general problem of great importance to railwaymen 'Rail and Road Traffic Coordination'. The lectures were delivered by members of the government, university professors and high officials of the Federal Railways.

These highly topical lectures aroused great interest not only amongst railwaymen, but also amongst economists and others, and led to discussions in the press.

It is now intended to deal with all the problems under the general theme 'Rail and Road' which have so far only been discussed in Vienna, in Linz, Innsbruck, Villach and Graz also during the coming educational year 1951-52.

4 The organization of a special training course for full-time officials of our union.

As trade union officials have not a great deal of time in addition to that taken up by the carrying out of their responsible work, and have therefore little opportunity of improving their educational standards and acquainting themselves with the great economic problems of our time, we propose to arrange two-week full-time courses for them to attend. The following subjects will be dealt with at these courses:

Wage policy - an aspect of trade union economic policy.

Politico-economic objectives in Austria.

Productivity and the increase of production.

Taxation and the State budget.

The economic situation of Austria's undertakings.

Economic planning in Austria and the rest of the world.

The position of the trade unions in the economic system and in the State.

What can the Austrian worker expect from Austria's economy. Problems relating to the economic and political organization of Europe.

In addition there will perhaps be arrangements for those taking part to practise public speaking.

5 *Meetings of our Educational Officials.* It is proposed from September 1951 onwards to call all our trained teacher-speakers together in district groups once a month in Vienna, Linz, Salzburg, Innsbruck, Villach and Graz for joint discussions which will have the following agenda:

a. A lecture on the current problems of our educational work followed by a general discussion;

b. Announcements; and

c. Suggestions or complaints from the body of the hall.

6 *Courses for Railway Examinations.* As the Austrian Federal Railways propose gradually to discard the previous Reich's German rules and working regulations and to replace them once again by specific Austrian rules and regulations, this means that a great number of Austrian railwaymen will have to take examinations again.

In this respect the Railwaymen's Union takes the view that in principle it is exclusively a matter for the Federal Railways

that courses should be organized in preparation for such examinations. However, the following circumstance has to be taken into consideration:

The Federal Railways Administration arranges such courses only for those railwaymen who are obliged to take the examinations as a condition of their employment in certain positions. Other railwaymen who wish to take the examinations in order to improve their position have to prepare themselves without being able to attend such courses. The Educational Secretariat of the union now proposes to intervene on behalf of these members and to arrange courses for them. As in principle those taking part in such courses will have to meet the expenses in-

involved, the union will not be financially burdened whilst at the same time it will be enabled to carry out certain work of great value to its members.

We hope that in the carrying out of this programme we shall be able to go forward a good stretch towards our aim, and in particular we anticipate considerable success in our new methods of training and educating our elected representatives. The fact that a number of experienced officials have willingly placed their services at our disposal for this training and educating of our elected representatives makes us confident that our educational programme will meet with full approval within the organization.

A railway which disappeared

DURING THE EXAMINATION of Italy's first report on her administration of Somaliland by the United Nations Trusteeship Council recently, the USSR member asked for information about the installations and rolling stock of a railway between Mogadiscio and Villaggio Duca degli Abruzzi which, he said, had unaccountably disappeared. He understood that the railway had been about eighty kilometres in length and wondered how it had happened to 'evaporate'. In addition, he asked how the Administering Authority settled property compensation involved in such a disappearance.

In reply, Mr Fornari (the Italian Administrator of the territory) said that this was a wartime event and that during the war 'many things disappeared and others were destroyed'. Questions like this had been settled by treaties concluded at the close of hostilities, and the Administering Authority in Somaliland bore no responsibility in the matter. He could not comment further on the subject.

Productivity up among US railwaymen

IN A STATEMENT issued towards the end of August, the US Bureau of Labor Statistics reported that the productivity of America's workers is rising sharply.

It revealed that in 1950 output per man-hour exceeded that of the previous year in twenty-four out of twenty-six major industries, among which one of the best records is that held by US railwaymen. A substantial increase in rail traffic during 1950 brought output per man-hour up to ten per cent above that of 1949, a performance which was bettered in only two other American industries - rayon manufacturing with a nineteen per cent rise and beehive coke manufacture, with 22 per cent.

US railway traffic developments

DURING THE FIRST FOUR MONTHS of 1951, each serviceable United States railway freight car travelled 10 per cent more miles per day than in 1948, reflecting greater efficiency in the handling of traffic on the railways.

Traffic pattern changes brought on by the Korean crisis also resulted in increases in the average length of haul and it is estimated that the average ton of freight was hauled 430 miles during the first half of 1951, compared with 413 miles in 1948.

Both these performance averages are well above those for the last two years, but the year 1948 is used here for comparison purposes owing to the fact that strikes occurring in major in-

dustries in 1949 and 1950 upset traffic patterns, and because carloadings and car supply now more clearly approach the situation existing in 1948, which was the second best year on record in respect of the number of tons of traffic handled.

During the first half of 1951, total carloadings were 11.4 per cent greater than during the first half of 1950, but about 4.5 per cent under the figure for the corresponding period of 1948.

Construction of 'rubber' railway in Ohio planned

A PROPOSAL TO CONSTRUCT what would be the world's longest belt conveyor - connecting Lake Erie with the Ohio River and stretching 130 miles across Eastern Ohio - is being held up by the Rules Committee of the Ohio State Senate, as a result of opposition from twelve of the thirteen railway companies operating in the area.

If and when completed, the two-way belt will become an important element in the United States defence programme, since its backers contend that it would be able to transport thirty-two million of iron annually from Cleveland to Youngstown and other steel-producing cities. In the other direction, the conveyor belt would be able to take twenty-six million tons of coal to the important industrial area of which Cleveland is the centre.

The probable cost of the scheme would be in the region of \$ 210,000,000, which, its backers say, could be amortized within twenty years.

The American transport picture

THE *American Locomotive Engineers' Journal* has recently published some interesting figures concerning the number of transport undertakings now being operated in the United States.

From these, it appears that there are at present 690 American railway companies, operating over 224,500 miles of permanent way or 29 per cent of the total world railway mileage.

There are, in addition, 19,690 motor carriers of property and 1,571 carriers of persons engaged in transport under the provisions of the Interstate Commerce Act, plus 40,000 carriers transporting 'exempt' commodities, for which no authority from the Interstate Commerce Commission is required. Finally, there are an estimated 130,000 private motor carriers transporting property bought or sold by them incidental to their manufacturing or mercantile business.

There are also 265 American steamship lines which operate to and from United States ports, not including those companies engaged in shipping operations on the Great Lakes.

Freight handling in the USA

The impressions of a member of a British freight handling specialist team,

by T.W. Condon, Docks Group Secretary, British Transport and General Workers' Union

The British specialist team with whose work the following article is concerned was one of fifty of such teams which have visited the United States during the past three years, under the auspices of the Anglo-American Council on Productivity.

The Anglo-American Council on Productivity was formed, in the autumn of 1948, on the initiative of the then Chancellor of the Exchequer in Britain, Sir Stafford Cripps, and Mr Paul Hoffman, the Economic Co-operation Administrator in the USA. It is composed of representatives of management and labour in both countries.

In its United Kingdom section, the constituent bodies are the

Federation of British Industries, the British Employers' Confederation and the Trades Union Congress. The purpose of the Council is to promote economic wellbeing by a free exchange of knowledge in the realm of industrial organization, method and technique, and thereby to assist British industry to raise the level of its productivity.

The business of its productivity teams, the members of which are drawn in equal numbers from the supervisory, technical and workshop levels, is to study American production methods, to draw up independent reports on their observations and findings, and to make recommendations.

MY FIRST VIEW OF AMERICA was at eventide as we steamed up the Hudson River, with the lights twinkling on Long Island, the advertising signs in neon lights blazing the skyline broken by the tall buildings on Manhattan Island and the unforgettable sight of the Statue of Liberty.

When we landed the following morning I was very impressed by the hustle and bustle on the quayside and at the ends of the piers, but I soon realised that all movement was not necessarily progress. The time lost by road vehicles must be tremendous; the congestion on the roads at the shore end of the pier being greater than anything I have witnessed in a British port. It is a problem that must be solved if New York is to continue handling the vast quantities of merchandise that it does today.

After settling our accommodation for the time we were to stay in New York, we were entertained to lunch by representatives of the British and Irish Railways where we met various railway personalities. In the evening we were introduced to members of the English Speaking Union and given the freedom of their headquarters.

The following day, being Sunday, was a free day which I spent in making myself familiar with parts of New York which, up to that moment, were only names. I wandered through Harlem and saw the coloured folk at home; noted that the avenues ran from North to South and the numbered intersection streets ran from East to West. I sat in Central Park not far from the Tavern on the Green and watched New York's humanity taking the air and playing baseball with, as it seemed to me, much more energy than would be displayed at home. The variety of nationalities present in the park was a revelation and many, what appeared to me, curious types passed by. It was also interesting to watch the flow of automobiles to Coney Island, ranging from the most up-to-date limousines to the most ramshackle cars one could imagine, and carrying all kinds of people from fair Northerners through all shades of

colour to the deepest black – all bent upon enjoying themselves to the full.

The team sets to work

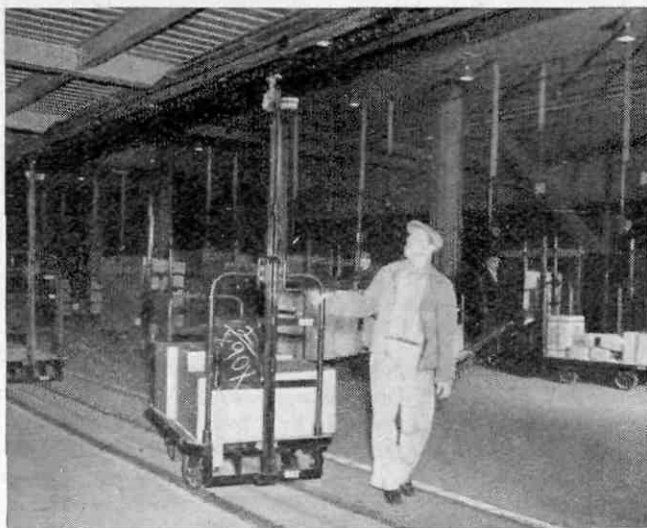
On Monday our work began. We were met by members of the Anglo-American Council, briefed as to our visits, introduced to various Officers of the Council and presented with our work programme.

The Team, being a specialist one comprising representatives of Road, Rail and Docks, was scheduled to visit the following towns and areas: New York, Boston, Buffalo, Chicago, Indiana Harbour, St. Louis, Indianapolis, Washington, Baltimore, Philadelphia, Mexico (Missouri), New Orleans and Hampton Roads (Va.) and to inspect in those places some eighty different establishments. Notwithstanding the fact that we completed our programme and even included visits to several places not on the schedule, it is not to be wondered at that, towards the end of the tour, members of the Team showed considerable signs of weariness.

As I am to use an American phrase, a Marine Terminal man or Longshoreman, I think it would be proper to deal with the Marine Terminal aspect of our visit.

I visited the following ports: – New York, Boston, Chicago, Indiana Harbour, New Orleans, Hampton Roads, Philadelphia and Baltimore, and noted the very great difference between the North American Eastern ports and British ports. In all the ports the rise and fall of the tide is slight, amounting to from four to six feet. There are no enclosed docks or very few in the smaller ports; the rivers are naturally deep and ocean vessels can be berthed at all states of the tide and lie afloat during the loading and discharge of cargo.

With few exceptions, e.g. New Orleans, the Camden Wharf at Philadelphia, the River Wharves in Chicago, Port Newark, New Jersey, and the proposed new quays at Boston, all the berths are on the 'finger pier' principle, jutting out at right



*Platform man coupling flat car to overhead conveyor
Photo The Port of New York Authority*



*Marking loading section number to which barrel will be moved
via conveyor. Photo The Port of New York Authority*

angles to the foreshore. These natural advantages enable the American Port Authorities to save large sums of money in not providing enclosed docks. Some of the new piers have wide aprons or quays and depressed rail tracks running down the centre of the piers; the floor of the pier being on the level of the truck floor and thus forming a loading bank.

Port Management

The Harbour Authorities in the North American Eastern Ports function differently from their counterparts in Great Britain, and do not appear to be as closely associated with traders, shippers and shipowners as they are here. The piers are not owned solely by the Harbour Authorities. Many of them are owned by the municipal authority, railroad companies etc. The railroad companies exercise great influence in the operation of US Eastern Ports and it will be interesting to note the effect of the growing road transport interests which are gradually eating their way into railroad traffic.

Some Harbour Authorities obtain revenue from airports, bridges and tunnels in addition to that received from Terminals.

Harbour Authorities indulge in large scale publicity and compete fiercely with one another.

Operators who lease piers have a free hand in the control of their work and provide whatever equipment they desire, with the exception of cargo beams which are part of the shed construction and used in the processes of loading and discharging cargo.

Pier & Shed Facilities

There is very little space outside the pier shed wall, generally not more than six feet. Some of the modern piers have aprons or quays up to thirty feet wide with rail tracks running the length of the pier. Portal Cranes of the type seen in Europe are rarely seen in America, their places being taken by the 'cargo hoist or housefall'.

As explained earlier, the pier sheds are constructed with a framework towering above the roof of the shed which is called a 'cargo beam'. In each section of the beam is fitted a pulley which can be moved to any position in the section.

On the ship the outboard derrick is rigged outboard; falls are reeved through the cargo beam and derrick pulleys, the end of the ship's fall being attached to the ship's winch, while the end of the 'housefall' can be attached either to the ship's winch or to a winch on the shore. This method of rigging the lifting gear is similar to the 'Union or Married Purchase' so common in British Ports, but its attachment to the shore gives a greater drift and enables goods to be landed to or delivered from either the ground or upper floors of a shed.

The cheapness of fitting this kind of appliance appeals to the American operator who can see no merit in investing capital in expensive cranes.

Rail and Road Facilities

With the exception of New York, most Ports have direct rail access to their piers. In New York the rail access is by ferry or float. These floats carry some twenty cars from the mainland to the pier or ship. Rail cars in America have a greater carrying capacity than those in Great Britain.

The transport of goods by road is on the increase. In New York, for example, over 40 per cent of the import and export cargoes are handled to and from the piers by road vehicles. Articulated vehicles and trailers are popular for long distance traffic. In recent years these have increased both in numbers and in size, being designed to carry up to thirty tons weight. For suburban traffic, few private trader undertakings operate their own organization as it is, for a variety of reasons, considered more economical to allow road haulage organizations to perform the service for them.

Mechanical Equipment

I was to some extent disappointed at the degree of mechanization for I had expected to see the work at Marine Terminals almost completely mechanized. Instead I saw much the same equipment as is used at the major Ports in Britain - mobile cranes, lift trucks of various types, tractors and trailers, mechanical bogies, straddle trucks (Ross Hyster Carriers) and power driven conveyors. I observed that port pallets were fitted with eye bolts and used as scale boards. These, when necessary,

were piled several pallets high to make greater use of the shed space. Mobile trucks were in general use for the transport of pre-palletized goods to and from the ship's side. It was in New Orleans that I saw the most complete use of pallets in connection with one firm's products. The loaded pallets were stacked in the transit shed awaiting shipment and, when required, were broken down, conveyed to ships' slings, hoisted aboard and stowed complete in the hold, the same process being used in reverse at the port of disembarkation, the palletized goods arriving at the merchant's premises for distribution without the unit load having been broken during transit. The other types of mechanical equipment I saw in use were lift trucks with the following attachments: — squeeze grip for lifting and piling bale goods, spindle or boom, single and double, for piling rolls of newsprint, pusher for use when 'take it or leave it' pallets or slip pallets are used, roller dollies which are used in vehicles when it is impossible to take a lift truck inside the vehicle — the pallet being placed on the dolly, the goods stowed thereon, and then easily moved to the door of the vehicle, where the pallet can be taken by the lift truck.

Labour

It is interesting to note the remarks of Mr Austin Tobin, Executive Director of the Port of New York Authority, when he visited this country, as quoted in the Journal of Commerce and Shipping Telegraph, 17th October 1950 —

'I was also impressed by how far ahead you are in the orderliness of your labour arrangements as compared to our own, and I think you are fully twenty years ahead of us in what you have achieved, particularly with regard to the decasualization of labour'.

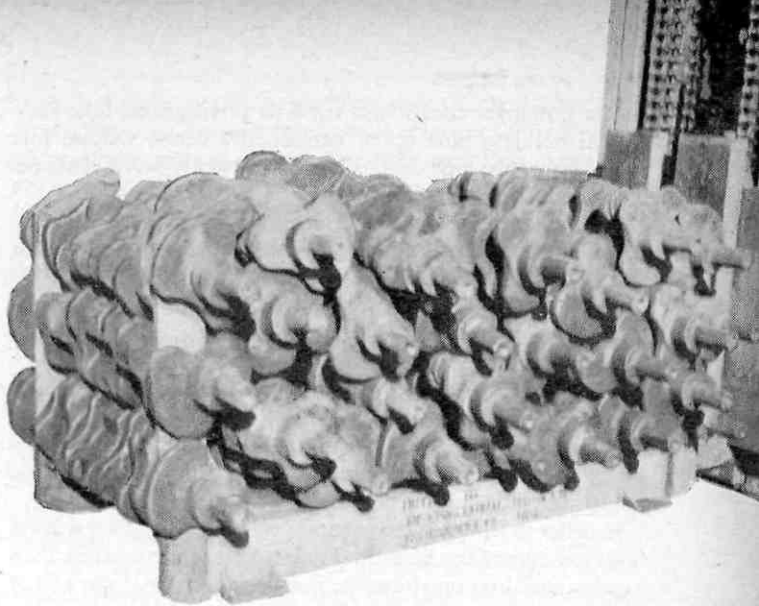
I agree with Mr Tobin, but would venture to give the time period as thirty years, not twenty.

At none of the ports visited did I find labour arrangements to compare with our own and generally the welfare aspect of a Longshoreman's life appeared to be behind ours. Generally I found the Longshoremen were physically of good type. In some parts, coloured labour predominated, and in very few instances did I notice men in the fifties at work. I put the average age at forty-five years and wondered what became of the older men.

The Longshoremen, i.e. the men engaged in loading or discharging ships, are generally members of the 'local' of the International Longshoremen's Association.

The normal hours of work are forty per week, 8 a.m. to noon; 1 p.m. to 5 p.m. on five days, Monday to Friday. Overtime can be worked on any night of the week or in the morning or afternoon of Saturday, Sunday or holidays. Work on Saturday night is only permitted — a) to complete a ship and b) to handle mails or passengers' baggage. Normal meal hours are from noon to 1 p.m. Overtime meal hours are from 6 p.m. to 7 p.m. and 12 midnight to 1 a.m.

The day wage paid under the existing agreement is one dollar eighty-eight cents per hour or seven dollars fifty-two cents for the four hour period. Additional rates are paid for handling special types of cargo. The overtime pay is one and a half times the normal rate and is paid for work performed outside the normal hours and also for the legal holidays which are defined in the agreement. These holidays differ in the ports. There is a system of recording the day-to-day employment of a man and an annual holiday with pay is granted on the following basis: — one week to men who have worked 850 hours and over; two weeks to men who have worked 1350 hours and over.



Bottom:
Cartons of brake assemblies on an expendable pallet

Top:
Crankshaft rough forgings stacked on a mechanical handling skid

The Employer contributes towards privileges as follows: – annual holidays nine cents; pension five cents; welfare four cents; insurance nine cents – a total of twenty-seven cents per man per hour.

A comparatively low rate of unemployment pay is provided under State regulations which may differ from State to State. The State regulates Workmen's Compensation.

I learned that schemes for such items as life assurance, medical treatment during illness and accidents etc. were being discussed between the interested parties.

All work is performed on the timework basis, no incentive schemes being in operation, but notwithstanding I was assured that the tonnages handled were high. I found it difficult to get accurate statistics; some of the tonnages being less than those quoted some twenty-three years back.

In order to compare the cost of a main meal I visited a dock-side café during the time the Longshoremen were eating their midday meal and saw from the published tariff that the cost of an average meal, consisting of meat, two vegetables, sweet and coffee was approximately 60/70 cents (5/- to 5/10d.) representing some 30/40 per cent of a man's hourly pay. A similar meal in London, not so large in quantity, would cost 1/6d. to 1/8d., about 36/40 per cent of an average hour's earnings.

It was stated that supervision was very keen, there being a gang foreman to each hold and a ship and quay foreman to each ship, with a Pier Superintendent in charge of the whole. We were also assured that while longshoremen were not angels they have a sense of discipline and on those occasions when disciplinary measures had to be applied, if they were reasonable the Union did not support the men in their breaches of the rules.

Smoking aboard ship is not tolerated and if indulged in and detected, drastic action is taken against the offender.

Employers informed me that they had little to complain of as regard restrictive practices. There are no a.m. and p.m. breaks for refreshments but unofficially men leave a few at a time for a smoke and refreshment but the work does not stop. In some places, automatic machines containing fruit, sweets, chewing gum and soft drinks etc. have been installed and these have proved very popular.

Generally at all ports a composite gang is used and placed as follows: – eight in hold, three on deck and ten on quay. At some ports, arrangements exist whereby men, being part of the same gang, will transfer from quay to ship and vice versa but they will not agree to any reduction in the twenty-one man gangs.

At the largest port on the Atlantic seaboard – New York – we were informed that the average employment over the whole labour force in the port was approximately 60 per cent.

In my spare time I contacted as many of the American people of all sections as was possible and was given many interesting sidelights on life in America. These, however, are too sketchy to put down in writing. It would take much more time and greater concentration than I had at my disposal to have checked the wide divergencies I discovered in conversation. Nevertheless, I am grateful to longshoremen, truck drivers, railway conductors, waitresses (hash slingers), men in clerical, administrative and supervisory grades, executives, soldiers and sailors of many ranks, and employers for many interesting and informative informal conversations which helped me so much to get a glimpse of the life of an average American. I enjoyed every minute of my stay in America although often the way was hard.

When a prize is not a prize . . .

INCREASED PRODUCTIVITY on the part of East German railwaymen does not result in the payment of higher wages. Instead, the Communist railway authorities have introduced a system whereby railway staffs are given 'prizes' for having either fulfilled or surpassed their 'work quotas'.

Each month, in railway offices and repair shops throughout the Eastern Zone of Germany, work competitions are ordered. Railway staffs who are fortunate enough to be successful in these receive both official praise and a prize.

Payment for overtime or material compensation for special shifts and the fulfilling of quotas is now a thing of the past. Instead, the staff of a railway depôt, workshop or station is given points which count towards their position in the monthly competition. If at the end of the month, a sufficient number of points has been accumulated to win the competition, the railwaymen concerned are in luck. If not, then they receive no compensation whatsoever for their extra effort.

The prizes themselves amount to 10,000 East German Marks. If they were divided equally among the workers of a railway depôt employing say 1,000 men, then each railwayman would, for his pains, be able to buy only an extra three-quarters of a pound of sausage in one of the State shops.

However, there is still another catch in the system. Only in very rare cases is the prize actually shared out. Usually most

of it is used, 'at the request of the management', for the construction and extension of 'culture corners', of 'progressive' works libraries or of 'education and discussion rooms'. In other words, the prizes are used solely for the further political indoctrination of the unfortunate railway workers. The only satisfaction they obtain from the system, therefore, is that of knowing that they can be considered as 'ideologically sound' members of the railway staff.

State road transport corporation for Hyderabad

THE HYDERABAD State Road Transport Department, which is at present being administered by the Government of India on an agency basis, is next year to be made into a corporation on the lines of the Bombay State Road Transport Corporation.

The former road motor services of the Nizam of Hyderabad's State Railway have been under the control of the Indian Government since the integration of the Hyderabad railways into the Indian railway system.

It will be recalled that the Hyderabad State Government earlier decided that all private transport in the State should be progressively abolished. Accordingly, the bus route from Hyderabad to Secunderabad was taken over by the Government during the course of last year.

New apparatus for coal working

A NEW TYPE OF MECHANICAL TRIMMER has been introduced in the port of Rotterdam, which greatly facilitate the working of coal 'tween decks of ocean-going vessels. It has not yet proved possible to adjust it for use in loading the lower holds as well. Our affiliated union reports that, in its opinion, the machine is a great improvement on the methods hitherto applied. Before its introduction the dockers had, as a rule, while stowing the cargo, to spend hours by candlelight, kneeling on the coal and hanging on to the deck, all the while filling their lungs with coal-dust.

The mechanical trimmer has taken the place of the docker and is able to cope with the flow of coal fed to it by two cranes at a time. The handling of the machine requires two men, the bos'n and another who might be called the trimming-machine operator. Under their supervision the machine performs the task of loading far more efficiently than could the dockers. Our union applauds the introduction of this new apparatus, which eliminates a particularly detestable kind of manual labour.

On the one-man bus

AT THE LATEST CONGRESS of the International Union of Public Transport held at Edinburgh in June of this year, the question of buses operated by one man was referred to in two discussions, one of which dealing with bus transmission and the other with fares. For the following summary of these discussions we are indebted to the British transport journal *Modern Transport*.

