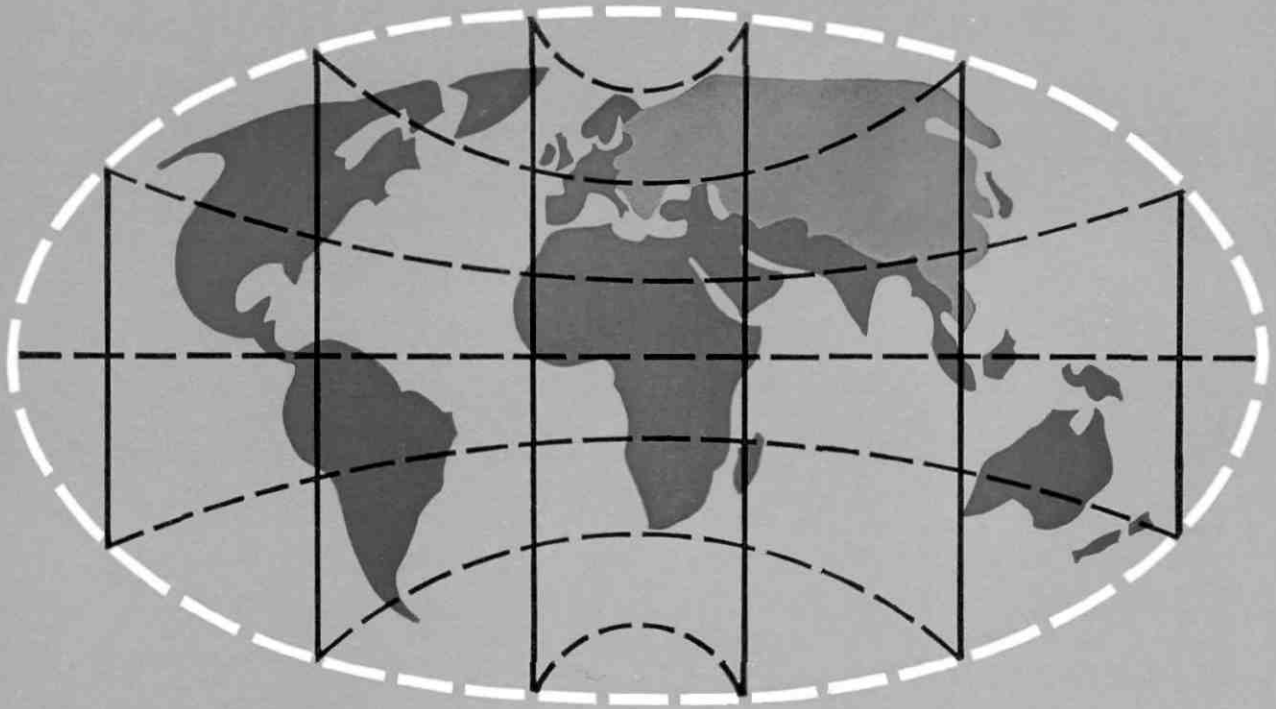


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# INTERNATIONAL TRANSPORT WORKERS' JOURNAL

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## Forthcoming Meetings:

Copenhagen 29 June-2 July	Executive Committee
Copenhagen 29 June-2 July	General Council
Rome Autumn 1953	Railwaymen's Sectional Conference. Postponed from April. New date not yet fixed.

# The Union Shop on the US railways

THE RAILWAY LABOR ACT of 1926 which governs labor-management relations on the US railways was amended during January of 1951, at the request of the railway workers' trade unions, by an Act generally known as the Union Shop Bill and enabling unions and railway managements to conclude union shop agreements.

It lays down that, 'any carrier or carriers defined in this Act and a labor organization or labor organizations duly designated and authorized to represent employees in accordance with the requirements of this Act shall be permitted – a) to make agreements, requiring, as a condition of continued employment, that within sixty days following the beginning of such employment, or the effective date of such agreements, whichever is the later, all employees shall become members of the labor organization representing their craft or class, b) to make agreements providing for the deduction by such carrier or carriers from the wages of its or their employees in a craft or class and payment to the labor organization representing the craft or class of such employees, of any periodic dues, initiation fees, and assessments (not including fines and penalties) uniformly required as a condition of acquiring or retaining membership'.

## The Union Shop defined

This then is the union shop: the requirement by collective bargaining agreement that all those employees whose wages and working conditions are governed by such agreement and who are not already members of the contracting union should join the union within a reasonable period, coupled with the additional requirement, if also provided by the collective bargaining agreement, for collection of union dues at source – the so-called check-off of dues from the company payrolls.

The 1951 amendment reversed the situation which was established by one of the 1934 amendments to the Railway Labor Act. The 1934 amendment, made at the request of the unions, contained language which was designed to make it illegal for railway employers either to require applicants for employment to agree not to join unions, or to continue sponsorship and financial support of

the so-called company unions. The amendment, however, was later interpreted to forbid the making of union-shop agreements between railway managements and the legitimate unions. Such agreements were permissible in other American industries and many thousands of them were in effect.

## What the unions were after

The principal purpose of the railway unions in their successful campaign to secure enactment of the 1951 union-shop amendment was to make it possible for them to consolidate the progress achieved in the last two decades and to erect obstacles against possible future attempts by employers to divide and rule the railway staff by assisting surreptitiously in the birth or development of 'phoney' trade unions.

It is as well to emphasize at this point that the Act does no more than *permit* railway labour organizations to enter into union shop agreements with the carriers. Taking advantage of the 'permissive' character of the Act, a number of the railway managements refused to conclude such agreements with the Employees' National Conference Committee which seventeen co-operating railway unions (all affiliated to the ITRF) had set up in March 1951 for the purpose of negotiating union shop agreements. Most of the companies either held aloof or used delaying tactics, as a result of which the unions called in the National Mediation Board.

The National Mediation Board, created by the 1934 amendment to the Railway Labor Act, consists of three members, appointed by the President with the advice and consent of the Senate, and is assisted by a regular staff of twelve mediators, selected through the Civil Service. Either party to a dispute may invoke the services of the Mediation Board, but only when direct negotiations have failed, the law placing

emphasis on joint consultations between the parties.

The efforts of the Mediation Board to secure a settlement of the dispute arising from the Union Shop demands were only partially successful. By the end of October 1951, four of the major companies had signed union shop agreements but further progress was blocked owing to the intransigent attitude of most of the remaining carriers. The Mediation Board was consequently compelled to discontinue its efforts.

## What happens in case of a dispute

When failure to settle a dispute by the methods laid down in the Railway Labor Act creates a situation which, in the judgment of the Mediation Board, threatens to interrupt the transportation services, the Board may notify the President, who, at his discretion, will set up a Presidential Emergency Board to investigate and report within thirty days. This procedure was applied and an Emergency Board duly constituted in January 1952.

This Board fully upheld the principle of the Union shop. In the summing up of its findings it stated that it could find no sound or substantial basis for withholding the union shop and the check-off of union dues from the unions any longer. It pointed out that the fact that these labour organizations were now well established and responsible, and that they had made considerable progress in twenty-five years without resorting to a strike, were arguments for rather than against their right to have the union shop. Bureau of Labor statistics showed that seventy-two per cent of the employees in the major industries covered by labour agreements had the union shop. The granting of the union shop to United States railway employees would merely mean allowing them to catch up with the remainder of the nation's industrial workers.

## No national settlement achieved

The Emergency Board's recommendations did not bring about a national settlement. They did, however, lead to

a union shop agreement in the case of the railways of the eastern region of the country which was concluded on 29 August 1952. Nevertheless, resistance in the western and south-eastern regions continued and led, in October, to the breaking-off of negotiations between the Western Carriers' Conference Committee and the unions' negotiating committee. The next day the south-eastern railways advised that they were not willing to form a conference committee to discuss the union shop.

In a written statement setting out their objections to the union shop, the western carriers state:

'We are not willing to make an agreement which compels a man to join a union against his will in order to earn a living. We think that such an agreement is repugnant to the principles upon which this country was founded and is an unjustified interference with the basic rights and liberties of the individual. We are willing to negotiate with respect to union security, but we are not willing to agree to compel a man to join a union as the price of earning a living'.

In justification of the western carriers' rejection of the Emergency Board's recommendation, the Chairman of their conference committee said:

'We are not confronted with a matter of wages or working conditions. We are faced with the demand that we bargain away to the leaders of these unions the rights and privileges of other free citizens - our employees. We do not feel that in good conscience we can do this.'

The objections which were expressed by the South-eastern railroads were of the same tenor. 'Certain south-eastern railroads were willing to undertake negotiations on union security . . . . Their opposition is to compulsion - not to unionism.'

### Employers' objections analyzed

It is difficult for the unions to believe in the sincerity of these arguments. They feel that the references to 'basic rights', 'liberty', 'compulsion', etc., are little more than time-worn clichés which tend to obscure rather than clarify the issue. They would be more impressed by these objections if they were not mindful of the occasions, during the 1920s in particular, when a number of railway carriers had been willing to force a man *not* to join a union as a condition of earning his living. The practices of this period: violence against union organ-

izers, 'yellow dog contracts', company unionism, victimization of trade unionists, etc., are not forgotten. These evils were stopped, not by the companies' devotion to 'the principles upon which this country was founded', but by the New Deal legislation sponsored by President Roosevelt.

The cogency of their arguments is all the more open to doubt when one reflects that a number of carriers represented by the Western Carriers' Conference Committee have made union shop agreements with other organizations and at least one of the carriers in the south-east has done likewise. As Brother G.E. Leighty, Chairman of the unions' negotiating committee, points out in an article in the official organ of the Order of Railroad Telegraphers of which he is President, by maintaining their opposition to the union shop despite its acceptance by most other industries in the country, and in spite of the Act of Congress and the recommendations of the Emergency Board, a few controlling individuals among certain railroad managements are, in effect, arrogating to themselves the right to decide whether the union shop is in principle acceptable.

### Companies' attitude stands condemned

This attitude is arrogance indeed in a country in which the union shop principle has been established for decades and is being widely applied. In the railway field alone, it is now applied to 400,000 workers. And last but not least, American law, in particular the Wagner Act of 1935 and the Taft-Hartley Act of 1947, sanction union shop agreements. The issue, therefore, can be taken as having been decided without impairing 'the basic rights and liberties of the individual'.

What then is at the back of the mind of the railway managers who engage in this last-ditch resistance? Brother Leighty says that only one conclusion can be drawn, namely:

'These carriers want to keep the ranks of their employees divided so as to give the carriers a bargaining advantage in the negotiation of wages and working conditions. One carrier spokesman had, in substance, told Congress that this is what they wanted to do. In other words, notwithstanding the many years of experience under the Railway Labor Act with its mandate for collective bar-

gaining between freely chosen representatives of employees and carriers, the reactionary carrier managements controlling the policies of the western and south-eastern carriers are still not ready to accept the unions as having a legitimate place in the industry.'

Since it has presumably become fashionable for the managements to defend the freedom of their employees, it would not be out of place to ask ourselves just whose freedom they are claiming to champion. We find the answer to be that of a handful of non-unionists - that same handful, incidentally, whose interest the established unions are required *by law* to represent. This brings us to the core of the unions' moral case for the union shop.

### The unions' case

The Railway Labor Act provides that, once an organization is certified to represent a class or craft of employees, it must represent *all* of them irrespective of their membership of that organization. Furthermore, such certification will be granted only when the majority of the employees concerned has signified its assent to that particular body's representing it. The unions thus duly designated therefore feel that it is neither reasonable nor fair for any member of a class or craft they are representing to refuse to contribute to an organization charged with safeguarding his interests. The principle with which the unions are concerned is the one requiring a man to accept his responsibility in the economic system under which we are living and to carry his fair share of the cost of representation by which he benefits. The only liberty of which the union shop would deprive a non-member is the liberty of evading his obligations to his fellow workers. Such a liberty, it is contended, is not worth fighting for.

### Postscript

*Since this article was prepared, the seventeen co-operating railway trade unions have made considerable headway in their campaign. Three large railways in the western part of the country - the Chicago and North Western Railway, the Missouri-Kansas-Texas Railway, and the Wabash Railway - have signed union shop agreements. Only in the South-East are a sizable number of major undertakings still holding out. It is estimated that nearly 850,000 workers are now protected by the union shop.*

## New device makes signalman redundant

THE INSTALLATION of a new signalling device may well lead to redundancy among signalmen on the German railways. It is in operation at the station of Münster near Dieburg, which is thus claiming to be the first station in the world where the signals and points are no longer worked from the station signal box but from the train itself.

When a train approaches the station, it makes contact with a switch on the rail which activates an electric current. This in turn causes the station signals both up and down to show red (stop), checks whether the main track is clear and the points right (if they are not, it puts them over automatically), and finally sets the station signal at all clear for entry on the main track. All this happens in the space of approximately two seconds.

On arrival at the station, the engine-driver reports by telephone to the train controller at Dieburg who gives him his instructions to continue. On leaving the station the train automatically puts the signals back to normal. In this way, any action by signalling staff is rendered superfluous. Any other train wanting to use the station must await a clearance signal from the driver of the train already there. This is given by the driver depressing a key on a small panel showing the track scheme of the station, similar in construction to the normal signalman's panel, but in this case placed on the wall outside the station building. It can be operated only in conjunction with a key carried by the engine-driver. After he has keyed, the switching of the points and the signals follow automatically in response to their activation by the second train.

This station is used by forty-four trains every day and the drivers of seven of these are called upon to observe this procedure. The system is working satisfactorily and in due course will be extended to other lines.

## Japanese electrify railways

THE JAPANESE NATIONAL RAILWAY CORPORATION is reported to have opened negotiations for the introduction of foreign capital under a five-year plan to electrify the railways. It is hoped to obtain 78,400 million yen from the World Bank by borrowings of about 15 million yen every year for five years.