By 1954 there would be 8,000 fluid transmission buses in the London fleet. They could run 200,000 miles without attention compared with 20,000 for clutch and 60,000 for the plain gearbox of former days. In the US the use of 100-passenger one-man buses had made two-pedal control and hydraulic transmission with a larger engine popular, but in view of the short life operators now questioned it. The chief mechanical engineer of London Transport saw no immediate future for the gas turbine despite its potential advantages, so that the search for transmission improvements continued to be worth while. In the upshot it was concluded that the friction clutch and gearbox was best suited to interurban work, the fluid coupling and the preselector box for two-man city operation, and the hydraulic torque converter for one-man city service.

Much thought was devoted to the prospects of the one-man bus as a means of lowering the cost of city service in connection with the report on fare collection. Many undertakings had found resistance to proposals for higher fares. One operator who had fifteen years of one-man bus experience said they were unattractive because they involved reduced hours for the staff, reduced overall speed and longer layovers. For Europeans it was no use studying theoretical data worked out in the USA; instead, every individual route of an undertaking had to be analyzed before making any application. It might have been added that it was the US shortage of labour and high wages which brought about one-man operation and that to try keep reasonable schedules the size of the engine had to be disproportionately great. Heavy fuel consumption does not matter where fuel is so cheap, but it might be disastrous to import such practice into Europe. One-man operation goes with a flat fare, with consequent discouragement of short riders, and gradual tendency to raise the minimum fare still higher. On the contrary, in Paris a definite

attempt is made by the adopted fare scale to retain short riders on the buses and attract those making longer journeys to the underground railway system. The fixed cash desk buses were not entirely satisfactory in central Paris as those making very short journeys were sometimes carried past their destination before they could pay. The congress finally accepted a suggestion that some extended experiments with one-man city operation might be worth while.

Praise for British dock workers' efforts

THE SECTION of the recently-published British Transport Commission Report for 1950 dealing with the work of the Docks and Inland Waterways Executive contains a tribute to the part played by British dockers in speeding up the turn-round of shipping. The report says:

'The efficiency of a port can be gauged by the speed of turn-round of shipping resorting to it. This depends upon a variety of considerations, but primarily on the skill and zeal of the labour employed and the adequacy of the lay-out and mechanical equipment. Special attention has been given to all factors bearing upon the rate of turn-round, with some gratifying results. The Executive wishes to acknowledge the efforts of its dock staffs and the dockers employed in the ports under its charge and the good rate of output which has been attained.'

The customs barriers go down

A PIECE OF HISTORY WAS MADE at Basle on 5 September last when a lorry-load of merchandise passed freely across the German-Swiss frontier there, bound for the Netherlands. No money was paid in customs duty for the goods in transit, no time and patience lost, no goods damaged by unloading for customs inspection.

The secret of this easy passage was to be found in the blue-and-white plate carried on the front and rear ends of the vehicle, and bearing the magic letters TIR. The goods were sealed and the lorry driver was able to produce a carnet, visaed by the customs authorities in the country of origin when the goods were first loaded. No further customs inspection took place until the lorry reached its destination in Holland.

The introduction of the Carnet TIR (International Road Transport Carnet) marks the successful conclusion of three years' negotiations among eleven European countries within the framework of the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe at Geneva. The system, which was first suggested by Mr Jean Pochelu of the French customs service, is based on the principle that the seal placed on goods by the customs officials of one country is accepted by those of other countries.

On 16 June 1949, the governments concerned signed a provisional agreement to put into force a draft customs convention on the international transport of goods by road, but many obstacles to its practical application remained. For example, insurance companies had to be found, willing to insure the plan against abuse, and the conditions of insurance had to be agreed upon by the governments.

Now, however, many of these obstacles have been successfully overcome and, as of 5 September, the TIR system is in operation in the Netherlands, Switzerland and the Western Zones of Germany.

Other countries are expected to join in the system soon.

Decasualization of dock labour (2)

United Kingdom

General Features

The British scheme may be considered first because it is as comprehensive as any, it is established in an economy whose port industry has an importance commensurate with the large fraction of the national income derived from sea trade, and it is the product of long experience in attempts to stabilize the earnings of dockworkers.

Attention must be drawn to two characteristics of the British scheme that are significant and will call for consideration later. One is that, while the structure of the scheme is determined by statute, its working and implementation are subject to negotiation and agreement between the representatives of employers and workers on the national joint council of the industry, independent of the Government or any other third party. This is in keeping with general practice in the United Kingdom, where several important industries have similar national joint councils, and where it is Government policy to leave the scope and subject matter of free collective bargaining as broad as possible.

Secondly, certain elements in the present scheme have been taken over from the preceding schemes with little or no modification, even though they may not be fully consistent with the objectives and general rationale of the new scheme. For instance, apart from the heavy reductions in the registers of the Merseyside and Clydeside ports which became necessary after the abnormal wartime demand for dock labour had subsided, the registers used in the present scheme were taken over from the previous schemes with few changes. Moreover, although the National Dock Labour Board, which is entrusted with the over-all administration of the present scheme in accordance with the collective agreements reached at the national joint council, has considerable authority, it interferes as little as it can with the local custom and practice of each of the 83 principal ports of the country and gives considerable freedom in all except certain specific matters to the twenty-four local boards which control most of these ports. As a result there is considerable diversity between the conditions prevailing in the different ports. In fact, 'local conditions vary so considerably from port to port, between cargo and cargo, between ship and ship, and even between the holds of the same ship, that a detailed and complex series of local agreements has been required to translate the national agreement into terms applicable to conditions in the individual ports.'¹⁰

Attendance Money, Minimum Wage and Guaranteed Wage

The details of the British scheme are as follows. Only workers whose names are included on either the regular or temporary registers of dock labour may be employed in dock work, and only registered employers may hire them. The benefits of the scheme and the obligations entailed under it apply to all of the 75,620 workers on the regular register¹¹ and to all of the registered employers.

Of the total number of men on the regular workers' register, a minor fraction are on a 'suspense register' and a further,

smaller fraction on a 'dormant register'. Included on the suspense register are those temporarily unavailable for work for reasons such as sickness and for periods up to sixteen weeks, while the dormant register lists those who are sick or otherwise off work for more than sixteen weeks, including those in the armed forces. Dockworkers receive no income from the docks or dock boards while on these registers, but are transferred to the live register as soon as they are available for work. At eleven regular times each week, twice on each week day (usually at eight a.m. and at noon) and once on Saturday morning, a 'turn' of four hours begins and dockworkers on the live registers are hired and allocated to what work is available, or continue their work if they are weekly workers, or 'prove attendance' if no work can be offered to them. So long as they are employed, they receive the rate for the job (ninety-eight per cent being employed on a piece-work basis) and, under the terms of a collective agreement, no employer may pay them less than nineteen shillings a day or £5 4s. 6d. a week.¹² If they are not offered work and they are able-bodied and therefore in category 'A', they are entitled to five shillings attendance money for each turn at which they have proved attendance. If their total earnings plus attendance money for the week fall short of eighty-eight shillings and they are under eighty-five years of age, the board pays them a sufficient additional sum to bring their total weekly wage up to that guaranteed minimum, or up to sixty-six shillings if they are between sixty-five and sixty-nine years of age. If men are not offered work and they are in category 'C' because they are only capable of undertaking light work, they are entitled to five shillings attendance money for each turn up to a maximum of six in any one week. They also receive a guaranteed minimum wage, including earnings and attendance money, of not less than forty-eight shillings a week if they are under sixty-five years, or thirty-six shillings if they are between sixty-five and sixty-nine years of age. Dockworkers over seventy years of age are not included in categories 'A' or 'C', neither are they entitled to the guaranteed minimum wage. But they are entitled to five shillings attendance money up to a maximum of six turns a week if they are not offered employment. Thus, all able-bodied registered dockworkers regularly offering themselves for employment are assured of five shillings attendance money plus three shillings 'guarantee make-up', or a total of eight shillings for every half-day or 'turn' when they are unemployed, and a minimum wage of nine shillings and sixpence for every half-day or 'turn' when they are employed. When employed, some workers can earn as much as one or even two pounds for every turn at the current piece-wages. For all registered dockworkers, including those in category 'C' and those over seventy years of age, total earnings (including wages, attendance money, guarantee make-up, travel time allowance, and holiday pay) averaged £7 19s. 11d. a week in 1948 and £8 8s. 11d. in 1949. During the year each registered worker is permitted one week's holiday before the end of March,

another three full day's holiday before the end of September, at national standard time-rates of pay.

Each dockworker has a record book, containing one sheet for each week and eleven spaces on each sheet – one space for each turn. One of three kinds of stamps may be fixed in each space. One records employment offered and accepted; all work offered must be accepted. Another records the fact that no work could be offered but that attendance has been proved; five shillings is payable in respect of each of these stamps at the end of the week. A third stamp, known as an 'excuse stamp', may be affixed to indicate that, though the worker did not attend at the beginning of the turn in question, he has shown adequate cause, such as sickness, for not doing so and he will only lose his attendance money for that turn.¹³ No medical certificate is required to prove that the worker has been sick so long as his word is trusted. The system of 'excuse' stamps provides a useful degree of flexibility in the application of the scheme. For instance, if a gang has been working continuously for several days on a heavy cargo and is in need of a rest, each member of the gang may be allowed excuse stamps for two or three subsequent turns.

If any of the spaces on the sheets of the record book remain vacant, this indicates that the holder has broken his contractual obligation under the scheme to attend at every turn when he is able (if he is on category 'A') or at least at six out of the eleven (if he is in category 'C' or over seventy years of age). In this event the dockworker loses his right to any payment of attendance money or guarantee make-up for each week in which such failure to attend occurs or continues.

Daily Transfers

Each registered dockworker must be prepared to travel to any other port or place within daily travelling distance of his home to undertake, at the rate of pay prevailing in that place, any work to which he is assigned by the board. Workers required to travel are normally assured of employment for a full day or shift on arrival, or must be paid the equivalent time rate in any case of breakdown or delay, and are given a day's notice of transfer, except in a particular emergency. In addition to the provision of free transport, a travel time allowance is paid at the rate of two shillings and sixpence an hour in respect of any time before or after the normal day or shift working hours necessarily occupied in travel. All costs in respect of daily transfers, apart from the wages paid by the employers for work actually done, are borne by the National Dock Labour Board. Daily transfers are common between the different London docks, where special buses are employed for the purpose, but workers have also been transferred for the day from Cardiff to Newport, from Newport to Avonmouth, and from Glasgow to Bo'ness and Leith. Only journeys involving up to two hours' travel in each direction are normally attempted, the two and a half hour transfer between Dundee and Grangemouth being regarded as an absolute maximum.

Period Transfers

Under the wartime schemes, transfers for periods longer than one day were also compulsory, and all dockworkers in what was called category 'B' were obliged to accept transfer for a period. Category 'B' has now been abolished, and under the provisions of a collective agreement of 31 January 1948¹⁴ period transfers are undertaken on a purely voluntary basis. No difficulty is ever encountered in obtaining sufficient dockworkers

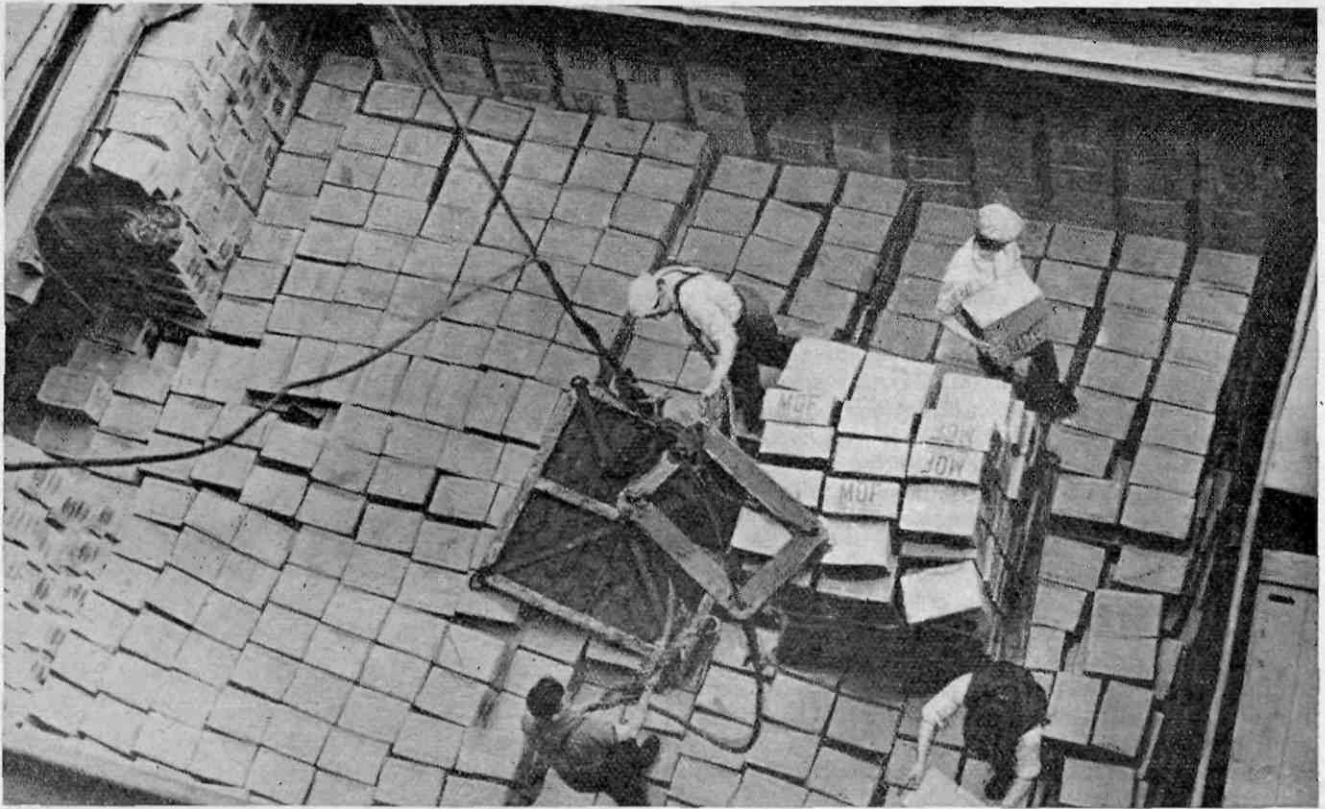


Cargo of grain being unloaded at a Great Lakes elevator

for this purpose, however, as period transfers are popular. In addition to the fare and an allowance of five shillings for the journey payable before departure, workers transferred are paid at the national standard time-wage rate for each half-day spent in travel, if travelling between Monday and Saturday noon,¹⁵ and two shillings and sixpence an hour, if travelling outside normal working hours between Monday and Friday, with a minimum payment of four hours at the latter rate if travelling during a week-end. Transferred workers are paid seven shillings subsistence allowance for each night that they spend at the port to which they are transferred, in so far as they are required to remain at that port in order to complete the work, or, if unfit to travel owing to sickness or injury arising during transfer, in order to rest pending return to work, removal to hospital or return (after a period not normally exceeding three weeks). In cases of serious illness or injury a free return ticket may be allowed to the dockworker's wife or other near relative to enable one or other of them to visit him. Any worker returned home for *bona fide* domestic reasons approved by the local board is treated as if he had been returned home at the end of a transfer, being entitled to the same allowances.

All transferred workers retain their rights under the stabilization scheme, including attendance money and the guaranteed wage, but must accept the rates of pay and conditions applicable in the port to which they are transferred. Piece-rates vary considerably from port to port, and workers have had to accustom themselves to the possibility of loss as well as gain in their earning power when temporarily transferred.

Period transfers have been undertaken over such distances as from Swansea to Hull, Manchester to Grangemouth, Glas-



London dockers discharging the first consignment of dried fruit under ERP, 21 March, 1949

gow to Hull, and Grimsby to Grangemouth. Usually workers are not away for periods longer than thirty days, since the sudden increase in traffic which has necessitated the transfer is seldom so great that the extra work involved cannot be completed within a month. In any case, all transferred workers have the option to return to their home port at the end of eight weeks.

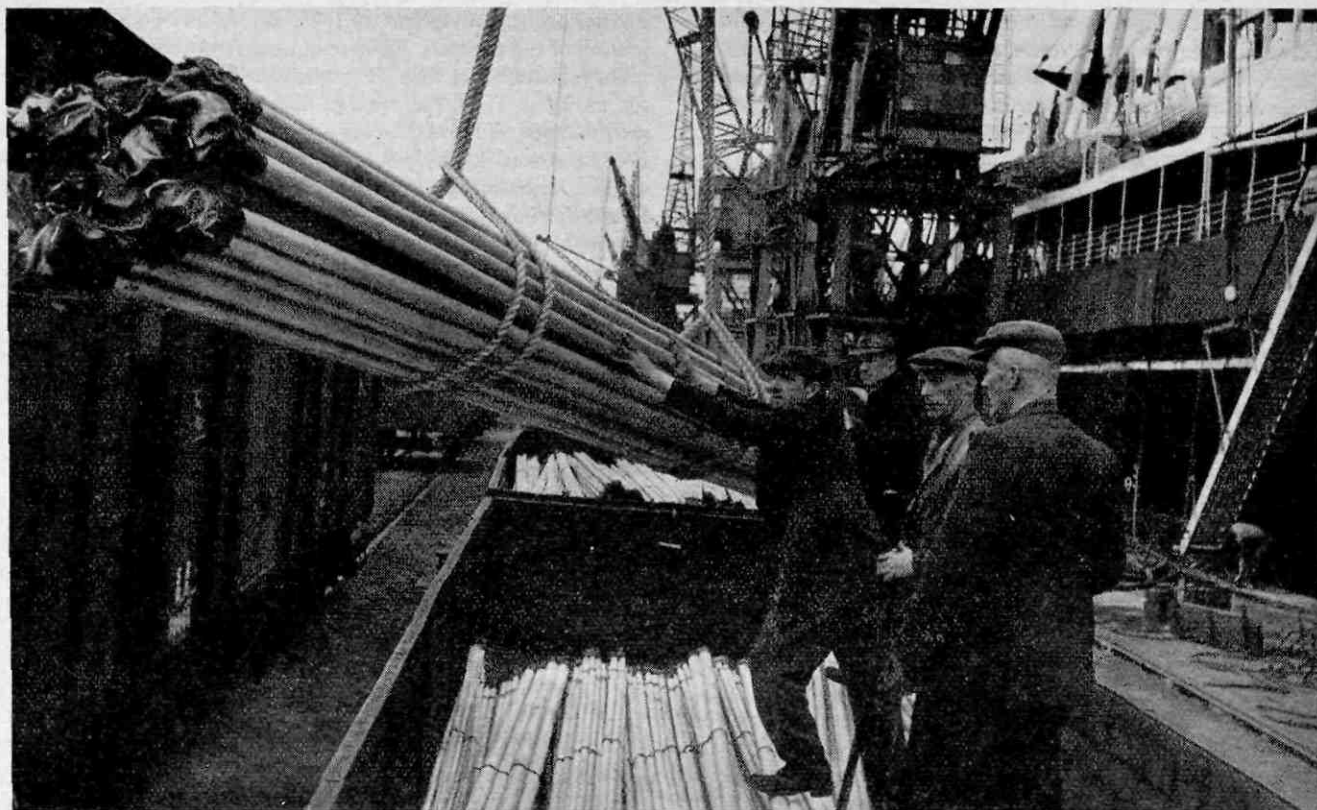
Coordination

The daily and period transfer schemes make an important contribution to the possibilities of stabilizing earnings at a minimum cost, since they render it much easier to provide sufficient labour to meet all demands, even when the volume of traffic is at a peak, without the necessity of having large numbers of men on the registers, who would only be fully employed at peak periods and who would be drawing considerable sums in attendance money and guarantee make-up at other times. With each port facing a different trade route, serving a different hinterland and in many cases specializing in certain cargoes and types of shipping, peak demands for labour do not coincide at all the ports. There is always an opportunity to transfer men from a port which is slack to one which is busy, and in the United Kingdom full advantage is taken of this opportunity. At the outset of each day, following an agreed time schedule, an official reports by telephone to the National Dock Labour Board from each local board area the number of men required, hired, proving attendance, sick or absent, the amount of labour shortage or surplus, and the nature and causes of delays at various ships, including the state of the weather in each of the ports under his surveillance. These reports are combined and tabulated in the London Offices of the National Dock Labour

Board, and copies of the analysis sheets are transmitted the same day to the Ministry of Transport and the Timber Control Division of the Board of Trade. By reference to these data the National Dock Labour Board can immediately arrange all daily and period transfers that are needed to overcome local shortages of labour. Similarly, timber-carrying ships approaching the United Kingdom can be allocated by Timber Control to the least congested ports where most labour is available, especially as timber is not a perishable cargo. This is important because timber is bulky and requires a lot of handling. The Ministry of Transport can also allocate other ships, such as those carrying cargoes for the Ministry of Food or ships under Government charter, in the same way and can be guided in its plans for port reconstruction and development by these returns.

Administration and Finance

The National Dock Labour Board, consisting of a Chairman, Vice-Chairman and, at present, eight members, all appointed by the Minister of Labour and National Service, is responsible for the administration of the scheme and for determining the numbers of workers to be included in the dock registers. Board membership is limited to a maximum of ten (aside from the Chairman and Vice-Chairman), of whom eight must be appointed on the nomination of the National Joint Council for the Port Transport Industry, four to represent dock employers and four to represent dockworkers. The National Board is empowered to delegate the local administration of the scheme to the local dock labour boards set up in each port, or group of ports, covered by the scheme. In particular, the local boards maintain registers of employers and dockworkers in their port of area,



Dockers at Cardiff unloading a cargo of steel pipes. British Railways photo by J. Allen Cash

subject to the over-all approval of the National Board; allocate dockworkers to dock employers or to other work; keep all necessary records, including those of attendance; pay wages as agents of the employers, make other payments under the scheme and collect social security contributions from the workers and employers. Each local board is appointed by the National Board and consists of an equal number of representatives of local employers and workers.

All costs of the stabilization scheme, including those of administration, are borne by the employers, who pay levies equal to a certain percentage of their payrolls. At present, the levy is 15 per cent of the total wages paid to casual workers and 5 per cent of those paid to weekly workers. This yields just over £ 3½ millions per annum, of which most is paid into the management fund, the rest being allocated to a general reserve and to welfare.¹⁶ The National Board cannot raise the levy beyond 25 per cent without consulting the Minister of Labour.

It will be noted that income and expenditure under the scheme are inversely related; if the volume of traffic declines, payrolls and levies will decrease and unemployment and attendance money and guarantee make-up payments will increase. However, £1 million is held in reserve, and the resources of the Board are considered adequate to ensure the survival of the scheme during any trade recession. In 1949, attendance money payments amounted to a total of £1,007,000 with an average of 9.5 per cent of the registered labour force out of work, and the guarantee make-up payments amounted to £105,200 for the year. The wages paid by the employers amounted to £23,741,600 for the whole year.

The question arises at this point as to whether the scheme is

too costly; can the industry support it in the long run? It is likely that it can. For one thing, the productivity of labour is probably higher than it would be in the absence of the scheme. Greater economic security and adequate remuneration are conducive not only to better health and higher morale, but also attract and retain good workers in the industry, not all of whom would remain under completely unstable conditions. Furthermore, while positive evidence is still hard to find in the United Kingdom of greater readiness among dockworkers to accept manning scales which render further mechanization profitable, it seems reasonable to assume that, where workers are assured of a living wage, they will be more willing than they would otherwise be to regard the introduction of machines and innovation as a means of raising their productivity and thereby their earnings. Under casual conditions, their every effort carries them further toward the completion of a job and the cessation of income from it, and machines seem only to speed them out of a job or to displace them completely.

In the second place, the present rate of levies supporting the scheme adds so little to the price of goods passing through the docks as to have no adverse effect on the volume of trade in a period of rising prices, with the possible exception that buyers of goods exported to highly competitive, hard-currency areas might be sensitive to slight price changes. In periods of worsening trade and falling prices, when the volume of trade would react more sensitively to the burden of cargo-handling costs, employment, payrolls, and therefore levies, would be lower, and the Board's reserves would be drawn on to support the scheme. Moreover, acceptance of the principle of decasualization is spreading. It is not impossible that stabilization schemes may

be introduced in most of the important maritime countries before any serious trade recession has developed again. In this case, the United Kingdom would no longer be at a competitive disadvantage in having to bear a responsibility for the economic security of its dockworkers, since the responsibility would be met equally in other countries.

However, no margin remains under normal competitive conditions for any expenditure beyond the minimum necessary to provide for such essential elements as registration, attendance money and guarantee make-up. Some employers in the United Kingdom contend that all the benefits of the scheme could be provided at a lower cost if it were implemented by the employers alone without the help of the National Dock Labour Board. All that need be said at this stage is that the right of the dockworkers to attendance money and a guaranteed wage is now generally accepted in the United Kingdom, and there is no indication that the industry will ever be unable to bear the cost of this obligation, so long as the registers are properly controlled.