*Rearmament in the Soviet-occupied Zone of Germany has been going on for some time to an ever-increasing extent. Whereas it was being carried out secretly some months ago, the Soviet rulers now think the time has come to make a public display of their military preparations.*

*In addition to the members of the Communist organizations and the employees of the so-called 'People's Concerns' the Soviet authorities are now calling upon the railway and postal staff to undergo military training.*

*According to recent decrees promulgated by the appropriate Ministries in the Eastern Zone of Germany, all young employees of the railway and post and telegraph services must attend a four-week course on the rifle-range. The time spent on the course will be regarded as a leave period.*

*Our photograph shows a group of railwaymen in Dresden armed with rifles on their return from the firing-range where they have been practising after duty hours.*

# European inland transport in 1951

MAJOR DEVELOPMENTS in European inland surface transport during the year 1951 are reported in the 'Annual Bulletin of Transport Statistics' which has just been published by the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (ECE). This Bulletin, which is the third of its kind, is interesting in that it is the first to contain figures on transport in a number of countries in Communist-controlled Eastern Europe. Otherwise, the statistics given are in the same general form as that of last year's issue except for the addition of a chapter on 'The Importance of the Transport Industry'.

## Freight traffic

According to the ECE Transport Bulletin rail freight traffic, expressed in ton-kilometres, in thirteen West European countries was 15% higher in 1951 than in 1950, whilst inland waterway traffic was 18% higher.

In most of these countries the volume of freight traffic by rail and inland waterways increased a little less during 1950 compared with the previous year than did economic activity as reflected by indices of the value of production and imports. In 1951, on the other hand, the increase in traffic over 1950 was as great, if not greater, than the rise in the indices of production and imports. The Bulletin suggests that this increased share of transport in total economic activity arises from the fact that heavy and relatively low price commodities formed a larger proportion of output and imports in 1951 than in 1950.

Rail freight traffic figures for Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Poland, and the Soviet Union taken together indicate a 12% rise in 1951 over 1950, whilst inland waterway traffic also appears to have increased.

## Passenger traffic

Passenger traffic by rail in Western Europe was on the whole a little higher than in 1951. The Bulletin finds this particularly interesting in view of the fact that other figures show increases in bus transport and in the number of private cars, motor cycles, auto-scooters, and auto-cycles.

Comparing the number of rail journeys per head of population in 1951 with that of 1938 the ECE report shows that only in the United Kingdom and Western Germany has there been a decrease. The highest number of journeys per head in 1951 was in Switzerland, followed by Luxembourg and Western

Germany. The lowest number was reported from Turkey.

## Transport equipment

From the data quoted in the ECE report concerning railway rolling stock, road vehicles, and inland water craft, it is evident that only in the case of road vehicles was there any significant increase in number during 1951. The United Kingdom still had more vehicles in relation to its population (one vehicle per fourteen persons) than any other country in Europe, but it was closely followed by Sweden (one per 17), Belgium and Luxembourg (one per nineteen), with France, Switzerland, and Norway close behind.

## Railway personnel

Staff employed on the railways of fourteen West European countries at the end of 1951 totalled 2,091,770, a decrease of 1.6% compared with the total of 2,125,061 employed at the end of 1950. The ECE observes that, in view of various factors, including the increase in traffic during 1951 on practically all the railways concerned, this fall in the total labour force employed may be taken to indicate a general improvement in operating efficiency.

## Density of traffic

Data on the density of railway traffic in a number of countries during 1938 1950, and 1951 indicates that the greatest density of passenger traffic in 1951 was on the Swiss Federal Railways, followed by the Netherlands, and that in density of freight traffic West Germany led, followed by Luxembourg and Belgium. Both passenger and freight traffic densities show substantial increases in nearly every European country during 1951 compared with 1938.

The average number of passengers per train for thirteen countries and

Trieste was seventy in 1938, 113 in 1950, and 116 in 1951. Figures for the average net freight train load were 233 tons in 1951 against 218 in 1950 and 193 in 1938.

The density of traffic on inland waterways increased as follows over 1950: Belgium 1.6%, France 12.2%, Western Germany 25.1%, the Netherlands 13.4% and the UK 4%.

## Television - new aid for railway workers

INSTEAD OF HAVING TO WALK among trains and over tracks to list car numbers on an incoming train for use in make-up switching, a United States railway checker recently sat before a TV screen in Chicago and listed the numbers as the cars moved past a small unattended camera.

These TV tests, carried out by an American radio corporation in the presence of railroad officials, opens up a wide field of speculation on the future of television in industry. Supervisors for example were able to observe on two TV screens the disposition and movement of all cars and switching engines in the huge marshalling yards at Baltimore. The views were caught by two of the new-type TV cameras mounted on a yardmaster's tower. The tower bases can be rotated at will by controls at the receiver post.

Railroad and radio company officials are of the opinion that the use of industrial TV, permitting personnel in sheltered and fixed situations to perform functions ordinarily calling for extra movements of freight cars and the walking of considerable distances, would be effective at large rail-marine terminals, and could well be extended to loading operations at coal-mines to expedite the recording of car serial numbers.

The system tried in the Chicago experiments consists of only two units: a small lightweight camera, about the size of a sixteen mm. home movie-camera, and a combination monitor-power supply control unit housed in a luggage-type case smaller than a home-model TV set. The camera, designed round a new camera tube one inch in diameter and six inches long, uses only two other tubes, whilst the entire system has no more than 22 tubes compared with the sixty now needed for a broadcast studio camera chain.

# Life on a fishing trawler

by **David S. Blanchard**  
of the International  
Labour Office



*David S. Blanchard, member of the ILO Maritime Division and author of this article, examines part of the catch on board of the Belgian trawler Liliane*

SINCE THE ADOPTION of a resolution on fishermen's conditions of work by the International Labour Conference at its 28th Session (Maritime) at Seattle in 1946, the International Labour Office has given increased attention to the problems of these workers. It recently published a report on the conditions of work and welfare of fishermen in twenty-seven countries, which it is hoped will provide the member countries of the ILO with a wider basis for determining what type of international action may be feasible.\*)

As part of the continuing study of conditions in the fishing industry, a member of the Maritime Division of the Office recently spent six days at sea on a Belgian trawler to gain first-hand knowledge of conditions and problems in the industry, and the following article is an account of his observations and discussions with the members of the crew. It should be emphasized that the choice of a Belgian trawler was not made because working and living standards were regarded as particularly high or particularly low but only because the invitation which made the trip possible was received from the Secretary of the Fishermen's Section of the ITF, who made the necessary arrangements through the Union of Belgian Transport Workers.

The *Liliane*, a medium-size Belgian trawler, was being made ready to go to sea. The stores for the crew had been put aboard, the fuel tanks had been filled with diesel oil and shaved ice had been loaded into the hold earlier in the morning. A retired fisherman, seventy-two years of age, was on board cleaning the quarters and making sure that the final preparations were carried out. By 10 a.m. all members of the crew were waiting at the dock. The two deckhands, Edward Gallebout and Julien Niellwenhuysse, were accompanied by their wives, who had come to see the boat sail. Two trucks came alongside and put on six

cases of beer for the trip. The skipper, Eugene Major, arrived and had a short consultation with the owner. It was decided that the trip would be for six days or seven, according to the success of the fishing and the weather. The skipper would inform the owner by radio-telephone of the exact day of arrival so that arrangements could be made for placing the vessel in dry dock for the scraping and painting of the hull.

The vessels in the Belgian fishing fleet have been classified by size and horsepower in five categories and the *Liliane*, which is fifty-three feet long, thirty feet wide, and has an engine that develops over 200 h.p., belongs to type III, the most numerous group. Boats of this

type are designed to go fishing in and beyond the North Sea up to 1,000 miles from their home port, and to remain at sea for as long as two weeks at a time. They have accommodation for and carry a crew of five or six men: skipper, mate, engineer, two deckhands, and a boy of sixteen to eighteen years of age. The *Liliane* carried no boy, as it had been agreed between crew and owner that the boy's duties (which usually include washing dishes, cleaning the ship, helping with the catch, etc.) would be carried out by the members of the crew, who would divide between them the percentage of the catch normally allotted to the youngest member.

The *Liliane*, like the other vessels of her class, has a high bow to meet rough seas and maximum working space on the forward deck to land and process the catch. She is equipped with two winches for bringing in and letting out the net. There is a small, enclosed deckhouse containing the bridge, which is raised two feet above the level of the deck; aft of this, there is a small galley where an opening with a perpendicular ladder leads to the crew's quarters below. A life-raft is secured to the top of the galley cabin, and a lifeboat large enough to accommodate all members of the crew is situated on the deck aft.

Although many of the medium-size Belgian fishing vessels are of steel con-

\*) 'Conditions of Work in the Fishing Industry', reviewed in the May 1952 issue of the ITF Journal.

struction, the *Liliane* has a hull of wood. She was built during the last war and was nearing completion when the hostilities in Europe came to an end. Fearing that the boat might be lost if port installations were demolished by the withdrawing forces, the owner secretly opened the sea cocks and let the vessel sink to the bottom at the quay side. When she was later refloated and fitted out for service, it was found (according to the crew) that the submersion had permanently sealed the joints and consequently made the boat a tight and highly seaworthy vessel.

### The journey out

The *Liliane*, surrounded by a large number of other trawlers of similar size and build, passed slowly through the locks leading to the harbour entrance; from there, the vessels set their individual courses to whichever fishing ground had been decided upon by the skipper. Many would head north and in a day and a half or two days begin fishing off the Danish coast. Others would go north and then west to fish in the waters of the Irish Sea and remain away for about two weeks. But, unlike most, the skipper of the *Liliane* set a course of west by north-west towards the eastern coast of

England. After a trip of about seven hours he would be ready to start fishing near the Outer Gabbard banks, not far from Harwich. These fishing grounds are not popular with many Belgian skippers as they are considered dangerous and littered with wreckage from the war. However, on the bridge of the *Liliane*, apart from the usual navigation instruments of a modern vessel, there is an electronic depth sounder, which registers the depth of the water and contour of the bottom at one-second intervals and gives an immediate indication of any unusual obstacle which may be lying under the vessel.

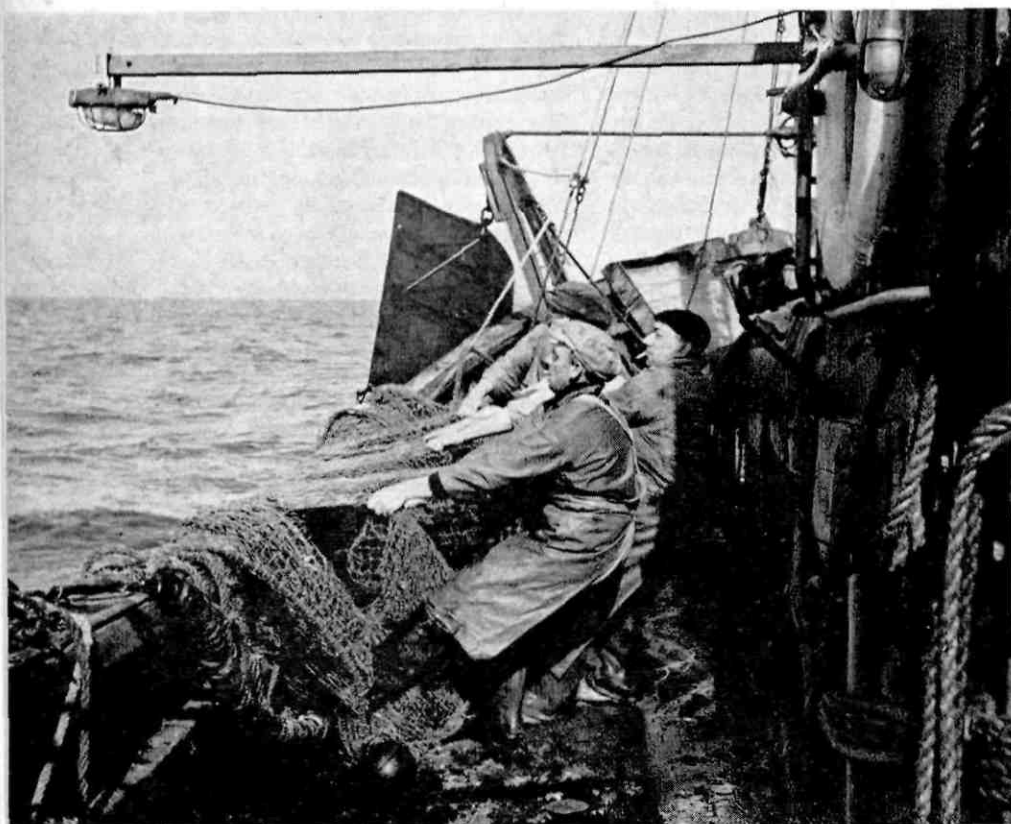
Moreover, the skipper had spent much of his life fishing in these waters. Like the other members of the crew, he attended the town-supported fishermen's school in Ostend, which offers pre-sea training in navigation, wireless telegraphy, engine maintenance, etc. to boys of from twelve to fifteen years of age. At fourteen he went to sea for the first time but returned to the school later to take the further instruction needed for a skipper's certificate. At twenty he first took command of a vessel and was for some time the youngest skipper in the Ostend fleet. When his country was invaded at the beginning of

the war, he took his wife to England like many other Belgian fishermen, and fished in the waters off the English coast. With his training and experience and the technical instruments at his disposal, he considered that he was well equipped to exploit the fishing grounds near the Outer Gabbard bank, which are close to home so that a larger proportion of the trip can be devoted to actual fishing, and are also more productive as fewer boats fish there.