Registration and Coverage

The United Kingdom scheme may be described as comprehensive in scope. The only ports of importance not included are the packet ports, such as Dover, Folkestone and Newhaven, where most of the dockworkers are weekly workers employed by the British Railways. There is no common definition of a dockworker applied throughout the nation, the connotation of the term varying locally to locality, but in all ports those registered under the scheme include the four categories of 'dockers', 'coal trimmers', 'fish dockworkers', and 'riggers'.¹⁷ All regular dockworkers, on any reasonable interpretation of the term, may be said to be registered and entitled to the benefits of the scheme. That is to say, it is not administered in such a way as to attract and maintain an outside fringe of workers who invariably look first to the docks as their main source of livelihood, and yet are excluded from the benefits of the scheme. Temporary workers may be allocated by the local boards to a registered employer only for the duration of an emergency shortage of labour which cannot be overcome, even though the reserve pool of registered dockworkers is being fully utilized. Because these temporary workers are not entitled to share in the benefits of the scheme, they are left free to accept any employment, whereas registered dockworkers must regard themselves as in the employ of the National Board whenever they are not working for an individual dock employer.

As the scheme is at present administered, reductions in the register of workers arise mainly from natural wastage – deaths, retirements and men voluntarily leaving the docks for other employment. Hull has one of the few local boards which has succeeded in imposing a retirement age limit, and in consequence has no dockworkers over seventy years of age. Many young men are anxious to enter the industry, but it is difficult for them to obtain union membership and become registered unless they are sons of dockworkers.¹⁸ Hence, the average age of British dockworkers is high and, in 1949, 40.7 per cent of them were fifty years of age or more. There is no tendency at present, however, for a serious and unusable surplus of registered labour to develop and place an undue burden on the scheme. The number of dockworkers in the London docks has been reduced from 65,000 in 1920 to 36,000 in 1938-39 and to 27,000 in 1950,¹⁹ and it is felt on the labour side that reductions in the registers have been carried quite as far as is necessary. During 1948 and 1949, 270 men were discharged from the

register as ineffective and, in 1948, as a result of a close examination of the registers, 5,000 men were removed from the dormant register, since they were considered unlikely to return to the industry. Thus, the average daily percentage of registered men unemployed and proving attendance was 11.9 per cent in 1948, and was down to 9.5 per cent in 1949. In spite of this surplus, amounting to some 7,500 men daily in 1949, 'the Board was unable on many occasions to meet all requirements, although men were transferred daily from one port to another and non-registered men were used in some ports'.²⁰

It is impossible to say whether normal wastage, which amounted to 3,292 men in 1949, will always suffice to provide any necessary and sufficiently rapid reduction in the size of the British register. As the 'basic feature' of its official labour policy, the National Board 'has established a sanctioned strength for each area, i.e. the number of men which, in the Board's view, should be adequate to meet the normal requirements of the ports in the area for some time ahead. This sanctioned strength is the maximum for which, in the Board's view regularity of employment may be expected. It is left to the local board to adjust recruitment, within the limit, to current needs'.²¹ Emphasis upon control of the size of the register by adjusting recruitment, while depending mainly upon normal wastage to achieve reductions, does not contribute to reducing the average age of the labour force.

Discipline and Enforcement

The obligations of both workers and employers registered under the scheme are clear and unambiguous, and the law lays down that the fact of registration implies their acceptance of these obligations. The workers must not be absent from any call without adequate cause and must accept all work, either inside or outside the docks and within daily travelling distance, to which they are assigned by the local boards, and must continue working in accordance with local port rules and prevailing conditions for any reasonable period. No worker may accept employment from a registered employer unless he is allocated to that employer by the local board, or directly selected by arrangement at the call stand, or engaged as a weekly worker. No registered worker may work for an unregistered employer, nor may a registered employer hire an unregistered worker, unless specifically permitted in each case by the local board.

Registered employers must inform the local boards of their current and forward labour requirements, and engage on a daily basis only those registered or temporary workers allocated to them by the local board. They must keep records as required and pay to the local boards for inclusion in the pay packets all gross wages due from them for work done.

Any worker who fails to attend at call stands, to accept work assigned to him, or to obey lawful orders given to him by his employer, may be reported in writing to the local board and, unless the complaint is found to be groundless, his current engagement, if any, is terminated, and he forfeits his right to any payment under the scheme for each week in which such failures occur or continue. If the local board considers that a heavier penalty should be applied to any worker for failure to comply with the provisions of the scheme, it may take any one of the following courses of action:²²

(a) determine that for such period as it thinks proper the dockworker shall not be entitled to any payment of attendance money or guarantee make-up; (b) suspend the dockworker without pay for a period not exceeding seven days; (3) give the

dockworker seven days' notice of termination of employment; (d) dismiss him summarily.²³

Summary dismissal is normally applied in all cases of pilferage, the man's name being removed from the register. In the majority of cases where there is an appeal against the decision, however, a recommendation is made that the man should be readmitted to the scheme after a short period.

A dockworker may appeal in writing to an appeal tribunal within three days of the making or notification of any decision to disentitle, suspend or dismiss him or regroup him in the register. No member of a local board can be a member of an appeal tribunal. The decisions of the appeal tribunals are by simple majority and may have the effect of reducing or modifying a penalty, but cannot increase it. Where a worker appeals successfully, he may receive the payments and benefits under the scheme for the period in which they had been withheld.

Where a registered employer fails to carry out the provisions of the scheme, his name may be removed from the employers' register after seven days' notice in writing from the National Board, and may be kept off the register for any period up to three months. Employers receiving notice of such a decision may appeal in writing within seven days, the appeal to be lodged with the National Board and immediately referred to the Minister of Labour and National Service. Two employers have so far been disciplined since the inception of the present scheme, and in both cases the Minister overruled the decision standing against them.

Naturally the occasions on which the workers have been disciplined have been more frequent, for their obligations are greater and they are more numerous than the employers. What has given cause for concern is that several of the disciplinary decisions have led to unauthorized and illegal work stoppages. In its biennial report the National Board states that 'between (these) strikes there is continued a skeleton organization with, at the moment, two rival news-sheets. Once a suitable set of circumstances occurs this organization moves into action; the same names appear with different prominence as strike leaders, and outriders travel to other ports to 'establish contact' and prepare for further extension of the strike'. An appeal is made 'to the sentiment of the dockworker, to his 'solidarity', to his fear of the return of casual employment...' and there is a 'switching of the focus of the strike from the original cause to the scheme - and in particular to its disciplinary clauses',²⁴ because local boards are obliged to take disciplinary action against a man who does not make himself available for work.

The British Ministry of Labour has appointed a committee of inquiry to report what steps can be taken to avoid these un-

official stoppages in future, and it is possible that certain modifications in the dock labour scheme will be found necessary. But it is important to emphasize that the terms and conditions of employment under the scheme are by no means a source of continuing and major dissatisfaction in the industry. On the contrary, they are recognized on all sides as a radical improvement upon the pre-war situation, and one which makes the industry an attractive avenue of employment, with considerable numbers of workers anxious to gain entry.

It is inevitable in an industry where conditions in the past have been hard and insecurity has been rife that some tenseness and lack of trust, unreasonableness and disharmony should persist. Yet it seems reasonable to expect that the new conditions of prosperity, and the growing sense of security which the scheme must generate, will gradually undermine traditional practices rendered pointless by decasualization, that the bitterness whose causes are now removed will gradually be forgotten and mutual suspicion which has become groundless will eventually disappear.

(to be continued)

10. *Review of the Work of the National Dock Labour Board, 1947-1949*, as submitted to the National Joint Council for the Port Transport Industry, March 1950, p. 21.

11. As of 15 August 1950. All statistics given regarding the British scheme have been obtained from the National Dock Labour Board or from its publications and documents, unless otherwise indicated.

12. Figures prior to increase awarded in February.

13. This is provided for under clause 3 (V) of the Agreement of 3 July 1947 between the National Association of Port Employers and the Transport and General Workers' Union. However, it is contrary to clause 14 (2) (a) and (b) of the Schedule to the Dock (Regulations of Employment) Order, dated 16 June 1947, which appears to have the intention that no attendance money at all should be withheld where absence is excused.

14. Between the National Association of Port Employers, the Transport and General Workers' Union, the National Amalgamated Stevedores and Dockers, the Scottish Transport and General Workers' Union, and the National Union of General and Municipal Workers.

15. This provision ensures that any transferred dockworker will not receive less than the minimum he could earn on a time-rate basis if he were not transferred.

16. Welfare activities under the scheme, in addition to provision of shelter and comfort at call points, include medical care, first aid and rehabilitation centres, sanitary amenities and canteens, research into clothing for dock work, administration of benevolent funds, advisory services, and arrangements for dockworkers' clubs, entertainments, sports and education.

17. However, while the definition of a dockworker is left to local interpretation, a broad limit is set by the legislation, which provides (in clause 1(3) of the Schedule to the Dock Workers (Regulation of Employment) Order, 1947) that the scheme shall apply only to dockworkers 'employed or registered for employment in or in the vicinity of any port on work in connection with the loading, unloading, movement or storage of cargoes, or work in connection with the preparation of ships or other vessels for the receipt or discharge of cargoes or for leaving port.'

18. Over half of the 3,951 and 2,474 recruited in 1948 and 1949 respectively were dockworkers' sons.

19. Figures supplied by Mr Arthur Bird, National Secretary of the Dock Group of the Transport and General Workers' Union.

20. *Review of the Work of the National Dock Labour Board*, op. cit., p. 8.

21. *Ibid.*, pp. 19-20.

22. A recent court decision has declared that the list of penalties is to be regarded as a range of increasingly severe punishment, and that, following the intention of the law, only one of these penalties may be applied to an individual at one time, and not a combination of two or more of the penalties.

23. Clause 16 (2) (a) - (d) of the Schedule to the Dock Workers (Regulation of Employment) Order, 1947.

24. *Review of the Work of the National Dock Labour Board*, op. cit., paras. 72-77, pp. 27-28.

Suggestions win cash for British railwaymen

BRITISH RAILWAY EMPLOYEES have submitted 10,497 suggestions for the improvement of their industry since the Railway Executive introduced a suggestions scheme in October 1949.

More than nine hundred of these ideas have been adopted and their originators have been paid a total of £2,679. Many other suggestions, although they could not be adopted, were considered good enough to merit a reward.

Suggestions have come from all grades of workers. One man has already submitted seventy-six, whilst another in the Southern Region has received a total of £150 for numer-

ous suggestions submitted over a period of many years.

Ideas adopted include the retiming of trains to afford better service or to provide connections with other trains, the fabrication of engine sand boxes in mild steel instead of casting them, improvements to the stoves used in kitchen cars, amendments to rules, and a device for shaping rail ends before welding.

All successful ideas earn a minimum award of two guineas, and at the end of each year all suggestions received are reviewed and special awards, which have ranged up to fifty guineas, are made for the year's best suggestion.

Atomic energy and shipping

THE DUTCH *Handels en Transport Courant* in a comment on cooperation between the Netherlands and Norway in the field of atomic research has recently drawn attention to Norway's views on the application of atomic energy to the merchant shipping industry.

The paper states that Norway, with a small population and a very important shipping industry, is very much alive to the possibilities of atomic energy and is convinced that its utilization in shipping could lead to great economies.

The operating costs of a merchant vessel are at present so high that the saving in bunkering charges alone resulting from the application of atomic energy would appreciably improve the competitive position of those making use of it. In this connection, it is pointed out that, as a source of energy, one gram of uranium is equivalent to 25 tons of coal.

New standard set in tanker crew accommodation

AS A COUNTER-BALANCE to the welter of reports received by the ITF describing poor crew accommodation aboard sub-standard vessels, it is pleasant to be able to record that some shipowners at least are sufficiently interested in the welfare of their employees to go beyond what are generally accepted as minimum international standards.

A Stavanger shipping company, for instance, has recently taken delivery of a new motor tanker of 24,000 deadweight tons, in the construction of which every attention has been paid to the comfort of the seafarers who will man her. Crew accommodation consists of fifty single cabins, all tastefully decorated and containing framed reproductions of well-known paintings. Musical instruments and sports equipment are to be supplied and the vessel is equipped with a library and a separate loudspeaker system for musical entertainment. Not satisfied with that, however, the shipowner has also had an aluminium swimming pool constructed on board so that crew members may take a refreshing dip when sailing in warm waters.

Defects in crew accommodation still persist

IN HIS REPORT FOR 1950, issued recently, the medical officer of health, Liverpool Port Health Authority, comments on the fact that careful attention is continually paid by port health inspectors to the inspection of crew spaces.

He finds that during the past twenty years there has been a steady improvement in the standard of crew accommodation on board ships of all nationalities and that today one expects to find new ships possessing excellent washing facilities and w.c. accommodation; comfortable, well-furnished cabins and recreation spaces, clean and free from vermin, for both officers and ratings.

Unfortunately, he continues, the same cannot be said of many of the older vessels still in service.

The most common defects found on such vessels are dirty and verminous quarters. Treatment usually consists of fumigation or spraying with insecticide, or both. The report points out, that some shipping companies, in addition to regular servicing in port, very wisely supply their vessels with sprays and a

stock of insecticide in order that delousing can also be carried out whilst the vessels is at sea.

It is sometimes also found that offensive refuse is thrown on the open deck, e.g. galley refuse thrown on a heap of ashes. In such cases, immediate removal is requested and the offenders advised to store such refuse in bins and to make suitable arrangements for its disposal at frequent intervals.

According to the report, nuisances in ships usually fall under the following headings: dirty quarters, wash-rooms, w.c.s., water tanks or bilges; verminous quarters (cockroaches, bed bugs, rats, etc.); w.c.s. discharging on to the quay; accumulations of offensive refuse; ship's gear stowed in crew quarters; damp quarters; leaky deckheads; defective bulkheads, portlights, skylights, deck coverings, lockers, chains or hawse pipes; w.c. fittings, waste-pipes or scuppers or defective washing facilities, and sometimes inadequate lighting or drainage.

A table in the report shows that visits were made to 5,151 ships, of which 3,993 were British, and revisits to 1,070 ships, of which 953 were British. The number of vessels in which nuisances were found was 953, comprising 931 British and 22 foreign.

Nearly 97 per cent of the nuisances were classified under dirt and other conditions prejudicial to health.

Merchant fleet for East Germany planned

ACCORDING TO THE BERLIN CORRESPONDENT of the London *Times*, plans to build a merchant fleet for the Russian-occupied zone of Germany are now being publicized by the East German authorities. Preparations for the construction of the first of twenty-two ocean-going vessels are now said to be in progress at Warnemünde, on the Baltic.

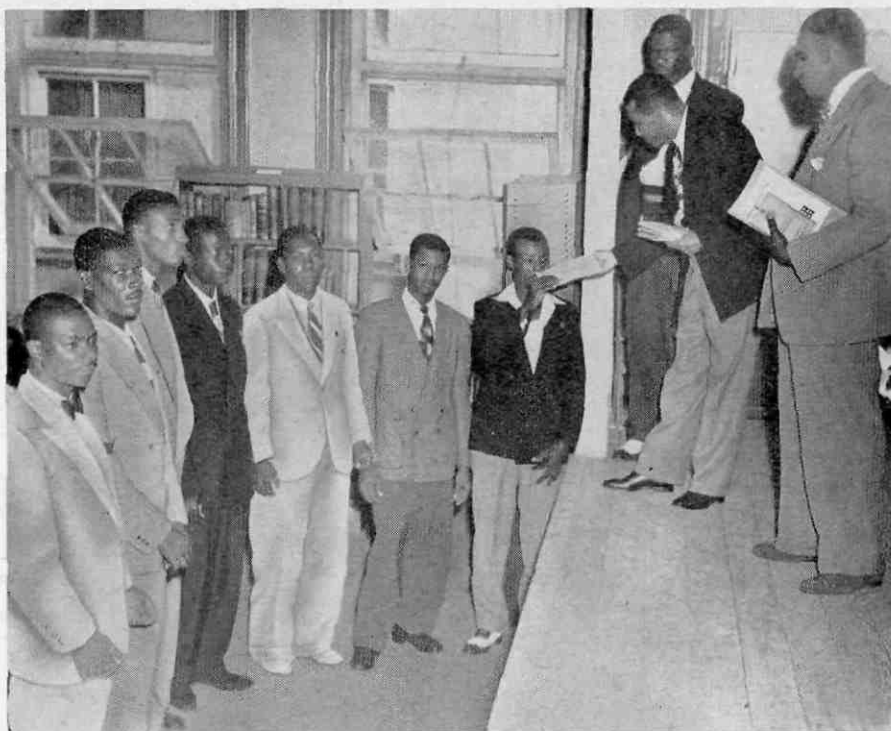
These vessels, intended primarily for trade with China, will be of 9,500 tons and capable of a speed of sixteen knots. Accommodation will be provided for twelve passengers, and it is intended that, in addition to a crew of fifty-eight, young seamen will be taken for training during the voyage.

Three other types of ships are also to be constructed but according to *The Times* none of the work has yet advanced beyond the blueprint stage. Some vessels of 1,300 tons will be built for coastal service in the Baltic, and ships of 3,000 and 6,000 tons are planned for eventual service in the North Sea and the Mediterranean respectively.

Increased productivity in Yugoslav fishing industry

IN A RECENT TALK BROADCAST by Zagreb Radio, attention was drawn to the increased productivity of workers in the Yugoslav sea fishing industry. The speaker pointed out, however, that the main problem to be solved in the industry was that of manpower and he, therefore, advocated that former fishermen who had left the coastal areas in order to take up industrial employment in the interior should be encouraged to return. District and local people's committees, he said, should implement the Government's policy regarding the reorganization of the administrative apparatus and a training scheme for fishermen should be established.

Prior to the war, about 22,000 people were employed in the Yugoslav fishing industry; today the figure is only about 11,000. Nevertheless, output which, before the war, never exceeded 1,100 wagons per year, has now risen to over 2,000 wagons.



Trinidad maritime workers celebrate thirteen years of trade union progress

THE CAPITAL OF TRINIDAD, Port-of-Spain, was the venue chosen recently by the Trinidad Seamen's and Waterfront Workers' Union (an affiliate of the ITF) to celebrate the thirteenth anniversary of its establishment as a trade union.

Delegates from the length and breadth of the island gathered in the Port-of-Spain Public Library, placed at the disposal of the Union's Annual Conference, to hear their able President, Brother C. P. Alexander, report on the work done by the organization during the period 1950-51 and stress the need for still further effort to build up a truly island-wide and coastal-wide

maritime workers' union, in order to safeguard the interests of members in this Caribbean port-of-call.

An unusual feature of this year's Annual Conference was the presentation to six union members of correspondence courses in trade unionism, valid for one year with the British National Council of Labour Colleges.

The correspondence courses were the gift of the International Transport Workers' Federation, a small contribution towards the training of new trade union officials for its young and extremely enthusiastic West Indian maritime affiliate.



An airline stewardess describes her job

THERE CAN BE NO DOUBT that the airline stewardess's job has many pleasant sides. There is, first of all, the flying itself together with the scenery and natural effects to be seen from the plane. Then, too, there are the persons one meets and the places one sees, and although the contacts themselves may be but fleeting, there is nevertheless all the spice of variety. In addition, there is the comradeship which springs up between the members of the air crews and the many pleasant times which we spend together.

That, however, is by no means the whole story. Our work, however interesting it may be, is extremely tiring and makes constant demands upon us. Every passenger is an individual and as such expects individual treatment. The personal likes and dislikes of a stewardess must not be allowed to play any part in this. We must, in fact, be equally friendly and accommodating to all with whom we come into contact – whether it be for two or for twenty hours. We may often find ordinary passengers – some perhaps flying for the first time and very thrilled at the idea – far more pleasant than the so-called 'VIP's with their overbearing ways. We may long to point out and explain a thousand and one interesting things to the former and feel antagonized by the latter, but we must never allow our natural reactions to gain the upper hand. There are, too, plenty of passengers both ready and willing to work off their own bad tempers at our expense and what woman has such control of her feelings that she can always put up with this and remain completely unperturbed?

Just to illustrate how small a role is nowadays played by glamour in a job such as mine, let me describe for you a *Convair* flight from Zurich to London in close and thundery summer weather.

The aircraft has already been standing in the sun for several hours when we board it half an hour prior to take-off and check whether everything is ship-shape in both cabin and galley. Although the cooling installation has been switched on for fifteen minutes, the atmosphere inside the aircraft is nevertheless unbearably hot when the 38 passengers come aboard. We take charge of their coats and other belongings, hang them up, and then distribute chewing gum and travel literature. Nearly all the passengers impatiently ask why the fresh air system is not yet functioning – which of course it cannot do before the take-off.

Then we begin to taxi but have to wait for some ten minutes before permission to take off is given from the control tower.



Serving refreshments in the passenger cabin of a Trans-Canada Airlines aircraft. By courtesy of the Canadian National Film Board

The heat in the aircraft is by now completely unbearable and the passengers are becoming extremely bad-tempered.

Immediately following the take-off, a cold drink is served. Most passengers would like another but unfortunately we have not enough to go round a second time. After that, we distribute newspapers, magazines and a number of forms which have to be filled in. We assist those passengers who have little knowledge of English to complete the latter and whilst doing so have to listen patiently to a lot of grumbling about unnecessary formalities. Then a young mother has to be helped in changing her baby's nappy. Some passengers are already complaining of headaches as a result of the heat and ask for aspirins. It is already a little bumpy aloft. One stewardess starts to prepare light refreshments whilst the other explains to the passengers information contained in the first flight bulletin, which has just been passed back by the aircraft's captain.

Now we begin to serve refreshments. The passengers have a choice between coffee and tea. An old lady knocks her cup over, with the result that her tray has to be prepared afresh and we have to assist her in mopping up her dress. Beer and cigarettes begin to find ready customers. For these, bills have to be written out and payment made in all sorts of currencies, necessitating a good deal of quick calculation on our part.

Some Jewish passengers will not eat meat and we have to prepare egg and cheese dishes for them. Afterwards, cold drinks are served and then it is the turn of the small children with their special wants. A second flight bulletin is then circulated and a number of passengers again want to have this or that point about it explained in detail.

Now we begin to collect up the trays and clear away. Some impatient passengers have already put theirs down in the gangway or under their seats (knee bending is supposed to be good for one!). By now the aircraft is bumping badly and two passengers who are beginning to feel the effects have to be given dramamine. In order to do our work properly, we must have both hands completely free and therefore have to brace our whole body against every movement and lurch of the plane. It is not always possible to do this without receiving a few bruises in the process.

Some passengers are already beginning to make use of their paper bags. We should soon be over Northolt, but from the plane one can still see nothing but clouds. The light, indicating that safety belts are to be fastened, goes on but we have to circle round and wait for permission to land. We collect up paper bags, try to reassure nervous passengers, see that all safety belts are properly fastened and once again distribute chewing gum. At this point, glasses of cold water and a cognac are asked for. We have to give up our attempts to hand out coats and other personal property as the aircraft is too unsteady.

We are also supposed to fasten safety belts, but how and where? We are not allowed to sit with the passengers and although one of us has a small folding seat placed at the side of the aircraft, she has nevertheless nothing to hold on to once she has fastened her safety belt. The only thing that the others can do is to sit on the floor and brace themselves against the side of the plane.

Finally comes the touch-down and we hurriedly hand round the last few coats, pass hand luggage out of the plane and smile goodbye 38 times to the passengers.

Then the customs' official arrives to check the foodstuffs. We pack all alcoholic drinks and cigarettes in a case for bonding. Everything else is locked up. The travel literature which has been left behind by the passengers is gathered up and the receptacles at the back of the seats are cleared. We explain to a ground mechanic a slight defect which has developed in the galley heating system. Then, at last, we are able to get out into the fresh air. The hard physical effort in rough weather combined with the dry air in the cabin of the 'Convair' have taken their toll of us. Or it is the vibration and the engine noise which have made us somewhat confused? Nor is that all. We still have the worry of whether we shall be given a quiet room at the hotel tonight, or whether, as is so often the case, we shall have one which looks out on to a busy street and in which we will be unable to sleep properly.

I should also like to describe for you another flight which has particularly stuck in my memory, since it illustrates very well some of the special difficulties which the air hostess has to face. We were on a return flight from Istanbul, via Athens, Rome, Geneva and Zurich in a DC. 4 carrying forty-five passengers. At Istanbul, we picked up a young epileptic girl who, after the take-off, paid repeated visits to the toilet. Each time that she did so, we had to be very careful that she did not lock herself in, in case she had a fit. Then, at Athens, a woman who was a serious mental case was brought on board. In order that she might be kept somewhat apart from the other passengers, we

gave her one of the rear seats in the aircraft. Almost immediately following the take-off the injections which she had been given previously seemed to lose their effect and she became very restless. She continually threatened to jump out of the plane (it appears that she had heard of a similar case immediately prior to her own breakdown) and either the purser or myself had to remain near the door in case she attempted to carry out her threat.

Although we would have had our hands more than full with looking after these two special passengers and tending to the needs of the remaining forty-two we also had on board a twelve year old abnormal Greek boy, whose passage had been arranged through the International Red Cross. Suddenly – and without any warning – this boy began to rave, to pull the hair of women passengers and to lash out with his feet in all directions. I attempted to give him a sedative, disguising the pills in a quarter of an orange (a fruit of which he was supposed to be particularly fond), but he refused to swallow it. The worst part about the whole business was that we were unable to make him understand us, since we ourselves knew no Greek. Yet, by the time we touched down at Geneva, the little boy had grown so fond of us that he had to be parted from me by force.