As the *Liliane* moved out at her full speed of nine knots towards the open sea, the engineer, Richard Vanderstraeten, left the engine room and came on deck for the first time. He said that the boat's engine was dependable and gave little trouble. It was, perhaps, too powerful for the size of the vessel. In extremely rough seas this was an advantage, but under normal conditions a less powerful engine would serve as well. As the usual trawling speed while fishing was only 2½ knots, the full speed of the engine could only be used on the trip to and from the fishing grounds. During the winter months when bad weather sometimes made it useless to leave port, the crews of vessels with engines of less horsepower were able to draw unemployment benefit, whereas the crew of the *Liliane* were not. They considered that eligibility for compensation in such cases should not be based upon engine horsepower but upon the size or tonnage of the vessel, as this was the only valid factor in judging safe and efficient navigability in bad weather.

The 'chief' is forty-nine years of age and the oldest member of the crew. He first went to sea on a school ship at the age of seven when his father, who was also a fisherman, died of burns received in the engine room of a coal-fired vessel. Like the skipper, the mate and one of the deckhands, he speaks English as well as Flemish, but his facility is perhaps even greater than theirs as he lived in England and fished off the English coast during both world wars. His only child, a son of seventeen, is training to be an aircraft mechanic, and the chief is very happy that he does not want to become a fisherman.

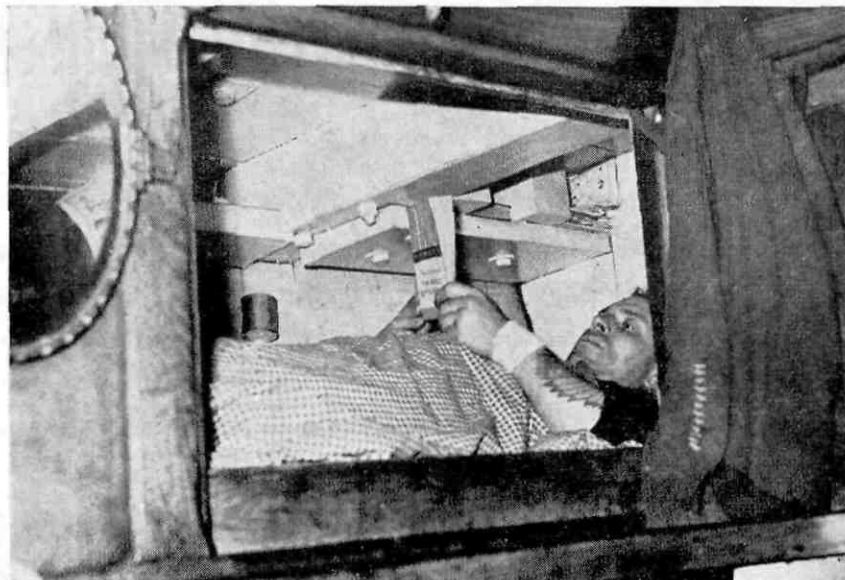
It was said that many fishermen were encouraging their sons to take up other occupations, as their fathers considered fishing a hard, dangerous and comparatively underpaid trade. Since the great majority of young recruits to the industry have in the past come from







*The skipper of the Liliane, Eugène Major seen here of his post in the wheel-house*



*One of the deckhands, Julien Nieuwenhuys shown reading in his bunk. Most fishermen are avid readers of magazines and books, both Flemish and English, in off duty periods*

fishermen's families and a large number of veteran fishermen were killed during and directly after the war as the result of exploding mines and other war action, the number of fishermen – especially young fishermen who are the ones in greatest demand – is steadily decreasing. This situation has resulted in almost continuous employment for the existing labour force, particularly during the season of high demand for fish from September to Easter. As the tendency towards fewer children in fishermen's families becomes more apparent, this condition will be even more pronounced.

### **Meals and Accommodation**

In addition to his primary responsibility of tending the engine the chief also acts as cook, and soon after leaving port he began to prepare the midday meal on the small coal-stove. This consisted of steak fried in butter, boiled potatoes and green beans. The crew pay for all food bought for their consumption during the trip. The foodstuffs used by the chief to prepare the midday meal, such as potatoes, bread, meat, fats, vegetables and salad greens, are ordered by him for delivery on board before the boat sails, and the cost is divided equally among all members of the crew. The evening meal is also prepared by the chief but, except on the first day, this consists of fish taken from the day's catch and fried in deep fat. In addition to the common

stock of food, each member of the crew brings aboard in his fisherman's metal basket a supply of other edibles according to individual taste, usually including butter, fruit, cheese and eggs. Each man can prepare whatever he likes for breakfast and supplement the fish served at night, although only one man at a time can prepare food over the single cooking hole of the stove.

When ready, the food is handed in large pans down the ladder to the crew's quarters on the lower deck. The quantity of food eaten by the crew is twice or three times as much as is usually consumed by comparable workers ashore, which may be due to the strenuous timetable of day and night work during the actual fishing.

The crew's eating and sleeping quarters are contained in a space approximately ten feet wide and twelve feet long which is narrowed and rounded at one end, corresponding to the shape of the vessel's stern. A bench 1½ feet wide and two feet high runs around this space, and here the men sit and eat from enamel pans. On each side of the vessel, directly behind the bench, there is a bunk six feet long, two feet wide and two feet high, lying against the skin of the boat. These lower bunks must be entered through a narrow opening at the centre, by lying on the bench, inserting the feet and legs, sliding down towards the bottom of the bunk, and then bringing in the trunk and head. Two

sliding panels at the side of the opening can be closed in case of very rough or cold weather, but this opening provides the only means for the entry of fresh air. A second tier contains two additional bunks on each side, making a total of six. The upper bunks are deeper and easier of access.

Each bunk is equipped with electric light, but the wiring is old and lies exposed against the skin of the vessel. Every man provides his own mattress, pillow and blankets. There is a small shelf at the head of each bunk to hold books and other personal articles, and a life-jacket at the bottom. The quarters are lit by two naked electric bulbs, one on each side of the vessel, and a twelve-inch port hole let into the open deck above. The radio-telephone equipment (ship-to-shore) is installed at the forward starboard side of the cabin, and a door opposite it on the port side gives direct entry to the engine room. In the centre there is a small coal-stove for heating, which can also be used in winter months to keep food warm.

Each man has a cupboard of about one foot square in which to keep his private food and personal belongings, and under the bench on three-sides there are spaces to hold eating and cooking utensils. The dishes in which food is served and from which it is eaten are washed daily by the chief. Knives, forks and spoons are wiped off by each user on his

*(continued on page 44)*

# New pictorial exhibit illustrates ILO's work for

THE INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE has recently produced an eleven-panel exhibit illustrating its activities designed to improve the working and living conditions of the world's seafarers. Each of the panels measures 30 by 50 centimetres (14" x 20"). Several of the panels illustrate working conditions on board ship and are arranged in such a manner that they show effectively how bad conditions once were, and often still are, compared with those obtaining on modern vessels. The latter are typified by a freighter carrying a crew of 32, each of whom has his own cabin with an inside locker for personal belongings and an outside one for working



This photo reportage is brought to you by the International Labour Organisation at Geneva. The ILO is helping to eliminate substandard ships from the sea by setting international maritime standards.

Recently the ILO sent a photographer to Rotterdam to shoot conditions aboard the ships in the harbor and the facilities for seamen ashore.



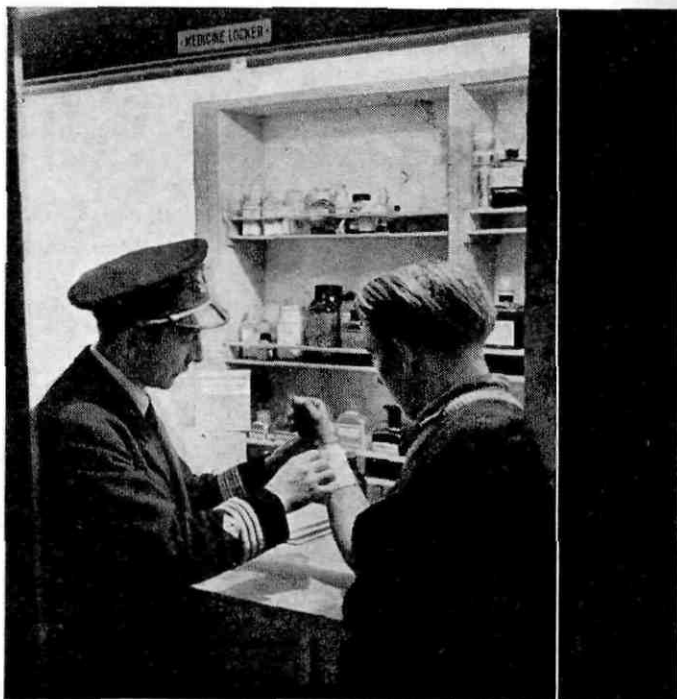
Here are some of the men.

# seafarers throughout the world

clothes. Other panels compare catering standards and recreational facilities past and present. Finally, the exhibit describes how a Maritime Session of the International Labour Conference operates, and shows the record of ratifications by Governments of the ILO's International Maritime Conventions. The text is available in English, French and Spanish. The exhibit may be obtained by organizations which wish to display it in centres frequented by their members. Requests should be addressed to the Public Information Division, International Labour Office, Geneva. Four of the panels are reproduced here for the information of organizations interested in obtaining the exhibit.



Crew members over the rank of sailor have wash basins in their cabins.



Aboard the same ship the photographer found a hospital room with six bunks and a well-equipped medicine locker.

For every six sailors, there is a shower room with four wash basins and two showers.



On shore, he saw these seafarers being treated at the harbor hospital for seamen.



# World merchant tonnage

STATISTICAL TABLES of world merchant shipping based on entries in Lloyd's Register Book at July last show that the world fleet, including ships in the US reserve fleets, was 90,180,000 tons, representing an increase of 2,935,000 tons in a year. This figure shows that the maritime nations have added nearly ten million tons to their fleets since 1948.

The following table gives the tonnages owned by the principal maritime countries in thousands of gross tons, the figures in brackets showing the differences compared with 1951.

GREAT BRITAIN and NORTHERN IRELAND . . .	18,624	(+ 73)
CANADA . . . . .	1,692	(+ 45)
Total for British Commonwealth . . . . .	22,327	(+ 163)
USA (including reserve fleet and tonnage on the Great Lakes) . . .	27,245	(- 87)
NORWAY . . . . .	5,906	(+ 90)
PANAMA . . . . .	3,740	(+ 131)
FRANCE . . . . .	3,638	(+ 271)
ITALY . . . . .	3,289	(+ 372)
NETHERLANDS . . . . .	3,264	(+ 29)
JAPAN . . . . .	2,787	(+ 605)
SWEDEN . . . . .	2,332	(+ 219)
RUSSIA . . . . .	2,261	(+ 39)
GERMANY . . . . .	1,398	(+ 367)
DENMARK . . . . .	1,391	(+ 47)
GREECE . . . . .	1,274	(- 3)
SPAIN . . . . .	1,216	(same)
ARGENTINA . . . . .	1,034	(+ 54)
LIBERIA . . . . .	898	(+ 303)

Japan, Italy, Germany, Liberia, France, and Sweden show the largest increases, whilst the drop in the tonnage registered for Greece may well be accounted for by the fact that many vessels owned by Greek nationals are now registered under the flags of other countries - Panama and Great Britain, for example.

Compared with 1939, the world total shows an increase in the region of twenty million tons. Within this period outstanding increases are shown by the USA (nearly sixteen million tons), Panama (over three million tons) and Norway (more than one million tons). The impressive figure for the USA is, of course, due to that country's immense wartime building programme, whilst the fact that Panama has more than quintupled its tonnage in the same period is doubtless attributable to the 'special attractions' offered by registration with that republic. Germany, Italy, and Japan, on the other hand, whilst showing the largest increases

compared with 1951, are still behind their 1939 figures, although Italy has now nearly closed the gap.

An interesting feature of post-war shipbuilding is the increasing average size of merchant ships. As a result of the wartime programme, world tonnage shows a preponderance of the 6,000-8,000 ton size-group. Of the ships built since the war, however, the largest amount of tonnage now falls in the size-group 10,000 to 15,000 tons, a marked increase in this group since 1951 being due to the construction of tankers. Of the vessels in this group under ten years of age, seventy-nine per cent are tankers.

At 19,989,000 gross tons, the world total of oil tankers has increased by 1,460,000 since 1951, representing twenty-two per cent of all steamships and motorships compared with twenty-one per cent the year before. In 1939 the figure was 11,586,000 tons, being seventeen per cent of the total.

Of the total steam and motor tonnage

in the world, motorships represent twenty-nine per cent, an increase of two per cent over 1951. An analysis of the fleets of the principle maritime countries, however, reveals wide variations in the ratio between steam and motor vessels. Whereas in Norway, Sweden, and Denmark the percentage of the total tonnages represented by motorships is seventy-seven, seventy-three, and seventy-two respectively, in the case of the USA it is only 4.4, whilst at 3.6 the figure for Greece is even lower. Motor vessels account for thirty-eight per cent of the total tonnage of Great Britain and Northern Ireland.

This disparity largely disappears, however, when the burning of oil fuel in both steam and motor vessels is taken as a basis of comparison. It is then found that eighty-five per cent of the total world tonnage now burns oil. The fifteen per cent now dependent on coal compares with forty-five per cent in 1939 and ninety-seven per cent in 1914.

## International Overfishing Convention comes into force

WITH THE RATIFICATION by Spain in February of the International Overfishing Convention, the last of the twelve Governments signatory to the agreement given its official approval and the Convention will, therefore, come into force two months later.

The Convention, which resulted from a conference of governmental representatives held in London from 25 March to 5 April 1946, is designed to meet the problem of the overfishing of the North Sea and other Northern waters and lays down limits on the dimensions of the meshes of fishing-nets and the size of fish which may be landed, sold, or retained on board except for the purpose of transplanting to other fishing grounds. The other countries which have ratified are: Belgium, Denmark, France, Iceland, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Republic of Ireland, Sweden, and the United Kingdom.