I do not think that one can describe flying as an occupation which is especially harmful either to general health or to particular organs of the human body. It is certainly not good for the teeth, and the extremely dry air – especially when flying in *Convairs* – is not exactly conducive to the well-being of the mucous membrane of either the nose or throat.



'Your breakfast, Madam'. The air stewardess begins her day on board a Scandinavian Airlines System transatlantic airliner. Photograph by kind permission of Scandinavian Airlines System

I do, however, consider it likely that flying may aggravate and even activate latent sources of infection. Moreover, where there is the slightest defect in hearing, existing irritations of the frontal and maxillary cavities or where the crew member has passages leading to these cavities which happen to be too narrow (is this perhaps more common amongst women?) it is undoubtedly more difficult to adapt oneself to flights in pressurized aircraft.

The following are all aspects of our occupation which must be borne in mind when considering the possible effects of flight duty on the health of air crew personnel:

The constant changes in both pressure and climate; vibration and engine noise; the dry stale air; the irregularities in working hours (e.g. night flying, reveille at 3 a.m. or return flights begun at 4 a.m.); and the often hasty and scrappy meals which must be taken at all hours of the day and night. To these must also be added the constant need for physical effort even when the aircraft is either bumping badly or flying at high altitudes (e.g. in trans-Alpine flights carried out in DC.3s or DC.4s. both passengers and members of the flight crew are seated whilst we have constantly to move about and sometimes – even at an altitude of between twelve thousand and fifteen thousand feet – have the task of distributing oxygen masks). All these factors make heavy demands upon the human frame.

Many flights result in complete temporary exhaustion and in such condition one is naturally more liable to infection than under normal circumstances. For that reason, I also consider that no stewardess should either be allowed or attempt to fly during menstruation. It is no use a stewardess turning round, perhaps an hour after take-off and saying, 'I'm sorry but I don't feel well'.

In addition to the physical demands, however, our occupation also makes constant mental demands upon us. One has to adapt oneself to the most varied and even surprising situations and yet always remain both pleasant and absolutely composed. In this respect, women are certainly the more temperamental sex and tend to take to heart things to which they should try to remain inwardly indifferent. That is doubtless one reason why, in general, they tend to tire more easily.

It must also be remembered that the stewardess is usually able to spend considerably less of her free time on rest and recreation than a man, since she often has to do her own washing, mending, ironing, etc.

There are, in my opinion, several ways in which the working conditions of stewardess could be improved. Some small concessions in this direction have already been made to us. For instance, we no longer have to fly from Zurich via Geneva, Cairo and Basra to Abadan and back all within fifty-two hours and with only two steward personnel on board. Previously, this meant that in spite of the fact that the route should really be considered as a night flight, we had hardly any opportunity of sitting down, let alone of sleeping. Under the new arrangement an extra stewardess is carried as far as Cairo. However, even today there is, on long distance flights, no guarantee that steward personnel will have either seating or sleeping accommodation.

Another important point which should be borne in mind is that, prior to and following long distance or night flights, transportation both to and from the airport should be provided for all air crew personnel.

It is also essential that both monthly and quarterly flight time limitations should be established, in consultation with the

staff organizations concerned. A maximum number of days on which air crew personnel may perform flight duty without proper rest periods should also be laid down. Block to block time should be the basis for any such calculations.

The following additional improvements would also appear to be desirable:

- a) The organization of all air crew personnel in a single staff association;
- b) The general acceptance of the principle of seniority, in order to prevent favouritism and to ensure that equal opportunities are available to all steward personnel;
- c) A more uniform allocation of assignments – seniority might also be considered as the operative factor here;
- d) The payment of a guaranteed minimum salary – of considerable importance when there is not much flying to be done or in cases of sickness; and
- e) At lay-over points on regular routes it should be possible to reserve single hotel rooms for all members of a crew.

It should also be laid down that only a senior steward, senior stewardess or some other direct superior shall be entitled to make check flights and not, as is now the case in some companies, any employee who may not necessarily be acquainted with the work. Such persons should also not be allowed to make reports about our work on board (reports of this kind should not be accepted in certain quarters either!).

In addition, no young or inexperienced stewardess should be appointed as senior stewardess. This position should rather be entrusted to some outside person of mature age (preferably over thirty-two), possessing some medical knowledge. She should be someone of the utmost discretion, who has taken a stewardess's course and, if possible, with previous flying experience, thus enabling her to have some practical insight into the work involved.

A senior stewardess should, right from the start, realize the responsibility of her position and consequently should not be on too familiar terms with the stewardesses under her supervision. Only by so doing can she both acquire and retain the authority and confidence necessary in her job. The selection of persons already carrying out the duties of a stewardess would not in my estimation meet the case.

I believe that there are few occupations for which it is so difficult to find suitable people as that of the air stewardess. One reason for this is undoubtedly the fact that the qualifications required (e.g. first aid and nursing experience, knowledge of foreign languages, etc.) are out of all proportion to the salary paid.

It is true that the opportunity to travel and the measure of independence implicit in the occupation undoubtedly have their attractions. However, since the work is becoming rapidly more and more standardized and now consists, in the main, in making the path of the rich and the spoiled even more smooth than it is at present, few young women will, in the long run, find much satisfaction in it. Moreover, contrary to general belief, it is very rarely indeed that one can find either the time or the opportunity for such things as theatre- and concert-going, sightseeing and pleasure trips, etc.

I believe that every human being – and age has nothing to do with it – has his or her own sense of what is right and wrong. It is true that there are perhaps more opportunities of leaving the straight and narrow path in our profession than in others, but those who do not seek such opportunities usually do not see them – and those who seek them would find them anywhere.

Problems in coordinating Canadian transport (2)

By J. E. McGuire

National Transportation Policy

IN DISCUSSING A NATIONAL transportation policy for Canada, the Turgeon Report reviewed all the steps taken, since before Confederation, that indicate the close attention given to transport matters by government. These include the construction or management of certain railways to ensure adequate transport facilities; the adoption by Parliament of the Crowsnest Pass Agreement to ensure cheap transportation of grain from the Prairie Provinces to the Great Lakes; the passage of the Maritime Freight Rates Act in 1927 to provide for reduced rates on traffic westbound from the Maritimes; the construction of a transcontinental railway to encourage the shipment of goods through Canadian ports; the construction of an extensive canal system in Central Canada; the granting of substantial subsidies to encourage the building of transport facilities; the acquisition by Government of the bankrupt lines that have now been welded into the Canadian National System; construction of the Hudson Bay Railway; and large investments in coastal shipping services and the Trans-Canada Air Lines.

The Royal Commission sees all of these steps as part of a national policy, indicating 'the continuous concern of Parliament with Canada's transportation problems including the problem inherent in great distances and sparse population'.

Coordination of Transport

Earlier in this article, it was suggested that Canada's transportation policy has often been determined on the basis of expediency rather than on a long-range plan. However, several steps in the direction of coordination of all forms of transportation have been taken although, as the Commission suggests, the trend of legislation in recent years has been away from coordination. In 1938 Parliament approved an Act which established a 'Board of Transport Commissioners for Canada' in place of the 'Board of Railway Commissioners' which had been set up in 1903. The Board was required to perform the functions



The airplane is becoming an increasingly common mode of transportation in the Far North of the Dominion of Canada. Photo reproduced by kind permission of the Canadian National Film Board

vested in it by the Act, '... with the object of coordinating and harmonizing the operations of all carriers engaged in transport by railways, ships and aircraft ...'. But other provisions of the Act placed restrictions on the powers of the Board as far as air and water transport were concerned, leaving it with full jurisdiction over railways alone.

In 1944, Parliament's policy with respect to coordination was changed by deleting the reference to 'aircraft' in the section of the Act quoted above. At the same time, separate regulation of air transportation was provided by the establishment of an Air Transport Board. In 1947, the Canadian Maritime Commission was created to examine and maintain records of our shipping services. Although not a regulatory body in the same sense as the two above-mentioned Boards, the Commission's powers do nevertheless affect water transport in some respects.

Thus there are now three bodies with regulatory powers, where one existed before. In the words of the Turgeon Report: 'The net result . . . was to lessen very greatly the possibility of coordinating and harmonizing the different transport media under Federal control'.

Obstacles in the way of Federal Control

There is considerable sentiment in favour of the coordination and regulation of all forms of transport, and this was shown in several of the submissions that were made to the Royal Commission on Transportation. In these submissions, much emphasis was placed on the need of bringing trucks under regulations similar to those under which the railways operate. The principal obstacle in the path of such regulation lies in the division of jurisdiction between the Federal and Provincial Governments as laid down in the British North America Act (Canada's Constitution). The Federal Government has jurisdiction over interprovincial road traffic, but road traffic moving within the borders of a particular province lies within the jurisdiction of that province. Here is one of the principal barriers to full coordination of highway and railway services, because by far the largest part of truck traffic is intra-provincial, i.e., it does not cross provincial boundary lines.

Situations like this are bound to arise in a country where division of authority exists. Such divisions are not bad in themselves, but if they hinder national progress and the application of social justice, other ways and means of accomplishing our objectives must be sought. On this point, the Brotherhood joined with the Canadian Congress of Labour in submitting to the Royal Commission in 1949 that:

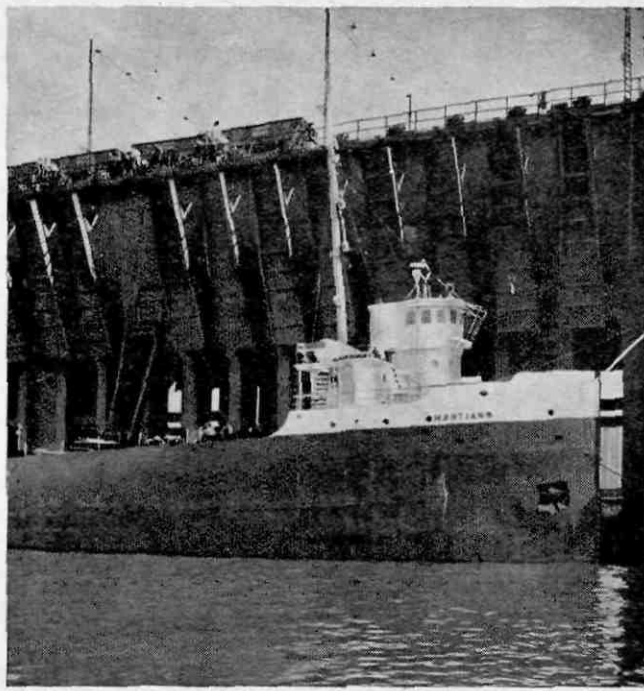
'Each type of transportation should be assigned the task it can most economically perform. This involves bringing all types of interprovincial and international services under the control

of the Board of Transport Commissioners, so that each type will be confined to its proper sphere and none will be allowed to engage in uneconomic competition with the rest. If this requires an amendment to the British North America Act, then that amendment should be obtained. The problem of rail and road competition, and its effects on the economic position of the railways, are too serious to brook delay. There has already been a delay of a dozen years since the Government made an attempt to deal with this matter, and then dropped it. That is long enough. Any constitutional amendment which may be necessary should not be too hard to get, since it can hardly be contended that an amendment of this kind touches in any way upon those minority rights which are, and should be, sacrosanct. The Fathers of Confederation clearly intended that all interprovincial and international transportation should be under Dominion jurisdiction. The fact that they could not foresee the development of the internal combustion engine ought not to be allowed to frustrate their intentions.'

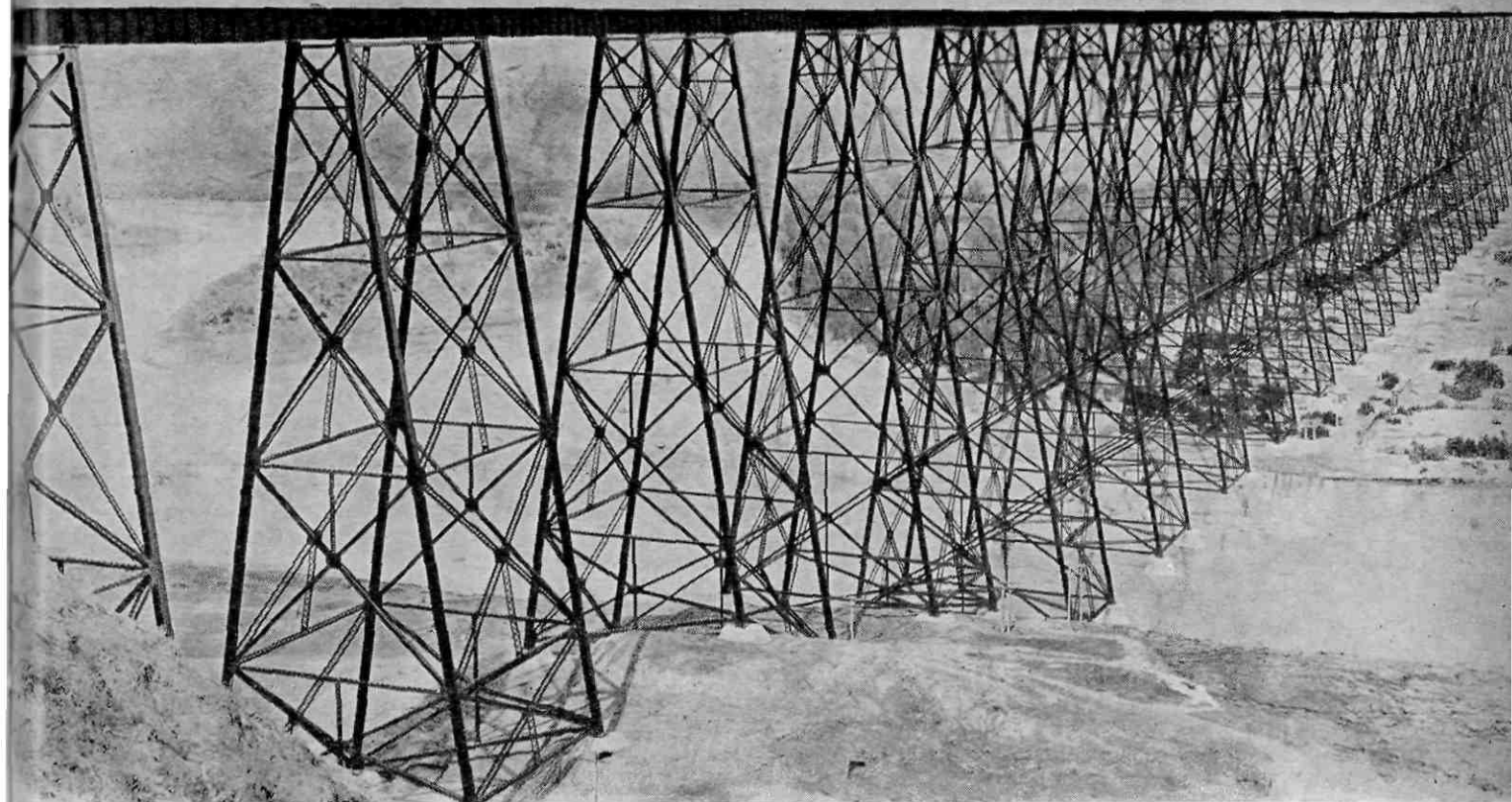
Six of the seven provinces that appeared before the Royal Commission stated they would not give up their exclusive jurisdiction over intra-provincial transport. The seventh province, Saskatchewan, said it would agree if the provincial revenues lost nothing by the transfer and if the Federal Government provided hard surfaced roads in the province. Several organizations were in favour of some form of central control, and there was a proposal that the provinces enact uniform legislation on trucking. The association of the automotive transport industry opposed central control on the ground that it would mean the regulation of trucks for the benefit of the railways. Railway management and workers, harassed by mounting costs and unfair competition which selects the cream of their traffic, might be forgiven if they pointed out that, at the present time, regulation of their facilities appears to be conferring very



A scene on the Great Lakes. A lake freighter passes under the Blue Water Bridge, which links Sarnia, Ontario, with United States Port Huron. Canadian National Film Board photograph



Iron ore being unloaded from the Port Arthur dock into a waiting Great Lakes ore boat. Photograph reproduced by the kind courtesy of Editorial Associates Limited Montreal and Toronto



The Lethbridge Viaduct, a notable feature of the Canadian Pacific Railway, spans the Belly River at Alberta. The viaduct is 5,327 feet in length and consists of sixty-seven spans built on steel trestles. Photo reproduced by courtesy of Canadian Pacific Railways

considerable benefits on highway transport in the Dominion.

It is gratifying to see that the Report of the Royal Commission calls for Parliament to reconsider the question of coordination. The following passage is taken from the Report:

'In so far as Parliament can regulate and control transportation, the object should not be confined to the rather negative work of correcting abuses, but should reach out to the positive constructive task of developing adequate and efficient transportation services and of 'coordinating and harmonizing' the service in the public interest. The regulation of railways can best be exercised by combining it with the regulation of the other agencies of transportation. It is true that Parliament's lack of jurisdiction over intra-provincial transportation presents a major obstacle to the full attainment of this most desirable object. It is of course permitted to hope that the provinces will some day agree to cooperate with the Federal authority in the carrying out of a common policy of coordination. Until that day comes, however, there is no reason why Parliament should not proceed as far as its authority extends towards the establishment of a national transportation system functioning under the control and regulation of an efficient supervisory board. The several means of transportation – railways, waterways, airways, (highways), and now pipe lines – are distinct agencies that are inseparably inter-related. They should be so regulated as to serve not only individually but collectively in meeting the country's needs'.

The Report goes on to suggest that the policy of coordination and central control to which Parliament appeared to be committed in the Transport Act of 1938 should be invoked once again, with a view to its extension. It calls for the constitution

of a Central Authority and states that 'The adoption of this policy would bring together the three above-named bodies (the Board of Transport Commissioners, the Air Transport Board, and the Canadian Maritime Commission), re-organized and united and devoted henceforth to the pursuit of a well-planned policy for the coordination and regulation of transportation'.

Conclusion

The recently published *Report of the Royal Commission on Transportation* (the Turgeon Report), has been referred to frequently in this article. This was done because the Report contains the views of three prominent Canadians who listened to 214 witnesses in support of 143 formal submissions during the period January 1949 to February 1951.

Reports such as this one are always valuable, especially if not forgotten. And while they often open up avenues of hope for satisfactory solutions, they also serve to remind us of the complexity of our problems. The road ahead, as far as coordination of transport is concerned is not an easy one. Many of the obstacles, as we have suggested, are inherent in Canada's geographical composition and location. Others have their origin in the exigencies of our pioneer days, our political structure, and the recurring crises of the international community of which Canada is a member.

In overcoming these obstacles, organized labour in Canada believes that it can be of some help. Our special job, the same as for free trade unions everywhere, is to see that human values take precedence at all times, and that transportation as an instrument of distribution and as a means of travel is used to the best possible advantage of humanity everywhere.

RAILWAY SENTINEL

New trade union journal for Indian railwaymen

A KEENLY FELT NEED for a well-written and up-to-date trade union journal devoted to the interests of Indian railwaymen has recently been met by the publication of *The Railway Sentinel* under the auspices of the Bombay, Baroda and Central Indian Railway Employees' Union (an affiliate of the All-India Railwaymen's Federation).

Although *The Railway Sentinel* is primarily concerned with the problems facing the BB and CI Railway Employees' Union and its activities, it also gives a large amount of publicity to the demands and grievances of employees on other Indian railways and to the activities of their trade unions. In addition, it contains news about the work of the central Indian railwaymen's organization, the All-India Railwaymen's Federation.

Social implications of the transport coordination problem

ONE OF THE PRINCIPAL ITEMS on the agenda of the Fourth Session of the Inland Transport Committee of the International Labour Organization is that dealing with 'labour problems affecting coordination of transport.'

As, in the words of the ILO, the item 'cannot be conveniently considered without some indication of how the coordination of transport, or rather the absence of it, may affect labour' a report, entitled *Coordination of Transport: Labour Problems*, has been issued by the International Labour Office for the benefit of those attending the Session.

One of the most interesting chapters in the Report is that headed 'Conclusions', in which its authors sum up what they believe will be the ultimate effects of coordination on those workers who are employed in the transport industry. In this it is stated that:

'The success or failure of attempts to coordinate transport will have important repercussions on the millions of operators and workers in the industry. The security of employment and the standards of living of many of them are at stake. It is therefore natural that the International Labour Organization should regard it as its duty to continue to follow developments in this field. The International Labour Conference has affirmed that "all human beings . . . have the right to pursue their material well-being . . . in conditions of freedom and dignity, of economic security and equal opportunity" and that "the attainment of the conditions in which this will be possible must constitute the central aim of national and international policy". If the abuses of competition within and between different branches of transport are not suitably restrained, it is idle to speak of "economic security". If a transport monopoly is so protected

that it is able to exercise its potential powers to the full, and if it does so without social restraint and without adequate regard for the public interest, the material well-being of many is so threatened that there is no real equality of opportunity. The Governments of States Members, both directly and with the assistance, as appropriate, of international agencies, have therefore an obligation to seek to prevent both these abuses. This report has shown that in almost all countries this aim has either been achieved or is being pursued.

It is, moreover, a responsibility of the International Labour Organization to examine and consider all international economic and financial policies and measures in the light of its fundamental objective, and it will therefore continue to carry out its obligation to follow developments in the field of the coordination of transport with these broad principles in view.'

At the same time, however, the Report warns that 'the roots of the trouble are to be found in economic factors that are for the most part outside the field of action of the International Labour Organization.'

Air and rail safety in the US compared

ACCORDING TO FIGURES issued by the US Interstate Commerce Commission's Bureau of Transport Economics and Statistics, although the rate of passenger fatalities on scheduled domestic air lines last year was the lowest since 1946, air travel is still only half as safe when compared with rail transport on a passenger-mile basis.

Preliminary estimates show that passenger fatalities on trunk, feeder and territorial air lines in 1950 were 11.5 per milliard passenger-miles, whilst those on the railways during the same period stood at 5.56. The air line figure excludes all propeller accidents and other mishaps to persons on the ground, but the rail fatalities include both railway passengers and travellers not on trains involved in accidents connected with train operations.

US lorries carry most freight

THE MOTOR TRUCK DIVISION of the United States Automobile Manufacturers' Association has recently issued a booklet entitled *Motor trucks and national defence*, in which it is stated that 'each year our trucks carry three times as much freight as the combined total hauled by all other forms of transportation.'

Included in the booklet is a table headed 'How freight moves in the US', which we reproduce below:

	Billions*	%	Billions*	%
	TONS HAULED		TONS-MILES	
TRUCKS	8.3	75	122	11
RAILROADS	.7	6	110	9
PIPELINES	.7	6	110	9
WATERWAYS	.6	5	345	31
AIRWAYS	x	—	xx	—

*) American = 1,000,000,000

x 315.000 xx 200 million ton-miles

Decasualization of dock labour (3)

Australia

THE NUMBER OF REGISTERED waterside workers covered by stabilization schemes was 25,482 on 1 January 1951. For the purposes of the attendance money scheme, the ports are divided into two categories. In Category A ports, the dockworkers are entitled to 12 shillings attendance money for each day on which they attend for work but are not employed. In Category B ports, where most of the work is seasonal or not continuous, attendance money is payable only during the 'normal' period when the workers are required to present themselves regularly for dock employment.

No guarantee make-up is payable in addition to attendance money; but conditions of completely full employment have prevailed in Australia for several years and arrangements have

been made in some cases for transfers of labour between ports. Workers in Category B ports are therefore unlikely to remain unemployed outside the 'normal' period, nor is employment very difficult to obtain throughout the year in Category A ports.

The latter fact is best indicated by the figures given in the accompanying table with respect to the principal port in each State. It will be seen that the average hours worked per week in each port represent not less than 75 per cent of a normal working week; that the amounts paid in attendance money were not large because there was little unemployment to be compensated for; and that average earnings were not low, especially if compared with the basic minimum wage for wharf labourers of 4s.11d. per hour (as of 31 December 1948).

Weekly average
of hours worked,
wages earned
and attendance
money per worker,
for the years
ending 30 June 1948
and 30 June 1949

	Hours		Earnings		Attendance money	
	1949	1948	1949 £ s. d.	1948 £ s. d.	1949 d.	1948 d.
Sydney . . .	33.4	33.9	9 10 6	8 0 9	7	13
Melbourne . .	38.6	39.9	11 5 3	10 4 3	15	19
Brisbane . . .	28.9	25.2	9 13 6	7 2 0	76	113
Adelaide . . .	38.0	37.9	11 11 0	9 7 6	23	23
Freemantle . .	38.0	34.5	12 0 3	9 2 9	72	165
Hobart . . .	33.6	39.7	9 3 6	9 5 9	49	82

Source: Report of the Stevedoring Industry Board for the year ended 30 June 1949.