A meeting of delegates of the signatory countries of the Convention was held in London this month. It considered the application of Articles 5, 8, and prescribing minimum sizes of mesh of nets and minimum sizes for different species of fish. It was agreed that the relevant provisions should be introduced in all countries by 5 April 1954.

The January issue of the ILO's International Labour Review contains an extremely interesting and informative article entitled Merchant Seamen in the United States, 1937-1952 by Professor Elmo P. Hohman of Northwestern University, Illinois. This complements an earlier survey of American seafarers' problems, written by Professor Hohman during the inter-war period and published by the International Labour Review in August and September of 1938.

Professor Hohman, well-known to the ITF as an authority on maritime labour problems, has divided his present article into two main sections. The first of these deals with developments between 1937 and 1941, and then continues by describing the impact of the Second World War on the American merchant seafarer. The second is mainly concerned with the problems of the post-war period. Two chapters of this latter, the one dealing with the Taft-Hartley Act and union hiring-halls\*) and the other with governmental activity affecting American seamen, seem to us to be of particular interest and we therefore propose to reproduce them in this and a forthcoming issue.

# The Taft-Hartley Act and union hiring halls

by E. P. Hohman

BY THE YEAR 1947, THE UNION HIRING-HALL had become perhaps the American seaman's most cherished achievement and possession. He was passionate in defence of the system, and the slightest hint of its possible abolition led to talk of a strike 'to the death'. The reasons why he laid such store by it cannot, however, be understood without some knowledge of the conditions which preceded the hiring-hall system, both in the recent and in the distant past.

The hiring practices of the sailing-ship era were characterized by a commercialized ring of exploitation which included the shipping-master, the boarding-house keeper, the grogshop proprietor, the runner, and the prostitute. At best the shipping-master 'hired' his crews by exacting advance notes and allotments for two or three months' pay in order to meet his fees and the charges of the other members of the ring; at

\*) A bill to legalize the maritime hiring halls through amendment of the Taft-Hartley Act has recently been introduced in Congress, where similar measures have failed twice before to get beyond the committee stage. It would permit maritime unions, including longshoremen's organizations, to demand establishment of a hiring or employment system under which a union-run hiring hall would serve as a clearing house for job opportunities.

worst he simply shanghaied men for outward-bound vessels in exchange for 'blood money' from the captain. It is true that these practices, like the sailing-ships in which they took place, are long gone; but even so it is little more than a half century since they disappeared, and the memory of them still exerts some influence on waterfront affairs.

Much more recent, and very much alive in the minds and memories of many present-day seamen, were the chaotic hiring methods of the twenties and early thirties. Sometimes the men had to use hiring bureaux which were known to be, or believed to be, anti-union and correspondingly discriminatory; sometimes they had to 'shape up' or line up according to various systems at whatever pier or office they hoped might offer the best chance of a job; and sometimes they had to go on board the vessels, to be hired directly by the mate or captain. These methods frequently involved petty bribery, with offerings ranging from a handful of cigars to varying amounts in cash. Always there were uncertainty, confusion, fear and pure luck, and in many cases there was also favouritism or discrimination.

By contrast, the hiring-hall system is based upon a strict rotation of job op-



portunities in each rating or for each type of job, with carefully defined conditions of eligibility. Employers under contract with the union agree to hire all crew members through the union hiring-hall, usually with the stipulation that they are free to hire elsewhere if the union has not been able to provide a satisfactory person by the beginning of a specified period before sailing time. Detailed regulations have been worked out to cover numerous aspects of the system; but the dominating feature, to which everything else is subservient, is the offering of job opportunities in strict rotation, so that each man knows surely and clearly that his chance for a job will come when his name appears at the top of his list, and neither sooner nor later. In view of conditions only twelve or twenty years ago, many American seamen still feel that this is the greatest thing their unions have yet done for them.

With this background in mind, it is easy to understand why the passage of the Taft-Hartley Act in 1947 created consternation in the ranks of maritime labour. For that Act threatened to outlaw the hiring-hall under one or both of two major provisions. First was the flat prohibition of the closed shop; and second was the clause which made it 'an unfair labour practice for an employer by discrimination in regard to hire or tenure of employment or any term or condition of employment to encourage or discourage membership in any labour organization'. There was a qualification to the effect that such encouragement of union membership by discriminating against non-union workers was permissible if the employer had signed a union-shop agreement which had been authorized by a majority vote of the employees concerned. For all practical purposes, however, this qualification was useless to seamen's groups, as the system of the union shop, with its requirement of a separate election for each agreement and its thirty days of grace in which to decide whether to join the union, was virtually unworkable under the single-voyage, articles-of-agreement hiring practices which dominated the shipping industry.

There is no conclusive evidence to indicate that Congress, in passing the Taft-Hartley Act, meant to single out the shipping industry or the hiring-hall for special consideration. On the contrary, there is reason to believe that the

peculiarities of maritime labour were overlooked or underestimated, and that the storm of protest which arose in connection with the hiring-hall was largely unexpected. In point of fact, many persons outside the ranks of maritime labour joined with the unions in requesting that Congress rectify an alleged mistake by amending the Act in order to exempt hiring-halls from its provisions. This proposal progressed so far as to receive favourable consideration from a congressional committee, but no further action was taken.

There still remained, then, the matter of securing an authoritative decision as to whether the hiring-hall system was actually a violation of the clauses of the Act relating to the closed shop and discriminatory hiring by employers. For a time the issue remained undecided, but at length a case involving one of the Great Lakes contracts of the National Maritime Union came before a Trial Examiner of the National Labor Relations Board.

The Examiner held that there were two violations of the Act. First, the use of the hiring-hall system, as then operating, forced the employer to discriminate against non-unionists and thus to encourage membership in a labour organization; and second, the adamant position of the Union, in refusing even to consider and to discuss employer proposals for changing the hiring system, constituted 'refusal to bargain', another unfair labour practice forbidden by the Act. The National Labor Relations Board accepted the ruling of its Examiner; the appropriate Federal Court upheld the Board; and the Supreme Court refused to review the decision of the lower court. Consequently the case against the hiring-hall seemed to be final and conclusive, at least until such time as Congress might see fit to change its own enactment.

In this emergency the unions fell back upon a formula which was first worked out on the Pacific Coast, and which was based upon the realization that the illegality of the hiring-hall lay not in its hiring procedures, as such, but in the discrimination held to be inherent in the preference for union members over non-members. Consequently the hiring-hall provisions in the union contract were modified in one essential respect, namely, preference in hiring was no longer given to union members but rather to persons who had formerly sailed on the

vessels of the shipowners who were members of the employers' association which had negotiated the agreement. This in effect served to shift the preferential status from union membership to seniority, stated in terms suitable to labour, and in so doing met the needs of both parties as well as the requirements of law.