Taking the ports of the Commonwealth as a whole, an average of 33.2 hours per week were worked in 1948-49, as compared with 33 hours in the year which ended on 30 June 1948. Even though this increase was so small, the average weekly wage earned rose from £8. 8. 9 in 1948 to £10. 0. 9 in 1949. The average of attendance money which had to be paid to each worker was 4s. 1d. per week in 1948, as compared with 5s.10d. per week in 1949, this reduction in attendance money in 1949 without any proportionate increase in the number of hours worked being probably attributable to a more even spreading of work over the week in 1949, with less working of overtime than in 1948. Such a tendency contributes to the workers' welfare in an industry where the work is so arduous.

It is interesting to note the considerable difference between ports as regards the amount of attendance money which has to be paid, the sum being much smaller in the large ports than in the small. Sydney, for instance, with 6,600 wharf labourers out of a total of 24,000 for the whole country, has to pay only about

one tenth of the attendance money required in the ports of Freemantle or Brisbane.

The workers covered by the Australian attendance money scheme are all those engaged in 'stevedoring operations', this term covering both the loading or unloading of cargo, etc., into or from a ship and the handling of cargo or other goods at or in the vicinity of a wharf.

Belgium

Antwerp, which is one of the two most important ports in Belgium, has led the way with regard to improvement in the conditions of dock work in that country. It was because the unemployment benefit drawn by Antwerp dockworkers was out of all proportion to their number and their contributions that a registration scheme was first introduced in 1929 on the initiative of the National Emergency Fund. Under this scheme, two groups of dockworkers – regular and casual – were registered with a third non-registered group on the fringe of the industry.

Any casual worker obtaining more than a certain minimum of employment during a period was eligible for transfer to regular status. The number of registered workers was limited to a figure 20 per cent in excess of normal requirements.²⁵

Centralized pay offices were also established before the war and recruiting in taverns was replaced by hiring at new hiring offices, which the regular registered dockworkers were expected to attend twice a day without fail. The only attendance money they received in lieu of employment, however, was the ordinary unemployment insurance benefit. Wage rates were considered to be at a level which would permit a dockworker to earn an average week's wage in four days.²⁶

Since the war a proper attendance money scheme has been established at Antwerp under an Order dated 26 September 1946.²⁷ Similar schemes have been set up by subsequent Orders at other Belgian ports, including those of Brussels, Ghent and Vilvorde; and the following description of the arrangements at Antwerp applies equally to the other ports.

A 'Security of Livelihood Fund' is maintained by means of a levy upon all undertakings registered with the National Committee for the Port of Antwerp, equal to 15 per cent of their gross wages bill. Out of this Fund attendance money is paid, the amount being equal to the difference between 100 francs and the unemployment benefit and family allowances received in respect of each day of unemployment. This attendance money is payable to all 'recognized dockworkers', that is to say, dockworkers who have been issued with wage books either by the Central Agency of Antwerp Port Employers (*Centrale des Employeurs du Port d'Anvers - CEPA*) or the Antwerp Coal Traders Association (*Beroepsvereniging der Kolenhandelaars Antwerpen - BEKOLA*). As under attendance money schemes in other countries, the payments are intended both as a return for the service of regular attendance and as a welfare measure, and are payable only to involuntarily unemployed workers who do not fail to make themselves available at all call times.

Much damage was caused during the war to the hiring halls, but shelter is again being provided at the hiring points for unemployed workers who live too far away to return home between calls. The hiring halls, central pay offices, and general administration of the attendance money scheme, are the responsibility of the National Committee for the Port of Antwerp. This Committee, originally established in 1919, is similar to the Steel Board, the Joint Board for the Mining Industry, the Mechanical Engineering Board, and other bipartite bodies in Belgium. It includes in its membership at least four representatives of the workers and an equal number of representatives of employers.

The Antwerp Committee is responsible for the size of the registered labour force and, since it appears that the Belgian attendance scheme has had to bear the burden of a much greater volume of unemployment than similar schemes in other countries during the post-war period, Belgian experience in the control of dock labour supply is especially interesting. During 1946 the number of registered dockworkers in Antwerp was reduced from 16,100 in January to 14,560 by the end of the year. The average daily percentage of this force failing to obtain work declined from 34.6 in January to 14.9 in December. In 1947 the volume of traffic increased considerably so that, although the size of the register was restored to 16,813 by the end of the year, the percentage of unemployed never exceeded 20 and was usually much less, being as low as 8.9 by December.

Owing to the increase in the volume of traffic, which contin-



Before the introduction of the Antwerp decasualization scheme. Groups of dockers stand about in the street waiting to be hired

ued during the first quarter of 1948, the register was increased to 17,429 during January of that year, and a second category of dockworkers was formed to undertake the extra work. Unfortunately, however, the volume of traffic decreased sharply after the first quarter of the year, and since the size of the register was not reduced, the volume of unemployment rose to 25.9 per cent in January and to 40.2 per cent in June, thereby throwing considerable financial strain on the attendance money scheme.²⁸

Only combined figures for the ports of Antwerp and Ghent taken together are available for the succeeding period up to 1950; but they indicate clearly that, despite the achievement of a reduction in the register roughly equivalent to the increase at the beginning of 1948, the volume of unemployment could not be reduced in the face of declining traffic, but stood at 41.3 per cent in September 1948, 42 per cent in February 1949, 42.8 per cent in September 1949 and 42.3 per cent in March 1950.²⁹

With a decline in port traffic and a volume of unemployment of this order (which could conceivably arise to an equal extent in other countries with guaranteed wage and attendance money schemes), the problem of controlling the supply of dock labour becomes a major one, calling for careful consideration and broad action if the burden of such schemes is to be prevented from becoming unduly heavy. While it is desirable to keep changes in the size of the register to a minimum if the intention of enhancing the dockworkers' economic security is not to be defeated, it may be necessary at the same time to make substantial provision for retraining and the transfer of dockworkers to other industries if the decline in demand for labour in the ports is found to be part of a long-term trend rather than a temporary fluctuation.

In addition to the reductions in the register resulting from resignation, retirement and death, and from the removal from the register of dockworkers who fail to accept work assigned to them or disobey the internal port regulations, the National Committee for the Port of Antwerp decided to remove from the register all those who obtained less than ten days of employment during nine months of 1949. A broader solution of the problem of unemployment among dockworkers is difficult



Two Antwerp dockers who were not lucky enough to obtain any employment take their meal as best they can in the open street

in Belgium, where there is also unemployment in many other industries, especially in those which are similarly associated with foreign trade.

France

In the Act of 6 September 1947 respecting the organization of dock labour³⁰ provision was made for the registration of dockworkers and the payment of a 'guarantee allowance'. Although this Act has sometimes been described as the first French law to provide for a guaranteed wage, the allowance is only payable for turns not worked, and is not intended as an addition to earnings in order to bring them up to a certain minimum level; it may therefore be described as attendance money, and does not constitute a guaranteed minimum wage.

Dockworkers registered under this scheme are known as 'regular dockworkers', and are issued with trade cards to identify them as such; approximately 20,000 dockworkers hold these cards. There are also 'casual dockworkers', who are only employed when demands for labour exceed the supply of regular dock labour. The number of casual workers is sufficient to permit the total force to be expanded by as much as 25 per cent. The operations upon which regular dockworkers must be given priority comprise the loading and unloading of ships and boats at public berths, and the removal of goods to open sites or sheds within a public port area. These workers are required to report regularly for employment in the docks and are entitled to attendance money, within certain limitations, for each of the two turns a day attended without obtaining work.

On the other hand, the casual dockworkers, who are to be regarded, in the words of the Act, as 'a supplementary supply of labour to be called on only where there are insufficient regular dockworkers', are not expected to be in regular attendance at calls or to refrain from taking other employment without prior notice or permission, and are not entitled to attendance money. However, they are – unlike the regular dockworkers – entitled to benefit under the national unemployment insurance system in so far as the aggregate of the benefit and their part-time earnings in the docks does not exceed the maximum prescribed for partially unemployed workers generally. Some have re-



A typical scene on the Rotterdam waterfront. A Dutch shore gang steadies a load of packing cases as it is discharged to the quay

course to such supplementary employment as fishing and agriculture (usually in the neighbourhood of the port) or building and construction work (especially in ports devastated by the war), and others whose wives keep shops may help at home when they are idle.

The Act prescribes that the total number of days of unemployment of regular dockworkers in every period of six months must not be allowed to exceed 25 per cent of the working time. This inevitably sets a limit on the number of dockworkers who may be issued with trade cards. The fixing of such a limit, in one way or another, is essential to the financial viability of any attendance money scheme.

To administer the scheme, a National Dockworkers' Guarantee Fund has been established, with a central port manpower office under its authority in each port. Control of these bodies is shared on a tripartite basis. The chairman, vice-chairman and financial director of the Administrative Board of the National Fund are appointed by the Minister of Transport and Public Works, the Minister of Labour and the Minister of Finance respectively; the remaining members consisting of three employers' representatives and three workers' representatives, nominated by the most representative organizations of each group. The central manpower offices consist in each port of the director of the port (or the engineer in charge of the maritime service or navigation service), acting as chairman, and of two or three representatives of the cargo-handling enterprises with an equal number of dockworkers' representatives. The representatives are appointed every two years by the Minister of Transport and Public Works from a list of nominations submitted by the chairman of each central manpower office, after consultation with the relevant employers' and workers' organizations. The decisions of the central manpower offices are taken by a simple majority vote, the chairman having a casting vote in the event of a tie. It should be noted that, unlike the chairman of the local dock labour boards in the United Kingdom, the chairmen under the French scheme are not representatives of labour or of management, but are independent.

The central manpower office in each port is responsible for the over-all control of cargo-handling, for keeping a check on



Not all work in the docks is mechanized. Heavy loads still have to be humped about by the dockers themselves as is shown by this photograph from the French Atlantic Ocean port of Bordeaux



Handling a cargo of timber in the Netherlands port of Rotterdam

the port employers and their labour requirements, and for identifying and classifying those seeking work in the docks. As regards the latter duty, the central offices carry out the policy of the National Dockworkers' Guarantee Fund in respect of registration, and ensure that the registered regular workers carry out their obligation to attend for work at all call times, that they are given priority for all available employment and that they are granted all benefits due to them under existing legislation. The central offices also assist the National Fund in ensuring that the dockworkers are regularly paid the attendance money due to them, through the intermediary of the holidays-with-pay funds and other local bodies.

In addition to controlling the registers of labour, keeping a record of the port employers seeking labour, and being responsible for the collection and disbursement of funds, the National Fund deals with all appeals against disciplinary decisions of the central offices, formulates and executes general policy, and makes any necessary modifications in the scheme.

Attendance money is paid at a rate fixed by order of the Minister of Transport and Public Works, and is exempt from the social security contributions which are deducted from wages in France. It is not payable to any dockworkers in receipt of daily payments by way of accident compensation, sickness insurance, unemployment insurance or unemployment relief; or to any dockworker who engages in other paid employment or refuses to accept work offered. The right of a regular dockworker to attendance money is also limited to a total of one hundred turns in each period of six months, although the Minister of Labour or the Minister of Transport and Public Works may by order suspend this limitation as regards a specified port for not more than six months at a time. Failure on the part of any regular dockworker to present himself regularly for employment and to accept all work to which he is assigned may involve temporary or permanent withdrawal of his trade card, unless his reasons for refusing any assignment are acceptable to the central manpower office in the port concerned.

The cost of the scheme, including its administrative expenses, is financed in the main by a levy upon all port employers, proportional to their gross wage payments to regular and casual dockworkers. Other sources of revenue are the interest on reserves, the interest on authorized loans and any gifts and legacies received.

New Zealand³¹

From 1937 to March 1947 a guaranteed weekly minimum wage, originally amounting to fifty shillings but later increased to sixty-six shillings, was payable to Grade A dockworkers registered under the 'bureau' system (a system of registration and work equalization) who conformed to the rules under that system. This guaranteed wage applied only to dockworkers in the ports of Auckland, Wellington, Lyttelton, and (after January 1946) Dunedin. These four main ports, in which well over half the total man-hours in the industry are worked, are those which offer the steadiest livelihood; and their workers stand less in need of measures to stabilize their earnings than the workers in the other ports. Thus, not only during the wartime period of labour shortages but also since the war, the payments made under the provisions of the guaranteed wage scheme were only a small fraction of the total wages paid out.

Naturally, there were demands that this guaranteed wage should be applied to the other ports, which were most in need of it; but there was opposition to this proposal because of the

much heavier cost arising from an extension of the scheme to ports where employment is far less regular. These demands were made on a weekly basis of calculation; and an alternative suggestion was put forward that wage guarantees should be based on four-weekly averages, on the ground that it would not be justifiable to compensate a worker for a slack week in cases where he earned high wages in the previous and succeeding weeks. This, however, disregarded the fact that wage-earners normally arrange their expenditure according to the ordinary interval between pay-days.

Under the attendance money and guaranteed wage scheme which has been in operation in New Zealand since March 1947, a weekly rather than a monthly guaranteed wage has been adopted. The new scheme applies to seventeen ports, and covers all permanent dockworkers – numbering nearly 7,000 in 1948 – who are members of the New Zealand Waterside Workers' Union.³² As was expected, the cost per man-week of operating the scheme at the ports of Auckland, Wellington and Lyttelton has been very small, while the cost of operating the scheme at the smaller ports of Oamaru, Greymouth, Gisborne and Napier has been substantial. In the year ending 31 March 1950, the average cost per man-week varied from 1.73d. at Auckland to 387.31d. at Oamaru.

Attendance money is payable in each main and secondary port in respect of each day on which a registered dockworker cannot obtain work, unless he has forfeited his right to benefit under the scheme for a week through failure to meet any of the obligations, such as the obligation to make himself available for work. To fulfil the latter condition, the worker must attend at the usual place of engagement during the hours of the call unless he has been advised by the bureau, or by a duly authorized officer where the bureau system is not in operation, that attendance is not necessary. A worker who is absent from work for not more than one day during a week through no fault of his own, and whose reason for absence is accepted as justifiable by the branch manager or the Waterfront Industry Commission's representative, is entitled to receive the daily guarantee for the whole week. This minimum is the equivalent of two hours' work at the ordinary time rate for general cargo (four shillings an hour in 1950).

The amount of the guaranteed minimum weekly wage is well in excess of the total attendance money receivable in a week of unemployment, having been £5.10.0 per week in the main and secondary ports since October 1948. It is lower in the minor ports of Whakatane and Whangarei (£4.10.0 per week), Tauranga, Tokamaru Bay and Awanui (£4.0.0 per week), and Opotoki and Motueka (£3.10.0 per week). No attendance money is payable in these minor ports, where employment is more intermittent and where, in consequence, payments under the stabilization scheme are particularly heavy.

In the year ending 31 March 1950, the cost of the daily attendance money payments was £40,710, and that of the weekly guarantee was £19,232, making a total of £59,942. At the time when the scheme was introduced, it was estimated to cost some £100,000 per annum, but owing to the large volume of work available payments have not been as great as anticipated.

They are financed by a levy equal to 2½d. per paid labour-hour, collected from employers by the Waterfront Industry Commission. Though this rate of levy has brought in an income almost twice as large as the expenditure already involved by the scheme, it has been considered advisable to allocate most of the present surplus to a guaranteed wage reserve in

order to provide against higher costs in periods of subnormal shipping.

The scheme is administered by the Waterfront Industry Commission through central pay offices and labour bureaux, from which the dockworkers receive their wages, work assignments and payments under the scheme. The wartime Waterfront Control Commission, comprising three full-time commissioners, was replaced in 1946 by a Waterfront Industry Commission of five members, two representing the workers and two the employers, with an independent chairman. This new Commission became so divided over questions relating to the guaranteed wage scheme that it had to be replaced at the beginning of 1947 by the general manager of the Commission, acting as sole commissioner; but by November of the same year a sufficient measure of agreement on various points at issue had been achieved between the two sides of the industry to permit the re-establishment of a Commission with two members nominated by the New Zealand Waterside Employers' Association and two by the New Zealand Waterside Workers' Union.

Netherlands West Indies (Curacao)

It is interesting to note the case of a port in a non-metropolitan territory which is much less developed than most important maritime countries and yet can support a guaranteed minimum wage scheme benefiting a considerable proportion of its dockworkers. Under an Ordinance which was brought into force on 21 September 1946,³³ workers in the Port of Curacao were classified into regular staff, reserve workers and casual workers, each class having different rights and duties. In the first class were placed workers who had worked for at least one year in the docks and had earned not less than 800 guilders for such work during the first six months of 1946. These workers must satisfy certain physical standards and be at least eighteen years of age, and must live as close to the harbour as possible and report for work twice a day; they have a guaranteed minimum wage of twenty-five guilders per week, whether they work or not. In the second class were included workers who had earned at least 600 guilders while working in the harbour during the first six months of 1946, who satisfied certain physical standards and had attained the age of eighteen years. These workers do not have a guaranteed wage, and are bound to report for work only twice a week. The third class consists of other workers who satisfy certain physical standards and who have attained the age of eighteen years.

The purpose of the Central Port Office set up under the Department of Social and Economic Affairs in pursuance of the Ordinance is to provide a single labour pool for all stevedoring concerns, and also to be responsible for social work. Every dockworker and every stevedoring concern must be registered before being allowed to work on the docks or to carry on stevedoring work, and the engagement of unregistered dockworkers is punishable by law. The worker is paid by the Office, to which the stevedoring concerns refund the equivalent of the wages paid. Workers must observe the rules of employment and obey the instructions of the inspector in charge of the Office, who is appointed by the Government, and is assisted by a committee of three employers and three workers to advise him on all questions with which the Office has to deal.³⁴

Measures in other Countries

Wage Stabilization Schemes

Some information is also available regarding the stabilization

measures which are at present being employed in certain other countries.

In Norway, 5,000 of the dockworkers belong to unions, and the vast majority are therefore covered by collective agreements which provide for allocation of the available work in rotation, according to the relative earnings of each dockworker, so as to equalize the total annual earnings of each worker. In Oslo, the collective agreement also includes a special provision to the effect that, if a dockworker has earned nothing between 7 a.m. and 9 p.m. on any day, he is to be paid a wage of 8 kroner for that day. This sum constitutes attendance money, since it is payable irrespective of the level of his earnings on the days of the week when he is able to obtain employment in the docks. In the ports of Oslo, Arendal, Stavanger, Trondheim and Bodö, employment offices have been established under the control of a committee consisting of representatives of workers and employers in equal numbers and an umpire appointed by the port authorities. These offices apply the provisions of the collective agreements, which are reached independently between the Norwegian Transport Workers' Federation on the one hand, and the Norwegian Employers' Federation (which includes the majority of employers concerned with loading and unloading in the ports) on the other hand.

In India, steps have been taken since the war to stabilize the employment and earnings of dockworkers. The Dockworkers (Regulation of Employment) Act, 1948, provides for the introduction of stabilization schemes in the ports of the country; while the Dockworkers (Advisory Committee) Rules, 1949, deal with the setting up of a committee, composed of an equal number of representatives of dockworkers, of employers, and of the Central Government, to advise the latter upon matters arising out of the administration of the 1948 Act or any scheme which may be or has been made under it.

Stabilization schemes under the Act are being introduced in various ports – those for Bombay, Calcutta and Madras being the furthest advanced. In these three ports, registration schemes are already in operation and attendance money or a guaranteed minimum wage is paid. Under the registration scheme of each port, dockworkers are divided into groups with different rights of access to the available dock employment, so that the regular dockworkers in each port must all be employed before employment can be offered to casual dockworkers. In Bombay, the force of regular dockworkers consists of 2,300 Category A 'shore labourers', or labourers in the employ of the Port Trust, and 4,000 'stevedore labourers' in the direct and regular employ of individual stevedores. The 'casual' group consists of 500 Category B shore labourers and another 6,000 stevedore labourers casually employed by individual stevedores on a rotation basis to meet requirements in excess of those which can be met by the regular workers. In Madras only shore labourers are registered, either as 'regular' or 'casual', and fluctuations in shipping are such that there is frequent recourse to the casual workers. Similarly, in Calcutta, only those employed by the port commissioners are registered, and they are divided into 'regular', on the primary register, and 'casuals', on the secondary register.

An allowance for attendance on days when no work is obtained is payable in Bombay at the rate of twelve annas for Category A shore labourers, six annas for Category B shore labourers, and eight annas for casual stevedore labourers; while regular stevedore workers are permanently employed on a monthly basis and are therefore not entitled to or in need of attendance money. In Madras, each worker is granted a re-

tainer fee and a cost-of-living allowance (amounting to 42 rupees for a 26-day working month), which constitute a minimum wage since they are payable whether he attends for work or not. There is nevertheless an incentive to seek work, as a piece-work rate of five annas per ton of cargo handled is also payable. In Calcutta, a minimum guaranteed wage has been fixed for labour on the primary register in consultation with the trade unions concerned, and provision has also been made for the payment of attendance money.

In Italy, a series of laws relating to the organization of dock labour were enacted between the two wars. A scheme has been established under which permanent dockworkers are registered, and grouped in companies or gangs, and can be hired only on a group basis. At present there are 14,757 permanent registered dockworkers, 14,420 of these being entitled to payments to stabilize their earnings. These sums are payable during slack periods, and are designed to bring the dockworkers' earnings up to the level of remuneration which they receive when the volume of traffic is normal, normal remuneration being that which is payable for forty hours of work during a week. Wages are supplemented by an amount proportionate to the number of hours out of forty (up to a maximum of sixteen) during which the worker has been involuntarily unemployed. In terms of a working month, those who have obtained less than twelve days' work during the month are paid a sum proportionate to sixty-nine hours of unemployment, while for those who have worked 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, or 21 or more days in the month the corresponding hourly figures for purposes of stabilization payments are 61, 53, 45, 37, 29, 21, 13, 5 and 0, respectively. These payments are made from central funds maintained by means of contributions from the employers and administered by a Central Port Labour Committee, whose membership includes four representatives of port workers. This Committee, established under the Minister for the Merchant Marine by recent legislation,³⁵ is also responsible for giving advice on problems of a general character relating to cargo handling and carrying in the maritime ports and the legal and economic conditions of the port workers, and for the operation of the scheme of registration and stabilization instituted for their benefit. A new stabilization scheme to replace the one described is provided for in legislation at present under consideration; the new scheme would involve payment of stabilization supplements to wages, sufficient to bring actual earnings during slack periods up to the level of the minimum wage payable to workers who are fully employed.

Registration Systems

It is clear that control over the supply of labour, through the registration of dockworkers, and over the demand for labour, through the registration of employers, is essential to the successful operation of attendance money and guaranteed minimum wage schemes, and can have a valuable stabilizing effect on dockworkers' earnings even by itself. The registration schemes in operation in other important maritime countries therefore call for attention since they make a significant contribution to the workers' security of livelihood, assist in the efficient organization of manpower throughout each country, and may be regarded as a major step towards the introduction of attendance money and guaranteed minimum wage schemes.

Sweden provides an example of a system under which the dock labour is divided into several categories. In the ports of that country there are not only two registered groups, the regular

dockworkers in Group A, and the Group B dockworkers, but also a third, non-registered group of casual dockworkers. The regular dockworkers are expected to be available in sufficient number to meet all the requirements at the four calls during the day, and only when they are all fully employed may Group B workers be called upon, with resort to the assistance of the casual workers only when all of the other workers are employed. If registered workers refuse – as they may under the provisions of prevailing collective agreements – to work as much overtime as is required of them, and casual workers are engaged in their place, the registered workers must be paid at the ordinary time rate for the number of hours of overtime for which the casual workers are employed, on the ground that the employment of the casual workers reduces the amount of employment still available to the registered workers on the following day. Generally speaking, rates of remuneration are high in compensation for the insecurity of livelihood.

Casual non-registered dockworkers, for whom the need has grown at busy periods during the post-war years, are obtained through the public labour exchanges, which have made agreements in fifty-three harbours with the local employers' and workers' organizations to act as intermediaries for this purpose, in accordance with previous negotiations on the national level. In the eight largest harbours, special exchanges for dockworkers have been set up by the labour exchanges. In a number of other harbours, the exchange for dockworkers has been merged with the exchange for seamen. In these latter cases an attempt is made to give seamen priority of employment in casual dock work while they are waiting for a new engagement for employment on board ship.

In Greece, dock work may be undertaken only by registered workers issued with trade cards. In Piraeus, which is the main port of Greece, there are on the register 2,200 regular dockworkers, and 3,000 supplementary workers who undertake any work beyond the capacity of the regular workers. In the other ports of the country there are 3,500 regular workers and 1,000 supplementary workers on the register. In each port having more than 20,000 inhabitants a commission has been established, composed of the labour inspector, the chief port official, a representative of the merchant shipping companies, a representative of the local Chamber of Commerce and Industry, and a representative of the dockworkers. These commissions are charged with the responsibility of maintaining equilibrium between the supply of labour and the need for it in the ports. At Piraeus, a special Organization of the Port of Piraeus, which was formed in 1930 to ensure maximum efficiency in the handling of cargo, has this responsibility. At the time of the Organization's foundation, it was provided that there should be no new recruitment of regular dockworkers in the port, and this prohibition has been maintained. As a result of the severe conditions arising out of the war and the post-war disruption, a number of port workers were killed or died of starvation, and many have been partially disabled. The combined effect of these factors has been that, in Piraeus, the regular working force is a small group of men whose average age is high and of whom some are not very fit or able-bodied, while a much larger proportion of the work than in the other ports is undertaken by supplementary workers.

Yet it is only the regular dockworkers in Piraeus whose security of livelihood is completely assured. These workers are regarded as permanent employees of the State, are paid whether there is work for them or not, and, during busy periods when

there is a great deal of work available, their normal earnings may be doubled or even trebled. No other dockworkers in Greece receive any payment on days when there is no work for them, neither are they entitled to any unemployment insurance benefit. However, the commissions in the ports, whose responsibilities include the fixing of wage rates, make it a general practice to take account of the number of days of unemployment which each dockworker may be expected to encounter during the succeeding period and to adjust the wage rates fixed, up to a certain limit, in compensation for the expected loss of earnings. Apparently it is not difficult to foresee the amount of unemployment that may be expected to arise in the future; it is found that dockworkers are out of work during 30 to 35 per cent of their working time.

In the United States, the supply of dock labour in the ports on the Pacific Coast is organized under the provisions of a collective agreement made in 1948 between the Waterfront Employers' Association and the International Longshoremen's and Warehousemen's Union. The Waterfront Employers' Association, with a membership of about one hundred, includes virtually all the employers of dock labour on the West Coast except the armed services. There are about 16,000 workers in the membership of the Union, half of them working in San Francisco harbour, to whose system of work rotation reference was made in the first part of this article. Under the agreement mentioned, a system of bipartite committees has been established, headed by a coast committee, with area committees for each of the four areas into which the coast is divided and a port committee in each port. The higher committees deal with all disputes and matters referred to them by the port committees, which are in direct contact with the details of the labour situation in each port. It is the responsibility of the port committees to maintain and operate central hiring halls, to control the registration lists, and to decide on all questions arising with regard to the rotation of gangs and the employment of extra men. When it is necessary to reduce the number of men on the register, those released must be the workers with least seniority of service. Non-registered, extra men may be employed to supplement registered men whenever necessary, but non-registered dockworkers must not be despatched to jobs while there is any man on the registered list qualified, ready and willing to do the work in question. It is provided, that gangs, and men not assigned to gangs, must be so despatched as to equalize their work opportunities as far as practicable, having regard to their qualifications for the work to be done. Within the limits of those eligible to do the work available, employers are free to select their men; and men are free to select their jobs.

In contrast with other countries, where the costs fall entirely upon the employers, the expenses of the hiring halls are met half by the Union and half by the employers. All the personnel of these halls are selected by the port committees, with the exception of the 'despatchers' (those actually allocating men to the various jobs to be done), who are nominated by the Union. No guarantee of earnings has been attempted in these West Coast ports beyond the provision that, if men are ordered to report for work or are ordered back from a previous day, and if less than four hours' work is available for them, they must receive four hours' pay (at normal or overtime rates, as the case may be).

(to be continued)

25. See *International Labour Review*, Vol. XXI, No. 4, April 1930, pp. 535-537: *Employment and unemployment in some great European ports*, by Max Gottschalk.
26. 'Decasualization in the Port of Antwerp', in *The International Transport*

Workers' Journal, January/February 1948, pp. 3-4; and *l'Évolution sociale au Port d'Anvers*, in *Problèmes* (Revue mensuelle du Bureau d'Etude et de Documentation de la Fédération Générale du Travail de Belgique), October 1947, pp. 607-610.

27. *Moniteur Belge*, 28 September 1946.

28. *Ministre du Travail et de la Prévoyance Sociale, Division des recherches et de la statistique: Le chômage des dockers au port d'Anvers* (Brussels, February and September, 1948).

29. Albert Delpérée: 'Analyse de l'évolution et de la situation du chômage en Belgique', in *Economia Internazionale* (Genoa), Vol. III, No. 2, May 1950, pp. 553-554.

30. See *International Labour Office: Legislative series*, 1947 - France 5.

31. All statistics relating to New Zealand are obtained from the annual reports of the Waterfront Industry Commission, and of the Waterfront Control Commission which preceded it.

32. A distinction must be drawn between Grade A dockworkers, who are able-

bodied and to whom the scheme applies without qualification, and Grade B dockworkers who, through physical disability or for some other reason, are prevented from undertaking a normal share of the work of the ports, and whose position has to be reviewed by the port committee to determine which of them may receive the guaranteed wage.

33. Ordinance of 8 July 1946, to provide for the establishment of a central port office (*Publicatieblad A*, 1946, No. 110).

34. It may be noted that dockworkers in the Netherlands also have a guaranteed minimum wage. Those employed by the port labour authority in Amsterdam have a guaranteed minimum of 36.48 florins weekly. For a discussion of certain aspects of the pre-war dock labour situation in the Netherlands, see *International Labour Review*, Vol. XXXVII, No. 2, February 1938, pp. 226-230; *Rationalization and the Decasualization of Dock Labour in the Port of Rotterdam*, by C. Morzer Bruyns.

35. Act of 4 June 1949 (No. 422): Constitution of a Central Port Labour Committee under the Minister for the Merchant Marine (*Gazzetta Ufficiale*, 22 July 1949).

Radar trials in German Rhine shipping

THE DUTCH *Handels en Transport Courant* reports that for the first time a vessel engaged in German Rhine shipping has recently been equipped with radar. A Duisburg Rhine shipping undertaking has taken this step following extensive trial tests carried out by the Aachen Technical High School.

The paper points out that opinions on the usefulness of radar in Rhine shipping operations are still somewhat divided. Attention is drawn to the fact that, as a result of the present over-offering of tonnage and the faster turn-round of vessels in consequence of increasing motorization, the number of Rhine vessels lying empty (at present approximately 100 per working day) is expected to rise still further. In fact, there is, at the present time, no longer any question of journeys being undertaken during the hours of darkness.

The experiment is, however, being watched with keen interest in German Rhine shipping circles, which have an eye to the future and better times in their industry.

Ground control of aviation for Germans

THE ALLIED OCCUPATION AUTHORITIES in Western Germany have announced in Bonn that they are to hand over ground control of civil aviation to the West German authorities. The West German Federal Government is to set up a special section of the Ministry of Transport which will take over non-flying functions from the Allied Civil Aviation Board.

The Civil Aviation Board is to hand over gradually the running of all departments covering air traffic control, navigational aids, airport supervision, aeronautical information, accident investigation, and aeronautical telecommunications.

No agreement has yet been reached as to when the Allied Occupation Authorities will relax their security ban on Germans being employed on flying duties.

New automatic pilot system developed

A COMPLETELY AUTOMATIC marine pilot system, which follows any course it receives from a human or automatic source has been recently developed by the General Electric Company of America.

Where a helmsman overcontrols the rudder in wind, swells or currents, the auto-pilot follows its course with an average variation of less than one-half of one degree.

Other advantages of the system are:

An automatic compensator which trims the vessels when there is more force or resistance on one side of the ship than on the other; a weather adjustment which may be set to minimize rudder action in high seas, thereby cutting down the stresses on the hull caused by excessive rudder movement; an override which permits the helmsman immediately to take the ship from automatic control and place it under manual operation in emer-

gencies; and an automatic turn compensator which prevents the vessels from manoeuvring past the desired compass heading in completing a turn.

FAO steps up technical assistance to world's fisheries

ASSISTANCE IN THE DEVELOPMENT of national fisheries is forming an important part of the Expanded Technical Assistance Programme of the United Nations Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO). Under this programme, governments of countries in the Far East, Latin America and the Caribbean are receiving advice on the expansion and improvement of their fishing industries according to an FAO procedure whereby an expert in the field is attached to a government, at the latter's request, for a stated period and for a particular assignment.

The projects already in operation include general surveys of fishery resources such as is now being carried out by an FAO Fisheries Biologist in Ecuador. He is being employed on the biological work involved in preparing a plan for the development, conservation and general management of Ecuadorian fisheries.

A preliminary survey, though of a less detailed nature, is also at present being made in Brazil to determine which types of technical assistance will be needed to improve fishing methods and increase domestic consumption.

In Pakistan too, FAO experts are advising on the development of a fishing harbour at Karachi in order to relieve the congestion of the present port and provide for the larger mechanized fleet which the Pakistan Government intends to develop.

Ceylon, on the other hand, is receiving FAO assistance in the mechanization of its fishing fleet and gear in order to increase production for local consumption.

Other specialized projects aim at spreading Far Eastern techniques for the rearing of fish in ponds in order to furnish a convenient source of protein. Technical assistance of this nature has been under way in Haiti since November 1950. Artificial ponds have been constructed and these have been stocked with carp from the USA and a fast-growing fish known as *Tilapia* from Jamaica. Experiments are also being carried out in the rearing of indigenous fish.

In Thailand, existing fish ponds are operated mainly by residents in the Bangkok area, but the Thai Government is anxious to increase fish production for consumption among people living inland, where animal proteins are scarce and expensive. It has therefore requested the assistance of an FAO expert in spreading knowledge of freshwater fish culture methods.

Fishery educational work is also in progress. Under the sponsorship of the Chilean Government, a Fisheries Training Centre will be run for ten weeks beginning in January 1952. It will draw some fifty students from South American countries, who will receive intensive instruction in fishery biology, technology, economics, administration and related subjects.

The 'Wielun Incident' in Stockholm

Polish
seamen's
escape
sheds
new light on
Cominform
methods

IN RECENT MONTHS the press of both Sweden and other West European countries has given details of a number of instances in which Polish seafarers, profiting from the fact that their ships touched at Swedish ports, have seized their opportunity of escaping from the stifling atmosphere of their own Communist-controlled country and sought a new life in the free world.

One of the latest of these incidents – and certainly the most revealing to date – is that which involved the Polish steamship *Wielun* shortly before her departure from the Swedish port of Stockholm in September last. On that occasion, the Swedish police authorities were called upon to investigate reports – brought to their attention by the ITF-affiliated Swedish Seafarers' Union – that a member of the *Wielun's* crew was being kept prisoner on board under very suspicious circumstances. The upshot of these enquiries was that the *Wielun* was eventually boarded by a strong detachment of Stockholm police, who took off the ship's cook, Stanislaw Kulka – victim of brutal treatment and forcible detention on board following an unsuccessful attempt to seek asylum as a political refugee.

The 'Wielun Incident', as it has come to be known in Sweden, has infuriated the Polish Communists beyond all measure. Not only has one of their intended victims been allowed to escape, but Swedish public opinion has been profoundly shocked and angered by the glimpse of Communist methods – brief though it was – afforded by the successful rescue bid. As a consequence – and in a vain attempt to justify the maltreatment of Kulka – a tremendous barrage of propaganda has been launched against Sweden by the Polish press and radio, and the most violent charges have been levelled against the responsible Swedish authorities. The latter are accused, in diplomatic Notes couched in language far from diplomatic, of 'kidnapping innocent Polish seamen' and of preventing them by force from returning to their native country.

What are the true facts of the *Wielun* Incident? Let Brother Jerker Svensson, General Secretary of the Swedish Seafarers' Union, tell why it was felt necessary to call in the Swedish police and to carry out an on-the-spot investigation of the mysterious events on board this Polish vessel in the capital's port.



Brother Svensson's story begins by stating some simple facts: 'During the morning of Saturday, 22 September, two Swedish customs officers put through a phone call to our union office in Stockholm. They reported that whilst making a last minute inspection on board the Polish steamship *Wielun* they had discovered that a member of the crew, obviously the victim of physical maltreatment, was being kept in a heavily guarded cabin. The customs officials understood that the seaman was being kept on board against his own wishes by force. They asked whether the Seafarers' Union could not do something to rescue him. We at union headquarters acted on this information at once. The police in charge of the port district were notified and asked to investigate the report. They promised to follow up the matter immediately.'

A surprise visit by the Customs

The two customs officers in question had been watching the *Wielun* – due to leave port at any moment – with a feeling of growing suspicion. In their own words: 'We sensed that something funny was going on aboard and we decided to pay another visit to the ship in order to see for ourselves whether or not our suspicions were well founded. The crew of the vessel



Stanislaw Kulka, supported by plain clothes officers and followed by an escort of uniformed Swedish police, is brought ashore

were obviously taken by surprise when we boarded her once again. Nevertheless, everything seemed quite normal until we came to a locked cabin aft. One of the crew was standing guard outside the door, but we ordered him to open up. This he eventually did, but showed clear signs of extreme uneasiness, watching our every movement. Inside the cabin we found a man, dressed only in a blood-bespattered T-shirt, lying on a bunk and obviously in a very weak condition. Although by now highly suspicious of the whole business we nevertheless carried out our normal inspection of the cabin without making any comment. In the meantime, the *Wielun*'s master had arrived, accompanied by another man, in civilian clothes, but who appeared to be the real authority on board. Both of them remained in the cabin until we had completed our work and then saw to it that the door was once again bolted and guarded. We, for our part, went ashore and immediately got in touch with representatives of the Seafarers' Union who, in their turn, notified the police authorities of our suspicions.'

Swift action by the Swedish police

When the authorities learned of the customs officers' discovery, two police cars containing some half dozen plain clothes officers were sent down to the docks to take a look at the *Wielun*.

Several of them went on board and asked to see the prisoner. The Polish master, however, refused to allow them access to the cabin in which he was detained, stating that he would only open up if the police used force. In view of the attitude adopted by the master, one of the Swedish plain clothes men left the *Wielun* and reported back to police headquarters, whilst others remained on board to ensure that the cabin was not entered until further orders had been received.

About an hour later, when the plain clothes officer returned from police headquarters, things began to liven up. Almost immediately following his arrival, police cars began to arrive one after the other until, finally, there were nine parked in front of the *Wielun*. Eighteen uniformed constables got out, formed up on the quay, and then boarded the vessel to join their plain clothes colleagues. They were met by the ship's captain, the *politruk* (political commissar, or in Communist jargon 'cultural and educational officer') and a representative of the Polish Embassy in Stockholm, which had in the meantime been warned of the police action. The Polish representative, as might be expected, protested vehemently against the boarding of the ship. The police, however, stuck to their guns, claiming quite correctly that the ship was under Swedish jurisdiction, and insisting that they should be allowed to see the prisoner without any

further delay. Finally the captain ordered the door to be unlocked and the police got their first sight of the unfortunate prisoner, who was later identified as Stanislaw Kulka, the cook.

The man who escaped

Kulka, who was obviously in a state of extreme fear, whispered to the policemen that he wanted to be taken off the *Wielun*. Without further ado, this was accomplished and a little later Kulka, wrapped in a blanket and supported by two plain clothes officers, was helped off the ship. Behind followed a long line of Swedish uniformed constables, one of whom carried Kulka's clothes, which had been taken away from him by the *politruk*. Driven to police headquarters in Stockholm, Kulka declared himself to be a political refugee and applied for asylum in Sweden. It appeared that he had been ashore on the previous day to visit friends and had then decided not to return to his native country. Unfortunately for him, however, someone aboard the *Wielun* had got wind of his intention. When he went back to the ship for the last time to collect his belongings, he was set upon, beaten into semi-consciousness, and locked up in the cabin in which he was found by the customs officers. But for the timely intervention of the Swedish authorities, he would undoubtedly have been taken back to Poland, handed over to the tender mercies of the communist secret police, and perhaps have disappeared for ever from human ken.

Postscript

The Polish authorities are still continuing their campaign of vilification against Sweden. Further diplomatic Notes, alleging the 'kidnapping' of Polish seafarers and demanding that Kulka (who is described as a 'criminal') be returned to Poland, have been received by the Swedish Foreign Office. The Swedish authorities, for their part, have energetically rejected all such accusations, pointing out that Kulka has been granted political asylum in accordance with international law and stating that consequently there exist no grounds for his extradition. In addition, the Swedish Government has expressed its willingness – in accordance with the convention of conciliation and arbitration between Sweden and Poland – to have the whole question of Sweden's treatment of Polish nationals dealt with by the International Court of Justice.

The latest Swedish Note points out that on a number of occasions Swedish seafarers have been arrested and detained for long periods in Polish prisons without any reason, or because of trifling breaches of regulations. It draws attention to the fact that the Swedish seafarers' organizations have stated that in no country are their members submitted to such vexation as those for which the police in Poland are responsible. There seems little doubt that this latest wave of victimization and intimidation directed against Swedish seamen is in retaliation for the humanitarian and lawful action taken by their Government.

Seafarers top list of escapes from Poland

ACCORDING TO THE ICFTU publication *Spotlight*, August and September were record months for Poles who chose freedom. A significant fact is that, unlike the refugees of the immediate post-war years, many of these recent escapees are young people who have been subject to Communist propaganda at an impressionable age. Below is a list of the more outstanding escapes during the two month's period of August and September only.



A Swedish constable leaves Wielun, carrying Kulka's clothing

2 August: Twelve Polish seamen mutinied aboard the minesweeper HG 11, locked up their officers and brought the boat into Ystad, Sweden. They were later granted the right of asylum.

Polish seaman Antoni Obertynski walked off the *Hugo Kol-lataj* in a British port and was granted the right of asylum.

16 August: Three members of the crew of a Polish motor-schooner jumped ship in Karlshamn, Sweden.

20 August: Entire crew of five Poles of a fishing boat from Kolobrzeg (to be found on the map on p. 165) escaped to Sweden.

22 August: Two members of the crew of the tanker *Tatry* (which had been requisitioned by the British Government), Adam Bajorko and Marian Wozniak, refused to return home.

29 August: Seaman Edmund Ochocki left the fishing vessel *Swinoujscie* 104 at Newcastle-on-Tyne, England, and claimed the right of asylum, which was later granted.

30 August: Two members of the crew of the *Swiatowid* left their ship at Karlshamn, Sweden.

5 September: Two seamen, Piotr Szendzik and Aleksander Pulicz, walked off the Polish ship *Bialystok* when she was undergoing repairs at West Hartlepool, England.

15 September: It was announced in Berlin that nineteen members of the Polish delegation to the international Communist Youth Rally held in the Eastern Sector had applied for political asylum in Western Berlin.

17 September: The British Home Office granted the right of asylum to six Polish seamen who had earlier walked off the Polish ships *Wroclaw* and *Lech* in the Port of London.

24 September: Swedish police rescue Stanislaw Kulka, who had been imprisoned aboard the *Wielun* while in port at Stockholm. Kulka was ship's cook and his galley-boy took advantage of the disturbance on board to make his good escape also.

During the same period four young Poles landed at Malmö airport in Sweden in a home-made aircraft, while two others escaped to Paris by stowing away in the tail of an airliner.

How the 'Polish People's Democracy' cares for its transport workers

YET ANOTHER EXAMPLE of how the Communist State fails to provide for the workers it professes to represent was given in an article in the Polish newspaper *Kurier Codzienny* on 9 September, which states that Warsaw bus conductresses are recruited from surrounding villages, but no provision for lodging in the capital is made for them.

'It was a hot day in September. The passengers travelling in the trolleybus towards the famous *Legia* swimming pool watched with amazement the conductress dozing off in her seat. When she had sold tickets to all who got in at the last bus stop, she immediately rested her face in her hands and fell asleep.

'The majority of conductresses are girls from villages often as much as 30 or more kilometres from the capital', continued the writer. 'They came to town to work thinking they would be able to get accommodation... But many conductresses employed in the Municipal Transport Enterprise have nowhere to spend the night. They cannot go home, for a daily trip would be too expensive and would in any case take too long. They go home once a week, even those who do not live very far away in villages situated on the suburban PKS (State Road Communications) lines. These girls cannot afford the fare because the PKS does not approve any fare reductions. The Municipal Enterprise, as is already known, has no hotel for conductresses, so where do they sleep? Sometimes they sleep at a friend's but they generally just stay around the bus shed...'

The writer of this article calls upon the Warsaw People's Council as well as the appropriate trade union branch to look into the matter. He omits to add, of course, that the government-controlled trade unions have done nothing about the rate of wages paid to Polish conductresses, which the writer admits are too low to allow even those living in the suburbs to return home after their day's work.

from *Spotlight* (an ICFTU publication)

Hungarian railwaymen resent Soviet methods

IN AN UNCENSORED REPORT from behind the Iron Curtain, *Spotlight*, a publication of the International Confederation of Free Trade Unions, quotes the Hungarian Minister of Communications, Bebrics, as having criticized the railway workers of his country for their obvious reluctance to adopt Soviet methods. Minister Bebrics, in a speech made on 12 August last, declared that 'enemies hiding among the railway workers are trying to frustrate labour competition by all means in their power'. He added the somewhat bloodthirsty order that 'the last remnants of the enemy must be liquidated without mercy'.

Spotlight comments that it is clear that the 'enemy' referred to are those railway workers who realise that the introduction of Stakhanovite speed-up methods leads not only to increased exploitation of the workers, but also to more accidents. The ICFTU publication points to the case of a Hungarian signalwoman who, having just completed a six-week training course, recently allowed an express train to enter the station at Székesfehérvár ten minutes too soon. It ran into a local passenger train killing, according to some estimates, over a hundred people, but in the Communist press only five.

In recent months, the Hungarian Press has been concentrating its criticism on the railway workers. According to the 4 August issue of *Világosság*, for instance, the 'enemy' is spreading the view that no special preparations are necessary for this autumn's peak traffic, since 'in any case the traffic will be so immense that nothing the railway workers can do will solve the problem'. Another Hungarian paper, *Népszava*, in its issue of 4 September, gave a long list of wagons which had remained unloaded in various stations for as long as eighty-eight hours, with the result that the goods went bad before they could reach the shops. According to *Népszava* the railway workers had not bothered to inform the transport undertakings that the goods had arrived. The article summed up the situation as 'carelessness, mistakes, lack of foresight and care everywhere'.

The Hungarian Railwaymen's Union itself was forced to toe the line on 5 September, when its Executive Committee adopted a resolution admitting all the charges which had been levelled against its members. 'Old-fashioned thinking' it stated, 'and the old professionals, many of whom are our enemies, have done everything to prevent the introduction of the excellent methods proved in practice in the Soviet Union'.

The resolution went on to promise that 'disciplinary measures prescribed by the new code of discipline for railway workers would be taken against enemy elements'. On the other hand, railwaymen who 'take over as many Soviet methods as possible' (sic) would be helped.

ERP credits granted to West Berlin shipping

WEST BERLIN SHIPPING is the latest sector of the European transport industry to benefit from the granting of ERP credits. Of twenty-three requests for financial assistance made by shipping undertaking in the former German capital, sixteen have already been approved whilst the remainder have, for the time being, had to be shelved.

The sixteen successful petitioners will receive in all approximately DM 325,000 (about £ 27,000), which is intended to be used primarily for the repair and modernization of the West Berlin fleet. Attempts by the West Berlin city government to

arrange the granting of credits for the purchase of new vessels have so far been unsuccessful, as the petitioners – mainly refugees – could not furnish sufficient collateral for the sums involved. Since, however, it is obviously in the interests of the West Berlin shipping industry that its fleet should be not only maintained but also enlarged, the Berlin Senator for Transport and Industry is renewing his efforts to persuade responsible ECA officials of the need for such special credits being granted.

Hungary to boycott West German port

HAMBURG PORT AUTHORITIES ANNOUNCE that the Hungarian State shipping organization has informed them that in future Hungarian transit traffic will no longer be sent via their port and that all existing contracts in respect of such shipments should be considered as cancelled.

The director of the port of Hamburg states that in his view the Hungarian boycott foreshadows similar action on the part of Czechoslovakia. If such action by the latter does in fact materialize it will become clear that the embargo is part of a general move by Eastern Europe.

Relevant position of the major European ports

WITH RESPECT TO CARGO HANDLING CAPACITY some changes in the relevant importance of the principal European ports have taken place when compared with the pre-war position.

Rotterdam and London, which in 1938 occupied first and second place respectively, have now reversed their positions. In 1950 the port of Rotterdam handled approximately 73 per cent (28.9 million tons) of its pre-war figure, whilst Antwerp, which has wrested the third place from Hamburg dealt with 90 per cent of its 1938 capacity (22.2 million tons).

Some way behind, one finds Hamburg in fifth place with 42 per cent of its pre-war figure (11.1 million tons), whilst Bremen, which before the war took seventh place with its 8.9 million tons, dropped to tenth place in 1950 with 5.9 million.

Other European ports have been enabled to increase their 1938 capacity and as a result have climbed to higher rungs on the ladder, e.g. Marseilles (from 9.9 million to 12.2 million tons) now occupies fourth position, Le Havre (from 6.9 to 9.9 million tons) sixth place, Genoa (from 6.9 to 8.1 million tons) seventh position, whilst Copenhagen (from 6.2 to 7.4 million tons) has now taken ninth place. Almost unchanged in their position are Rouen (7.7 as against 7.6 million tons) and Amsterdam (5.6 as against 5.2 million tons).

OEEC urges faster turn-round in ports

ACCORDING TO THE MARITIME TRANSPORT SECTION of the OEEC, the carrying capacity of world shipping could be increased by 25 to 30 per cent if delays in ports and harbours could be eliminated. As a step towards eradicating the causes of delays in ports and the more efficient use of shipping, the OEEC has recommended measures to speed the turn-round of vessels in the ports within their territories. It also recommends that member countries should instruct their representatives on the appropriate agencies of the United Nations to draw the attention of non-member countries to the necessity of action.

Among the causes given by the OEEC as contributing to the present slow turn-round are the inadequacy of port and clearance facilities, local labour conditions, and also flag discrimination.

London's new dock medical centre opened

THE FIRST FULL-SIZE MEDICAL CENTRE to be operated by the British National Dock Labour Board in the Port of London, situated in the Royal Albert Dock, was officially opened by the Minister of Labour on 28 September.

The new centre has been constructed to a special design and includes the most modern equipment available for dealing with injuries and sickness among dock workers. It is more elaborate than the normal first-aid centre and rest room found in most British factories and is intended to be used primarily after a casualty has been given basic first-aid nearer the scene of the accident.

Experience in fifteen other British ports where centres are now open has shown that they play an important rôle in reducing loss of working time as a result of minor injuries sustained by port workers. In addition, it has been demonstrated that the workers themselves, pleased with the attention given to their welfare and the opportunity provided of minimizing their loss of earnings, show a more cooperative and contented spirit and are less likely to become involved in industrial disputes. This latter point was brought out in the report issued in May of this year by the committee which investigated the reasons for the unofficial strikes in London's dockland and criticized the low standard of amenities in the port.

The staff of the London centre, as in other ports, consists of two trained nurses under the supervision of a medical officer. Treatment will be available to all workers employed in the docks, whether they be actual dock employees or not. In this connection, it is pointed out that more than half the cases treated at the other centres maintained by the Board last year were not regular dock workers, but port authority employees, shipyard workers, Coal Board employees, railwaymen, etc.

Radio aid to fork lift truck operations

FORK LIFT TRUCKS ARE NOW BEING USED on an increasingly large scale in US ports and attempts have recently been made to step up their efficiency by equipping them with a small radio transmitter-receiver weighing some twenty-five pounds. The range of the radio apparatus is approximately one mile, although this is increased under favourable conditions. It is fitted with both hand-phone and loud-speaker, the latter being intended for use when it is necessary to pass on instructions to workers and foremen in the immediate vicinity of the fork truck.

Among the advantages said to be obtained from this new application of radio are the following:

The saving in time resulting from the fact that one is able to direct fork lift trucks quickly from one job to another without their drivers having to report back and receive new instructions.

Over-all efficiency is greatly increased, since both fork lift truck drivers and supervisory personnel can immediately get into touch with the appropriate department in cases of incidents or when quick decisions have to be taken.

In case of the break-down of or damage to a fork lift truck, the central control can immediately be informed and is thus enabled to direct a new truck to the scene of mishap without the delay occasioned at present.

If necessary, all the fork lift trucks belonging to an undertaking may be concentrated at a single point for the purpose of carrying out large-scale operations in the various US ports.

Decasualization of dock labour (4)

THE FOREGOING SURVEY of practices affecting the stability of earnings of dockworkers in different countries of the world has revealed that the size of their income is ceasing in most ports to be dependent solely upon the number of tons of cargo which they are asked to handle. For it has come to be realized that the service which they perform – a service which is indispensable to the continued and efficient operation of the port transport industry – includes not only the actual handling of cargo but also their constant availability in sufficient numbers to undertake any work that may arise, whether in fact it arises or not, and their willingness to work intermittently, at a varying pace, for varying periods of time. They stand ready to make special efforts at busy times and to accept enforced idleness at times when traffic is slack.

Furthermore, it is now appreciated that, if dockworkers' earnings are permitted to fluctuate to the same extent as the volume of port traffic, the continuing requirements of an average family can only be met during slack periods out of a larger amount of savings than the dockworker could or should be expected to possess. Finally, it is now widely recognized that, if entry into dock employment remains unrestricted when recruiting is on a casual basis, a strong tendency develops for the supply of labour to be so large that the average earnings of the dockworker are insufficient to cover the normal requirements of his family at any time.

Hence, it has been found that, in those ports where dockworkers cannot be offered weekly employment, their earnings have to be stabilized in other ways. The workers must be registered in order that entry into their profession may be restricted, and there is a need for attendance money and a guaranteed minimum wage – a need which has not yet been universally met, though a good beginning has been made in many important ports. It may be of interest to consider what conclusions may be drawn regarding the various methods that have been employed up till now.

Registration

The main purpose of registration is to control both the supply and the demand for dock labour, and therefore employers must be listed as well as workers. The registration of employers has several advantages. It facilitates the allocation of labour from central hiring points by bringing employers into consultation with, and even under the control of, those who have to judge labour requirements from port to port, dock to dock, and day to day, and provide for them. It can be used in the interest of both employers and workers to prevent the entry into the industry of employers with inadequate capital, equipment or knowledge of the industry, who would bring in an element of insecurity. Also, where the law provides that only registered employers may be permitted to employ dock labour, the registration of employers creates the possibility of penalizing them by temporary or permanent removal from the register; this penalty can be applied where their actions are detrimental to

the welfare of the workers and to the interests of the industry, as in the case of an employer who introduces a large number of unregistered extra workers, perhaps at lower rates of pay, who are not in fact needed in addition to the supply of registered workers already available.

There is no need to limit the growth in demand for dock labour resulting from expansion of trade and shipping unless it reaches a point where the labour could be employed in another part of the economy with a greater return to the national income. A sharp decline in employment may have to be arrested by such means as a subsidy to the industry, but in the long run, if the relative usefulness of certain ports is tending to decline, it is necessary to transfer, retrain for work in other industries and re-employ the dockworkers involved, rather than to continue to bolster the demand for dock labour by artificial means that are no more than palliatives. The supply of labour must be sufficient to meet all demands that arise for it, and thus to ensure the efficient operation of the industry and the avoidance of a bottleneck at a crucial point in the economy. This may involve a great deal of persuasion, and the provision of really concrete guarantees of security, where the workers' register has to be increased to the required strength in the face of opposition based on fear of future unemployment.

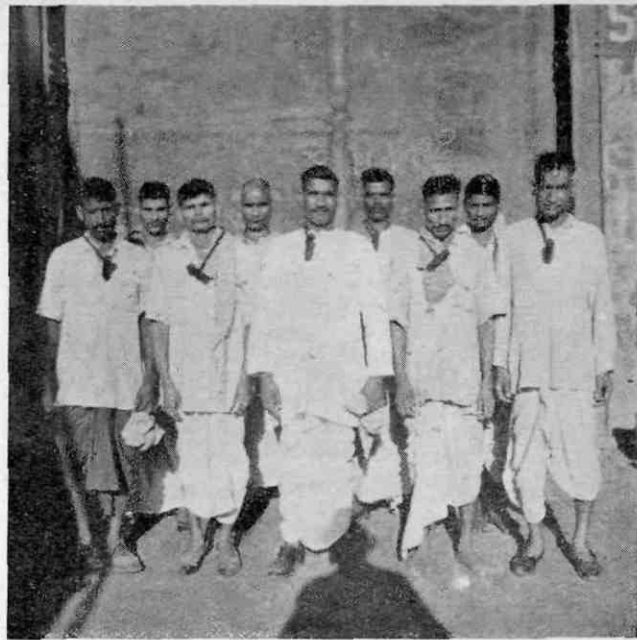
It is also difficult to prevent the supply of labour from growing too large. Suspension of workers from the register in order to remove what is believed to be an excess of labour is liable to meet with opposition from employers, partly because they fear that labour shortages may result during periods of peak traffic. Opposition from the workers affected is almost inevitable, and sympathetic support for their case from other workers not affected on this particular occasion is a distinct possibility. Yet, where such reductions are necessary because labour supply constantly exceeds demand, the workers will have to be persuaded to accept the reductions if security of livelihood in their occupation is to be protected, and the solvency of attendance money and guaranteed wage schemes is to be maintained.

Two questions arise in this connection. If a register has to be reduced, which workers should be removed from it? It is clear that any completely inefficient workers included would be easily recognizable and should be removed, with adequate provision for transfer to an occupation to which they are better suited. Ideally, the most efficient workers should stay on the register; but in practice it is much easier to enforce the principle that the workers with the longest service should be retained, which is not quite the same thing. However, the seniority principle, in addition to being easy of application, has the advantage of promoting social stability, and economic efficiency is probably not too severely compromised by it. In any case, an age limit is needed, seventy years being probably the highest limit that should be considered in an occupation as arduous as dock work; and this supposes the existence of adequate pension provisions to enable men of this age to cease work in the docks.

The second question concerns the admissibility of exceptions



Close-up of a group of typical Bombay dockworkers during roll-call. Photograph reproduced by courtesy of Bombay Port Trust



Snapshot of a typical gang of Bombay dockers (hatch workers only). Note the hooks round their necks. A gang consists of nine men

to the general rule that only regular registered workers may be employed in the docks. The temporary signing on of extra men to meet urgent labour requirements is probably inevitable in the circumstances prevailing in most ports today, but the advisability and feasibility of setting a time limit to the duration of each temporary addition to the labour force should be well considered. There seems to be great danger of injustice in any provision of a registration scheme dealing with emergency labour requirements which has the effect of tempting a substantial group of workers to seek regular work in the docks, when there is in fact little or no possibility that they can earn a sufficient livelihood there, and when they are not covered by any measures for the stabilization of earnings that may be applied to other dockworkers under the registration scheme. Perhaps the safest course, wherever provision is made for the occasional hiring of temporary workers on a purely casual basis, is to consider exactly what other employment or source of income is available to ensure the security of livelihood of the temporary dockworkers. Even increased economy in the operation of an attendance money and guaranteed wage scheme through periodic reliance on temporary workers does not seem justifiable if this question cannot be satisfactorily answered.

Attendance Money and Guaranteed Minimum Wage

Arrangements for the payment of attendance money for each day without employment are much more common than provision for a guaranteed weekly minimum wage up to which the aggregate of minimum earnings and attendance money is raised. The question arises as to whether an attendance money scheme can by itself provide adequate economic security for dockworkers covered by it.

The aim of schemes to stabilize dockworkers' earnings is to ensure that no dockworker's weekly income falls below the minimum necessary to support him and his family for at least one week. It will be recalled that, if under the British and New Zealand schemes a dockworker is unemployed for a whole

week, his guaranteed minimum wage for that week will exceed the total attendance money due to him, because attendance money is payment for the service of attending, whereas the guaranteed minimum wage is designed to ensure that the worker always receives at least a living wage, even though this amount may be greater than the value set upon his service of constant attendance during a week when no work was available for him. The conclusion may therefore be drawn that the payment of attendance money is an adequate stabilization measure by itself if the total amount payable during a week when no employment could be obtained is at least equal to a living wage. This can only be the case in ports where dockworkers' minimum earnings for work done appreciably exceed a living wage, since the effect on morale and efficiency of equal pay to employed and unemployed workers would be insupportable. In the ports of many of the less developed countries wages probably still do not, and possibly cannot, exceed the living minimum under present circumstances.

Administration and Finance

The cost of stabilization of employment has to be limited to a level which will not undermine the economic stability of the industry. The dockworkers' confidence in the permanence of a stabilization scheme can be much better maintained if the scheme is easily supported by the industry than if it is dependent for its continuance upon a Government subsidy. The cost of stabilization, like other costs of the industry, will of course be passed on to the consumers in the price of its services. In most cases it has been found convenient to raise the funds required for earnings stabilization schemes through a levy upon employers. This is one of the reasons why it has been considered desirable that employers should have a share in the control of stabilization schemes. They are in a good position to judge the limit beyond which the industry cannot raise its prices without discouraging trade and reducing its income, and their advice may therefore be valuable when there is danger that the cost of



Indian dockers manhandle a crate of machinery spares on to a lorry. Note number of men and the crude methods they employ

the scheme may become excessive. Also, where, as is usually the case, it is their responsibility to organize operations in such a way as to achieve maximum output at minimum cost, the proper performance of this function involves at least some incursion of control over all costs.

The efficient performance of such managerial functions as are transferred to the central administration of the scheme also calls for the close collaboration of employers. The functions in question may include hiring, the selection and allocation of dockworkers to jobs, the formation of work gangs, and the application of disciplinary measures. The manner in which these matters are handled is of close concern to the employers in the execution of their own responsibilities. Finally, employers are likely to be called upon under any stabilization scheme to register, to provide information, to submit to disciplinary action, and to accept various other obligations, restrictions and instructions; and both their appreciation of the need for such regulation and their readiness to comply with it are likely to be enhanced by the possession of a share in the control of the stabilization scheme.

There is also a clear case for participation of workers' representatives in the control of stabilization schemes, on an equal basis with those of employers. For the workers need representation with respect to a number of matters on which the decisions are of vital interest to them. These matters include the size of the workers' register, the hiring of temporary workers, the enforcement of discipline, and the determination of the workers' obligation and benefits. Moreover, if the workers have a share in control, the possibility of the registration of employers being used restrictively to maintain a monopolistic situation in the industry is reduced, since the workers may be relied upon to oppose any action which would in any way reduce their employment opportunities.

It may also be advantageous for the Government to share in the control of stabilization schemes, especially where the interest of the general public in the port transport industry is par-



Wheat seen being shovelled into slings on board a grain freighter. Photograph reproduced by courtesy of the Bombay Port Trust

ticularly in need of protection—for instance, where the granting of subsidies has become inevitable, or relations between employers and workers have become very disturbed, or qualities of responsible leadership prove to be lacking on one side or the other. In particular, it should be noted that, where an equal share in the control of a scheme by workers and employers is provided for, an independent chairman nominated by the Government or another third party reduces the possibility of deadlock and delay when the two sides fail to reach agreement.

However, the degree of Governmental intervention which may be appropriate and acceptable depends very much on the traditions of each particular country. No single method of stabilization of dockworkers is likely to be universally applicable. The ports of the world are situated in countries whose degree of economic development and whose social and political traditions differ greatly. There are considerable differences in the type and volume of the shipping handled, the capacity and skill of the labour employed, and the relative prosperity of the ports, and stabilization schemes must be formulated and modified in such a way as to meet the peculiar requirements of each case. But there is probably no port in which the security of livelihood of dockworkers cannot be assured in one way or another, so long as the necessary knowledge is available and the will to action in the matter is not lacking.

(concluded)

Vatican to have its own merchant fleet

ACCORDING TO *Modern Transport* it has now been confirmed that the Vatican State is to have its own merchant shipping fleet. It has published a decree stating its participation in the Barcelona Convention, covering the fleets of states which have no seaports. Its vessels will fly the official Vatican flag and have the indication 'Vatican City State' painted under the ship's name. It has been stated that the vessels will be employed for carrying relief supplies under the auspices of the Vatican.

Overheard conversation

A discussion heard in a Russian railway carriage

A RECENT ISSUE of *The Current Digest of the Soviet Press*, published by the United States Joint Committee on Slavic Studies, contains the following translation of a feuilleton carried by the Russian newspaper *Pravda* in its issue of 4 July, illustrating one more facet of Soviet industrial mismanagement:

Recently we overheard involuntarily a very curious conversation between two passengers on a commuters' train. One of them was on the staff of the USSR Ministry of Inland Shipping and the other an official of the paper industry.

'It's no use for you even to argue!' the inland waterway man shouted, 'please stop denying facts! You'd better practice healthy self-criticism and admit that the paper industry has not yet reached adequate standards. You do not produce enough paper!'

'Of course, not quite enough, but still -' the official of the paper industry tried to ward off the attacks of his opponent.

'Please stop arguing and objecting,' the waterway man went on more and more heatedly, 'we need a lot of paper right now.'

'Who is "we"?'

'The Ministry of Inland Shipping. We are very handicapped by the shortage of paper.'

'What do you need paper for?'

'And what about directives? Perhaps you would like to write directives for us?'

'How much paper would you need for your directives?'

'You think we don't need much? Let me give you just one instance. I want to tell you the story of Order No 210 and you will understand how right I am to voice my grievances against the paper industry. Shall I tell you the story?'

'Please do.'

'Six years ago, in July 1945, the USSR People's Commissariat of Inland Shipping produced its order No 210, signed by People's Commissar Shashkov in person. So you can see how important that order was.'

'All the directors of shipping companies and shipyard administrations were ordered immediately to provide special premises for study centres and study combines and supply these with the necessary equipment, furniture, lighting and heating.'

'Three and a half years passed. Much water has gone over the dam and many orders have been issued by the Ministry of Inland Shipping since then.'

'And then there was Order No 424, issued in December, 1948. As you can see, the number of the order is quite an imposing one. And we hadn't remained idle: we had written others. Anyhow, beneath this order was the same weighty signature.'

'No 424 states sadly that No 210 had been forgotten and abandoned.'

'But before four more full years had passed (what efficiency!) the Ministry had realized what was happening.'

'And so the new order categorically ordered that the old order be carried out.'

'But in No 424 we again come across the words used in No. 210: "provide (premises), supply light and heat."'

'This time, taught by bitter experience, the Ministry checked

on the fulfillment of its order not after three and a half years, but after only eight months.'

'In an official circular from Deputy Minister Cherevko dated 28 July, 1949, we are informed that the categorical Order No 424 ordering the execution of the no less categorical Order No 210 has as yet not been carried out, and hence we categorically suggest that premises be provided, and heat and light be supplied.'

'Exactly seven days later (as you can see the pace nowadays is completely different) Comrade Korepanov, head of the Ministry's chief personnel administration, sent another official circular in which he suggested that the circular of 28 July, 1949, be given serious attention because it pointed out that the categorical Order No 424 (1948) on the execution of the no less categorical Order 210 has still not been carried out. Consequently—immediately provide (premises), supply light and heat!'

'But it seems that in the places in question nobody has any intention of providing (premises) or supplying light and heat.'

'And this state of affairs accounts for a new order by the Minister: Order No 431 (November, 1949) which, to put it briefly, states in the most categorical form that, Comrades, it is high time to carry out Order No 210 (1945).'

'After the Minister, Deputy Minister Nazarov started a campaign against the shipping companies, shipyard administrations and industrial enterprises. However his circulars brought no appreciable results.'

'A year later (November, 1950), Deputy Minister Nazarov and Comrade Tsvetkov, head of the Ministry's political administration, sent out a joint circular on the same theme: provide, ensure, light and heat!'

'But even this missive carrying two authoritative signatures did not help. And to this day the Ministry officials keep tirelessly writing orders on the same project.'

'And you ask why we need so much paper!' — the riverman grew angry again and started to attack his companion.'

The paper industry official, stunned by these arguments, hung his head.

Heavier lorries used in USA

IT IS REPORTED from the United States that heavier lorries are now taking the lead in sales in that country. Lorries of 16,000 pounds gross weight and over sold on the domestic market last year were nearly double those reported for 1949. Sales of the heavier type of lorries for the first few months of 1951 were between two and three times those for the same period of the preceding year.

An Interstate Commerce Commission report states that lorries with gross weight ranging between 19,501 and 26,000 pounds headed the 1950 list, with an increase of 113.06 per cent. Lorries exceeding 26,000 pounds were second with an increase of 78.69 per cent. Similar gains were shown by lorries in both of these categories for the first two months of 1951.

The same report reveals that last year a total of 1,182,396 lorries of all weights were sold on the domestic market itself.

Training schemes for Rotterdam port workers

by J. Kuivenhoven. Chairman, Rotterdam Section of the

Netherlands Central Union of Transport Employees and Head of the Rotterdam Dockworkers' Section

WHEN CARGOES carried by Netherlands and foreign vessels began to arrive in the Port of Rotterdam once again after the war, it became apparent that not only had quays, cranes, sheds and other equipment been extensively damaged by military action but that, in addition, there existed a great shortage of skilled dock-workers.

As a result of this fact, in 1947 a committee of inquiry concluded that a system of vocational training for dock-workers was necessary. Professor F. J. Th. Rutten was commissioned to draw up a report on the subject and, after he had himself worked as a docker in the port for a number of months, this was issued.

On 1 September 1949, a new era began in the Port of Rotterdam, with the general realization that the work performed by the docker is a skilled occupation.

At the same time, a committee – on which the trade unions are represented – was set up for purposes of consultation and the issuance of directives concerning the training programme.

Innovations are usually looked askance at anywhere and in this respect the Port of Rotterdam was no exception. The dockers, and more particularly a number of the older workers, were suspicious of the vocational training system and claimed that there was no need for them to take part in it. They said that they had learned their job the hard way, as a result of practical experience, and that that method was good enough for them.

However, those who appreciated the fact that vocational training would lead to an increase in the number of skilled dockers in the port registered for a course and, on 5 September 1949, a start was made with the training of individual groups.

The 'basic training' is mainly concerned with the following four points:

- 1) increased proficiency;
- 2) the improvement and maintenance of safe working standards;
- 3) working as a team;
- 4) giving a general idea of the part played by dock work in the transport complex and the national economy as a whole.

Basic training lasts ten weeks, during which period forty-five hours' theoretical and forty hours' practical instruction is given.

During the remaining time, normal dock work is performed in various undertakings under the supervision of a special instructor. In addition, the trainees are given an appreciation of the following questions:

- 1) efficient working methods.
- 2) safety.
- 3) speed and accuracy.

The diploma system

On completion of the course, those trainees who are considered as having passed out satisfactorily, receive a diploma for 'Basic training – dock work'. It goes without saying, of course, that those who have completed the course cannot be considered as 'all-round' dock-workers. Nevertheless, a good foundation has been laid.

For those who have successfully completed a course of basic training, there exist opportunities of undergoing further training as, for example, checkers, hatchmen, or drivers, etc.

In addition, there are facilities for taking a course of training as supervisor. The requirements which have to be met for this latter course are, naturally enough, of a higher order than those needed for the primary training courses. Nevertheless, since the scheme has been in operation a number of dockers have succeeded in passing out as supervisor.

A number of dockers, too, have successfully completed training courses as checkers, hatchmen, and truck drivers, thus leading to an appreciable increase in the total of qualified port workers. This is in the interests not only of the port industry as a whole but also of the individual docker, who is thereby given the opportunity of claiming a decent wage on the grounds that he has been certified as a skilled worker. In addition, there are, in a number of instances, opportunities of improving his position via promotion to a higher category.

Theoretical and practical training

As has already been mentioned above, both theoretical and practical instruction is provided under the training scheme. Specially-selected instructors are appointed for this purpose. Theoretical training is given by them aboard the training vessel *Veteraan*, lying in the Wilhelmina dock at Schiedam, and afterwards they supervise the practical work which is performed by trainees on board the same ship.

In addition, they are responsible for the supervision of the ordinary dock work which is carried out by the trainees, working in gangs, in various Rotterdam port undertakings. This latter prevents the course from becoming one-sided and trainee dockers are given an opportunity of dealing with the various types of cargo handled in the Port of Rotterdam. This practical work is also of great importance in connection with the ever-increasing mechanization and rationalization of port activities.

To sum up, we are now able, at Rotterdam, to turn out skilled dock-workers, fork-lift truck operators, checkers, supervisors and others, who as a result of their training under the scheme are enabled more adequately to perform their duties in the docks.

Postscript

It was reported on 26 September last that the Netherlands Minister of Education, Art and Science has set aside the sum of 10,000 guilders to subsidize the Rotterdam training for dockers, on condition that similar sums be contributed by the Rotterdam city authorities and the port industry. The governmental contribution is approximately equal to one-third of the actual cost of the training programme.

The Minister stated that in his opinion much careful thought had been given to the vocational training scheme and that it could make a valuable contribution to the efficiency of the port industry, which is so important for the Netherlands economy as a whole.

Better safety rules for US ports necessary

DURING THE MONTH OF JUNE, the Director of the Bureau of Labor Standards of the US Department of Labor, Mr W.J. Connolly, testified before a special sub-committee of the House Committee on Education and Labor in support of a Bill aimed at strengthening the safety provisions of the Longshoremen's and Harbour Workers' Compensation Act.

The projected Bill would give the US Secretary of Labor authority to issue safety regulations which would be binding upon all employers covered by the Act and the same authority over port installations in Alaska, Puerto Rico and Hawaii which come under the Defense Bases Act. At present, the Labor Secretary is empowered only to make studies and investigations of safety provisions and the causes of injury at port installations covered by the Acts, and to make appropriate recommendations to Congress based on these.

In support of the Bill, Mr Connolly affirmed that the granting of such authority to the Secretary of Labor would provide the flexibility needed to keep pace with changing industrial conditions and methods as they affect the safety of port workers. Similar rule-making authority is found in most State labour departments which have effective safety programmes under operation, he said.

In addition, the Bill would provide for the establishment and supervision of safety education and training programmes for both employers and employees, and would make it the duty of every employer to maintain a reasonably safe place of employment for his workers.

Connolly told the sub-committee that the prevention of injuries in the stevedoring industry is of parallel importance with the payment of accident benefits.

Approximately 500,000 workers were covered by the Longshoremen's and Harbour Workers' Act at the end of the last fiscal year, Connolly pointed out, including longshoremen, ship repairmen and other harbour employees. He said that a survey issued by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in 1949 showed stevedoring to have an injury frequency rate of 66.7 (sixty-six disabling injuries per million man-hours of work) or four times the rate for all manufacturing industries.

More helicopters for US short hauls

THE INCREASED USE OF HELICOPTERS, particularly those of the large 'transport type', in short-haul operations for the carriage of mail and passengers has been forecast in a recent report which has been approved by the United States Air Co-ordinating Committee.

The report, which is entitled *Federal Policy Regarding the Development of Commercial Transport Helicopters*, points out that at an 85-miles-an-hour cruising speed the helicopter has a 'downtown-to-downtown' elapsed time advantage over 170-miles-an-hour fixed-wing aircraft, for distances of up to 150 miles. The advantage, says the report, stems from the fact that the helicopter can operate into a downtown heliport, with little or no ground transportation time at each end of the journey. According to the report, air carriers have so far made only a very limited penetration of the short-haul passenger market, which constitutes the bulk of the country's inter-city travel, and the helicopter may alter this picture materially.

Although the report admits that the direct operating costs of large transport helicopters now under development will be

somewhat higher than for comparable fixed-wing aircraft, it is pointed out that savings on ground transport charges may make total out-of-pocket cost to the traveller equal.

The first application of the transport helicopter will probably be in metropolitan area services, carrying mail at lower costs than present small helicopters, and functioning also as aerial taxi or bus to and from airports. As larger multi-engine types become available, the report predicts, they will also find a place on inter-city routes with relatively short distances between stops.

Midtown or close-in heliports are considered as essential to the successful development of helicopter operations, and the report cites the need of proper planning to assure the transport helicopter the close-in landing areas it requires.

Two-fare air travel urged by IATA official

DURING THE COURSE OF HIS ANNUAL REPORT, given at the Annual General Conference of the International Air Transport Association (IATA) held recently in London, Sir William Hildred, Director General of the Association, said that so far the air lines had only nibbled at the second-class market and that 'nothing short of a complete, all-year-round, regular two-fare system can take full advantage of the desire of the average man in every country to travel far and wide on his vacation.'

'The outstanding success of coach travel in the US,' said Sir William, 'has proved beyond doubt that such a system is the only solution. The rich market of mass travel is still before us and it consists of thousands of people who would not nowadays travel at all, not even by any form of surface transportation. We have done our best to make travel attractive. It is now high time to make it acceptable to anybody who wishes to make use of it. The beginning has been made on several domestic routes in the USA and inside the French Union.'

Air employment up, rail jobs to fall

A LONG-RANGE DECREASE in the number of workers employed by the US railways and a gradual increase in those taken on by the nation's air lines is forecast in a new edition of the *Occupational Outlook Handbook*, prepared by the US Department of Labor's Bureau of Statistics and the United States Veterans' Administration.

The handbook, which contains complete reports on 433 occupations by which Americans earn their living, says that America's mobilization efforts have changed the employment outlook for nearly every type of job in the country, whether it be related to defence or not. In most fields, it says, the number of workers needed has increased, but in some the impact of rearmament has had the reverse effect.

The drop in railway employment may be arrested temporarily as the stepped-up defence programme creates heavy demands for rail traffic. Eventually however, says the report, the decline will continue, since the trend is to employ fewer workers to handle a given volume of freight.

Air transportation, the handbook notes, has had its ups and downs since World War II - over-expansion, a steep drop in employment and then a levelling-off - but in the long run steady growth is likely.

WITH THIS ISSUE goes an Index to Volume XI. The arrangement is according to subjects and refers both to number of issue and page. In addition, there is an alphabetical register of authors.

Improved transportation in ECAFE Region

THE EXECUTIVE SECRETARY of the United Nations Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East, Dr P. S. Lokanathan, has recently transmitted to the Secretary-General of the United Nations the Commission's *Economic Survey of Asia and the Far East 1950*.

In the section of the report dealing with the transport situation, Dr Lokanathan states that there was in 1950 a marked improvement in the region's transport facilities as compared with previous years, and difficulties in this field were considerably eased in Burma, China and Indonesia.

The restoration and improvement of transport facilities have figured prominently in the post-war development plans of the Asian and Far Eastern countries. The British Commonwealth countries in the region have allocated, for improvements in transport and communications, more than one-third of the combined estimated expenditure of their national development programmes under the Colombo Plan for the six-year period from 1951 to 1956.

Nearly one half of the region's machinery imports in 1949 and 1950 consisted of transport equipment. There have been significant additions to railway rolling stock, including locomotives. However, operating efficiency is still unsatisfactory and pre-war standards of maintenance have not yet been regained.

There has been a substantial improvement in railway facilities on the Chinese mainland, where the railway system has now been basically restored to pre-war standards. Railway traffic was restored for the first time in fifteen years over the entire length between Peking in the north and Canton in the south.

Throughout the ECAFE region there has also been a considerable increase in road traffic. Inland water traffic too has increased considerably and major improvements to ports and port facilities have been effected.

Technical assistance for Indonesian airways

THE INTERNATIONAL CIVIL AVIATION ORGANIZATION (ICAO) is to assist Indonesia in the building up and operation of an internal airline network. Eight ICAO experts are being sent to Indonesia. Among them are a chief of operations, instructors and an economist. They will assist the Indonesian Directorate of Civil Aviation in the supervision of the country's air navigation facilities and in a training programme designed to recruit native Indonesians for the civil aviation industry.

Novel barter proposal from Japan

THE NEW YORK *Journal of Commerce* reports that the Japanese Ministry of Transport has recently introduced a novel proposal for the exchange of Japanese vessels for Brazilian rice, on the basis of their primary prices.

The proposal has been suggested as a way of solving the perplexing question confronting the Japanese shipping industry which is unable to meet the increasing overseas orders for vessels owing to high construction costs.

It was stated that the Japanese shipbuilders have recently received orders for more than fifty ships from the United States, Brazil and other countries, but that it is impossible for them to meet the orders due to high steel and machinery costs.

In these circumstances, the Japanese Transport Ministry has made its proposal for an exchange of Japanese vessels against

Brazilian rice, prices of both of which are well above the international level.

The essential points of the Ministry's proposal are said to be the following:

- 1) Japan will buy rice from Brazil in exchange for vessels.
- 2) The value of each of such ships will be the Japanese standard price, calculated on the basis of the primary construction cost plus profits that are expected to be enjoyed by a Brazilian shipowner due to the shorter period required for the delivery of a Japanese-built vessel. In this connection, it is stated that a Japanese shipbuilding firm is able to deliver a vessel within a year as against the usual three years needed for construction in other countries.
- 3) On the other hand, Japan will accept the price of Brazilian rice which is sixty per cent beyond international levels.

Automatic couplings for Brazilian railway?

THE JOINT BRAZIL-US COMMISSION has submitted to the Brazilian Minister of Transport a plan for the installation of automatic couplings and air brakes on all rolling stock belonging to the Santos Jundiai Railway. It has also advised that 1,100 new railway cars be acquired for this line.

Organization for road traffic safety in Germany

THE TREMENDOUS INCREASE in the number of motor vehicles registered in the German Federal Republic – there are now considerably more vehicles in Western Germany than in pre-war Germany – has been accompanied by a sharp rise in the number of reported road accidents. In 1950, for instance, 182,695 such accidents were registered.

Since it has proved impossible for the State alone to deal effectively with the problem of road accidents, it was decided in December 1950 that all West German institutions concerned with transport should band together in the *Bundesverkehrs-wacht* (literally 'Federal Traffic Watch') which, under the chairmanship of the Federal Minister of Transport, Dr Seehofer, constitutes a self-help organization made up of those concerned with traffic problems. Local 'Traffic Watches' are being set up in the Länder, urban and rural districts. Their task will be to advise the responsible authorities on questions of road safety and methods of ensuring same, such as, for example, road drill instruction; to submit suitable proposals and to cooperate in their application. The authorities are to consult the 'Traffic Watches' whenever they wish to institute new or alter the current traffic regulations, or introduce transport facilities. Besides the individual members of these bodies, representatives of all interested organizations, including the ITF affiliate, the German Transport and Public Service Workers' Union, will be invited to cooperate in the work of the 'Traffic Watches'.

New social club for Britain's railway workers

WHAT IS DESCRIBED AS one of the World's largest clubs is to be inaugurated on 1 January 1952 in respect of British railwaymen and their families. To be known as the *British Railway Staff Association*, it will be open to 60,000 railway workers, their families, retired staff and the widows of railwaymen. It is estimated that over a million people will be eligible to join the Association which will offer, at a small cost, facilities for the organization of sports, music, arts and other recreational events.

The position of fishermen in Latin America

THE TOTAL NUMBER OF FISHERMEN in Latin America at the present time is estimated to be in the region of 150,000. Their income in most of the countries of the region, as often elsewhere in the world, is generally very low and their standard of

living consequently very poor. A very large number of small fishing boats, mostly not powered, are in use. The lack of mechanization and consequent absence of efficient mass production methods account for the very low output per fisherman.

Comparison of production, number of fishermen, fishing craft, etc. in nine Latin-American countries	Country	Year	Production in metric tons	Number of fish- men-	Production per fisherman per year in metric tons	Number of powered craft	Total number of craft
	Argentina	1947	65,133	7,500	8.7	4,000 ³	350 ³
	Brazil	1948	144,767	67,911	2.1	11,000 ³	309
	Chile	1949	76,246	7,655	10.0	4,272	959
	Cuba	1947	13,500	7,993	1.7	2,509	708
	Ecuador	1949	5,000	2,895	1.7	1,750	4
	Mexico	1947	55,536	15,000	3.7	5,698	1,767
	Peru	1949	45,260	7,669	5.9	3,234	527
	Uruguay	1949	3,795	400	9.5	150 ³	44 ³
	Venezuela	1949	75,449	19,500	3.9	4,250	150
	Total		484,686	136,523	3.6 ⁴	36,863	4,818

SOURCES: OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS, COMMUNICATIONS ETC.

1. These nine countries account for about 97 percent of the Latin-American catch
2. An attempt has been made to exclude fishermen who fish for subsistence only. Figures probably include a large number of part-time fishermen.
3. Estimate.
4. Average

With modern craft and equipment at their disposal these fishermen would, without any difficulty, master the most modern fishing methods suitable to their environment and working conditions. Unfortunately, however, fishermen in most Latin-American countries find it impossible to obtain credits or loans. Fisheries activities are handicapped by lack of extension work amongst the fishermen, and sometimes by their poor conditions and social organization. Where, however, fishermen are organized in co-operatives (e.g. in Mexico) or where they are helped by government development corporations (e.g. in Venezuela) mechanization of fisheries has been progressing and the social and economic conditions of the fishermen have been immensely improved thereby.

Although in the majority of Latin-America countries, fishing activities are carried on by independent fishermen, the fishing laws of both Mexico and Brazil encourage the fishermen to form associations, which are known as *Cooperativas* and *Colonias* respectively.

Mexican *Cooperativas* form the largest group of fishermen, and account for the greater part of Mexican landings. Cooperative fishermen work on a share basis; the *Cooperativa* hand-

les the sale and distribution of the revenue among members, according to the value delivered and the relative ownership of boats and gear.

In 1947 there were 7,639 Mexican fishermen listed as members of *Cooperativas*; in addition, it was estimated that there were also 4,000 fully independent fishermen working commercially, not members of any of the legally-organized *Cooperativas*. Mexican laws grant fishermen's cooperatives certain tax exemptions and other privileges, such as the exclusive right to fish certain commercially important species, e.g. the shrimp.

Brazilian law requires fishermen to be members of a *Colonia* in that zone in which they live or dock their boats. *Colonias* are groups of more than 150 professional fishermen organized for social, educational and other purposes, their zones being established by the competent authorities. In each state there is a federation to which the local *Colonias* are subordinated. These federations, in turn, are subordinate to the General Confederation of Brazilian Fishermen, the central organization, with its main offices in Rio de Janeiro.

The majority of Latin-American fishermen are hard working, enterprising and intelligent. Because they possess these qualities

they are capable of mastering new techniques and, given expert instruction, could be relied upon to increase production.

The training of fishing boat masters, engineers and fishermen in the modern art of fishing is a real necessity for the development of Latin-American fishing industries. There are fishing schools in several countries, e.g. Brazil, Chile and Mexico, which appear to be doing a good job. However, they need a good deal of assistance and support. They must be better organized and equipped to enable them to provide their students with practical courses; they should be supplied with boats and modern fishing equipment, and must plan a more efficient teaching programme.

In several countries, such as Mexico, where fishing laws permit foreign fishing activities in their waters, national legislation requires the inclusion in the crew of a certain percentage of native fishermen who in this way are able to obtain an excellent training in the field.

from FAO Fisheries Bulletin

Ambitious road construction plan for Venezuela

WHAT IS SAID TO BE ONE of the most ambitious highway construction plans yet attempted in South America is now under way in the Republic of Venezuela.

One of the main projects envisaged in the programme is the construction of an *Autopista* (super highway) which will link the port of La Guaira with the Venezuelan capital, Caracas, and cut the driving time between the two cities by three quarters.

The *Autopista* will consist of four traffic lanes with concrete surfaces. By building it in a straight line and cutting three tunnels through mountains, the highway's total length will be only ten miles or one half the length of the existing road between La Guaira and Caracas.

Work on the highway began in January 1950 and according to a recent statement by the Venezuelan Minister of Public Works it is expected to be completed by 1953, in time for the Pan American Conference which is due to be held in Caracas during that year.

Construction work on the *Autopista* goes on twenty-four hours a day and as the preliminary work has already been completed rapid progress is now expected.

The three tunnels already mentioned, all of which will be of the twin tube type, will be 3,516; 1,445 and 1,060 feet in length. In addition, three bridges - the largest 1,150 feet long and 991 feet high - will span ravines and rivers met on the new highway route.

Apart from the main La Guaira-Caracas highway, many other roads, capable of handling heavy equipment and traversing the country in both directions, are being constructed by oil companies operating in the Maracaibo region of Venezuela. In many cases, driving time between two points will be halved by the construction of the new road network.

Venezuela is also paying careful attention to the modernization of her railway system. Railway track is being changed over to standard gauge and new modern rolling stock obtained.

The Göteborg dockers' strike of 1873

THE DOCK-WORKER'S PROFESSION - at least in so far as the Swedish port of Göteborg is concerned - is one of the fruits of industrialization.

During the period when craftsmen were still organized in guilds, the work now performed by dockers and stevedores was doubtless done by boatsmen - who were guild-organized - and the crews of the vessels themselves. It is also possible that, on occasion, additional workers, probably unskilled and therefore not enjoying the protection of a guild, were employed. Early port statutes for Göteborg contain no mention of dock-labour in its modern connotation and it is, therefore, probable that the volume of shipping then entering the port did not, as in the case of Stockholm, justify the formation of a guild catering exclusively for those employed as dockers.

The first dock-workers' strike to occur in the port must have taken place during the formative years of Swedish industrialism, after the occupation had become a specialized one and the work-force employed had attained sufficient proportion to enable a strike to be both effective and advantageous so far as the workers themselves were concerned.

From 1868 to 1873 all branches of Swedish industry underwent a period of large-scale expansion, as is instanced by the following figures:

By 1873 the town population had doubled in comparison with the year 1840, and totalled 539,000. The combined value of imports and exports had increased - from 85 million kronor in 1852 to 493 million in 1872, whilst during

the same period the foreign earnings of Swedish shipping rose to 30 million kronor. The Swedish railways, also, were, by the year 1873, carrying a volume of goods which was more than double that of five years earlier.

In all branches of industry, a rise in the work-force employed was registered. The number of artisans rose from 36,312 to 39,358, of miners from 24,114 to 28,624 and of factory workers from 30,242 to 53,334, the biggest increase of all. The number of seamen who found employment in all branches of the Swedish merchant marine rose from 15,394 to 20,799.

A Swedish historian writing of the period under review, sums up his impressions as follows: 'It can be presumed that during the later years average wages increased by 50 per cent and for skilled work by even more. These wage increases, applying as they did to all groups employed in industry, brought about a general improvement in living standards, raised consumption all round and, thereby, expanded the internal market for all types of consumption goods. This, in turn, led to further industrial expansion and increased opportunities for profitable investment - all this being assisted by the favourable financial position and the high degree of confidence in the future.'

Sweden had also become a field for speculation by foreign capitalists and capital poured into the country, with the result that prices were forced up.

The country was thus riding on the crest of a boom. The rosy economic situation resulting from speculation with

regard to the Franco-Prussian War of 1870 strongly favoured industrial development.

Unemployment had been, to a large extent, banished and its place had been taken by an acute labour shortage - a shortage so marked that employers were reduced to employing special agents for the sole purpose of recruiting workers to industry. These industrial touts were particularly active in the public houses and beer-shops and likely recruits for the dock industry were their especial target.

Such was the position when the dockers of Göteborg, in 1873, called what was, on the basis of available records, their first large-scale strike.

During the years from 1868 onwards a number of minor stoppages occurred in the port, at first scattered but gradually rising to a numerical climax as the end of the period was reached. In 1872, some ten are reported to have taken place and this year saw the beginning of a wave of stoppages which reached its culmination in the strike of 1873. It is, however, likely that the total of strikes recorded represented not more than 50 per cent of those which actually occurred, since information of this kind was often suppressed or ignored by the Göteborg Press of that time.

In general, the period immediately preceding 1873 was characterized by agitation in favour of higher wages and shorter working hours, whereas, in the years following, the labour market contracted and the number of strikes was reduced to a minimum. It was not until 1880 that new demands for improved wage and working conditions made themselves felt and this new activity was in the main explicable by the great strides which trade union organization had made in the intervening period. It is indeed almost certain that the dockers' strike of 1837 had behind it some kind of unifying organization, though the form which this took is not so clear. It is, in any event, doubtful whether the action by the dockers of Göteborg would have been so successful had this not been the case.

The dock-workers were rather late in the field with their demands for increased wages and shorter working hours and it is quite clear from the economic trend which followed 1873 that, had they waited another year before formulating them, they would have met with infinitely stiffer resistance from the employers.

The strike began on 10 May, 1873, when between two and three hundred men walked out, completely paralyzing shipping in the port. They demanded an increase in wages from the existing rate of 2 kronor to 2.50 kronor per day. Although many other employers had already been forced by circumstances to grant voluntary wage increases and shorten working hours, the stoppage came as a complete shock to the stevedore contractors. After some hesitation, however, and realizing that events had caught up with them, they decided to concede the men's claim, which was in any case not excessive.

It is doubtful whether they realized that the claim would, barely two days later, be followed by a demand for a reduction in working hours, but this, nevertheless, happened. On 12 May, the dockers, after discussion among themselves on the question of the intolerably long hours then worked in the industry, asked that they should be reduced by one hour. The normal hours worked at that time were between 6 a.m. and 9 p.m. and the men wanted these henceforth to be set between 6 a.m. and 8 p.m. The question of night work was



A contemporary cartoon depicting a Swedish shipowner shaking hands with an imported strikebreaker during the strike of 1873

also raised and the dockers asked that all work performed between the hours of 9 p.m. and 6 a.m. should be considered as night work and compensated for at the enhanced rate of 25 öre per hour.

One indignant Göteborg newspaper pointed out rather plaintively: 'They will now be able to earn as much as 5.50 kronor per working day' and went on to allege that this was an exorbitant rate compared with the wages paid to workers in other industries.

In spite of the reactionary press, however, this point was conceded as was also a further claim that daily wage rates should be raised to 3.25 kronor instead of to 2.50 kronor as had previously been demanded. Thus, only two days after the beginning of the strike, the dockers' representatives in the negotiations were able to report that all their demands had been met in full.

Reporting on the successful conclusion of the action, the Socialist newspaper in Göteborg, *Förposten*, said: 'One can only congratulate the workers on having succeeded, after a strike lasting a mere two days, in obtaining such a great improvement in their conditions', and, knowing the aversion of dockers to night work, it went on to add: 'It is not right that the health of the dockers should be jeopardized by their having to perform night work. All work in the docks should cease at 6 p.m., as is already the case in Great Britain'.

The strike itself passed off peacefully and led to no incidents, although at one stage the police were called in by the employers to protect a few strike-breakers. No clashes occurred as a result of this, however, and contemporary newspaper reports are unanimous in testifying to the exemplary manner in which the dockers bore themselves during it.

The improvements registered in the wage and working conditions obtaining in the dock industry made the Swedish docker's position an enviable one and his occupation became

attractive to outsiders - on occasion *too* attractive for his liking. This was particularly the case from 1874 onwards when the boom period in Swedish industry came to an end and the Göteborg dockers had to consolidate their gains.

The most important advance made during the strike, how-

ever, was the fact that it taught the dockers the value of organization - a lesson which they never afterwards forgot. A basis had been laid for the later formation of a really strong and effective trade union movement which eventually resulted in the security now enjoyed by Göteborg's dockers.

A study of employment and achievement in American transport

SINCE 1940 the National Bureau of Economic Research in New York has published valuable studies in the broad field of American economic activities. Latest in the series of works issued under its auspices is Harold Barger's *The Transportation Industries, 1889-1946: A study of output, employment and productivity*. It is a profoundly analytical work for which both the author and the Bureau deserve high praise. Much may be learned from its pages concerning the fundamental rôle played by transport in the stormy development of the economy of the USA. Those concerned with industrial welfare should find particularly instructive the chapters in which the author has set himself the task of examining such trends in employment, productivity and technical progress as have become apparent during the fifty or so years covered by his study the price of which is \$ 4.00.

Space does not permit of our doing more than pick out from the closely condensed mass of information contained in this book certain general conclusions at which Dr Barger arrives as a result of analysing many relevant figures and statistics. The following extracts are taken, by kind permission of the NBER, from the author's summary:

'Transportation workers today are more than twice as numerous as in 1889, but percentagewise they constitute a smaller share of the labor force than formerly. The shrinkage is to be explained partly by a rapid expansion of output per worker, but also by the coming of the private automobile and motor truck. Garage and filling-station attendants, and drivers of privately owned trucks, are not counted as transportation workers. If they were included, transportation could probably claim a proportionate share of the labor force as large, or larger, than formerly.'

'Although the share of the transportation industries in the economy declined, traffic expanded vastly. . . . Today in the course of a year the average American travels perhaps twenty times as much as his grandparents did in 1889. The prime condition for such enhanced mobility was of course the coming of the private automobile.'

'Combined passenger and freight traffic of all commercial agencies (land, water and air) grew five times during the half century between 1889 and 1939, and almost doubled once again between 1939 and 1946. But such aggregates conceal the varying fortunes of different agencies, and especially the marked shifts that have occurred from older to newer forms of carriage. . . . the newer agencies have grown rapidly, and the older ones have expanded only slowly or have actually contracted. By and large the shift has been from rail to highway.'

'The draft made upon the labor force by the transportation industries reflects these (and other) changes. In 1889 fewer than a million persons were employed in producing transportation services, and four out of five of these worked on the nation's railroads. By 1920 total employment had risen to more than 2½ million, and the proportion of those who worked for the railroads had not greatly changed. In 1946 not quite 2½ million persons were employed in transportation, and only about half

of them were railroad workers. Today highway transportation employs as many workers as did the railroads in 1889, and airline employment is now as large as was waterway at the beginning of our period.

'Practically throughout the six decades traffic rose more rapidly than employment. As a result, per worker output of transportation service in 1939 was three times, in 1946 four times, the 1889 level. Over the half century 1889-1939 productivity in the transportation industries measured in this fashion increased at an average annual rate of 2.2 percent. For a major and well-established sector of the economy, this is a rather rapid increase. Over a like period the annual gain in output per worker in manufacturing was 1.8 percent; in agriculture, and also in mining (excluding oil and gas wells), the annual increase was 1.6 percent. Because in many cases hours of work were cut, such figures understate the rise in output per manhour. They indicate genuine increases in the return from human effort in the industry concerned.'

'Among individual transportation industries the change in output per worker varied greatly. The newer industries showed the sharpest gains in productivity. Airline employment rose steeply, pipeline employment moderately, but in each case the growth of traffic was far more rapid than the growth in employment, so that output per worker shot up, multiplying three to four times within two decades. (For other new industries, buslines and trucking, we lack data.) The older industries, electric railways, steam railroads, and waterways, showed steady but much more moderate increases in output per worker.'

'For railroads and for waterways we can measure not only the input of labor but also the volume of equipment in use. In the former case, the number of locomotives and cars increased and later declined, as did railroad employment. The railroads owned just about as many locomotives and cars in 1939 or 1946 as in 1903. But technology did not stand still. The tractive power of locomotives and the capacity of freight (if not of passenger) cars rose steadily: on the average, the capacity of equipment about doubled. (Passenger equipment became more comfortable, thus rendering better service, but this we leave out of account.) Roughly speaking, the same amount of labor is needed to operate a large piece of equipment as a small. The doubling of equipment capacity per worker therefore contributed to the rise in output per worker. Labor productivity so measured rose more than threefold, and output per manhour still faster. Thus the increase in the capacity of equipment is not in itself sufficient to explain the rise in labor productivity, although we can see that the former made a substantial contribution to the latter. To be sure, more powerful locomotives could pull heavier trains with a train crew scarcely larger than before; but there were many other ways of saving labor, as in train dispatching and the maintenance of way. In the case of waterways the boost given to labor productivity by more capacious equipment seems to have been confined to the coastwise tanker trade and to bulk carriage on the Great Lakes.'