The net effect, as regards changes in the personnel hired, was negligible; since the great majority of seamen had been unionized for some years, and since the companies using the hiring-halls had been operating under union contracts for some time, it followed that any given man who could meet the seniority test was also likely to meet the union membership test. The reverse was not necessarily true, because of new union members and other factors, and there were, of course, certain gaps and loopholes; but by and large the new provision left the personnel hired, as well as the hiring-hall procedures, basically unchanged.

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(continued from page 39)

trousers or shirt and put away until the next meal comes round.

The only fresh-water supply in the vessel is located in the galley. After unscrewing a valve and pumping, the water comes through the opening of a small pipe near the surface of the deck. There are no washing, shower or toilet facilities of any kind, apart from a large galvanized can on the open deck that is set inside an old rubber tyre to keep it from moving. The inconvenience caused by such lack of facilities, particularly during rough and stormy weather, can easily be imagined.

After eating a hearty meal, during which the skipper had been replaced for a brief period on the bridge by Ted, one of the deckhands, the crew turned into their bunks and the skipper went back to hold the *Lilliane* on her course to the fishing grounds. All member of the crew, including the skipper, were avid readers of books and periodicals in Flemish or English. While waiting to clear the locks before leaving port, Ted had gone to the canal control office and collected eight books which had been issued to the crew by the municipal library. Later, during rest periods between bringing in the net, all crew members read for a short time before going to sleep.

(to be continued)

# The treatment of seafarers in Communist ports

FROM AIR-TERRE-MER, the monthly journal published by the ITF Mediterranean Vigilance Committee, we reproduce the following pertinent comments on the reception given to foreign seafarers visiting the ports of Iron Curtain countries:

We have one request to make to all those who have registered protests, which have often been out of proportion to the facts themselves, in regard to the application of the McCarran Act to the crews of foreign ships arriving in American ports; and to all those who find nothing to say against the conditions imposed on crews which have to enter ports in the satellite countries of Eastern Germany and Poland. Let them consider carefully the remarks just made to us by some seamen returning from precisely those happy shores.

We spoke at length with these French sailors, who were members of the crew on the ss Bastia returning from Gdansk (Danzig) and Gdynia (Poland).

Without hesitation they told about their voyage and their troubles, the gist of which is as follows:

'After unloading our cargo at the port of Aarhus in Denmark, we headed for Gdansk and got in there one night this winter. The moment we arrived, our ship was literally invaded by a horde of armed police. All of us wondered what we had done and what was going on, but nobody could tell us.

'The policemen, many of whom were fairly young boys, were arrogant, and they were obviously carrying out what was to them a routine job of control and supervision.

'They suddenly decided that the entire crew was to be detained and herded us into the wardroom, where we stayed from seven o'clock that evening until five the next morning. We were guarded all night by two sentinels with sub-machine guns, who stood at the door, evidently ready to shoot down the first person who gave signs of moving.

'During this time the policemen, accompanied by only one of our ship's officers, conducted a thorough search of the ship. The crew's quarters were gone through without the presence of a single member of the personnel.

'The day after our arrival, each sailor received a landing permit. This, however, was refused to eight members of the crew without rhyme or reasons. Among these were the boatswain, the second-class petty officer and an officer, who were never given any explanation for this refusal.

'Though we had a certain amount of painting to do along the sides while we were there, the boatswain who had been refused a landing permit was not even allowed to go down to supervise his men's work.

'After loading, the ship left for Gdynia, where we were to stay for some time and take on the rest of our cargo.

'There one of our "non-admitted" seamen, who was suffering from a phlegmon, had to wait many days before he could get authorization to go to a hospital, even accompanied and under guard, for the necessary treatment.

'One of us had a small stock of coffee which he had picked up during a stop in the Philippines. When he went ashore, he had the idea of swapping his precious coffee for merchandise, but the police arrested him, jailed him for the night, and fined him fifty dollars. Since the seamen did not have that much money, the captain of the ship had to settle the fine for him.'

Here is one amusing incident which occurred among many grimmer ones:

'While we were in the Gdansk roadstead, there was an Italian ship next to us. Its cat came on board our ship to explore, and we set out for Gdynia without having returned the animal to our southern neighbours. When the Italians reached Gdynia, they entered a formal claim for their cat. "Pussy's" return was like a vaudeville act. It took place on the pier halfway between the two ships. Each of the two sailors - the Frenchman and the Italian - had a special pass, and the whole operation was carried out under heavy police supervision.

'There is not much to say about the few chances we had to visit the streets of Gdynia. What could we learn? It was difficult to find out anything, for we felt that we were being constantly followed and spied on.

'The basic Polish monetary unit, the zloty, had no great value, being worth approximately 100 francs. But a half-pint bottle of vodka now costs 25 zlotys (2,500 francs). In the shop windows we saw men's suits prices between 3,000 and 4,000 zlotys, and a kilogramme of coffee at 400 zlotys (40,000 francs). One of us who was wearing a silk scarf that had cost 2,000 francs in France was approached by a labourer who offered him 100 zlotys (10,000 francs) for it.

'We had nothing to sell and found nothing to buy in this country of fearful, unhappy people who seem to live under the shadow of an indefinable terror.

'When the day of our departure finally came, the whole crew was again assembled in the wardroom and kept under guard from noon until six o'clock, as at Gdansk. This time there were a number of women members of the armed police who went all over the ship, visiting the freight holds, the coal-bunkers, the storerooms, the crew's quarters, and even the water-ballast. Finally, after this delightful group had left, we were allowed to get under way.'

There is nothing debatable about the strictness, the brutality, and the bestial and stupid measures applied to foreign crews in the popular democracies. Both French and Italian seafarers who visit these ports are constantly exposed to them.

However, those political figures, journalists, and more or less well-intentioned people who protest against the controls exercised by the American Immigration Service are the same ones who either approve the savage intransigence of the popular democracies or find nothing to say against it. The surprising thing is that they can find other innocents to go along with them.

## Wireless regulations for Norwegian merchant shipping

THE WIRELESS REGULATIONS of the International Convention for the Safety of Life at Sea, drawn up in London in 1948 and subsequently ratified by the major maritime countries including Norway, form the basis of the Norwe-

gian wireless regulations for merchant shipping which came into force on 19 November 1952, i.e. on the same date as the Convention itself.

The Norwegian regulations not only fully implement those laid down in the Convention, but in some cases go beyond them. They lay down that all cargo ships over 1,000 GRT and passenger ships shall be fitted with wireless telegraphy when on international voyages. An international voyage is defined as one between any two of the countries party to the Convention, e.g. between Norway and Denmark. The same provision applies to cargo ships under 1,000 GRT in the case of overseas voyages, 'overseas' being taken to mean trans-oceanic, e.g. from Europe to America.

Apart from this, a large number of ships are required to be fitted with wireless telephony if they have no wireless telegraphy. This applies to passenger boats on Norwegian coastal traffic if they go more than 25 nautical miles out

to sea, to cargo vessels between 200 and 1,000 GRT on international voyages (Norway-Denmark), and to fishing vessels operating in waters off Greenland, Newfoundland, and in the Arctic waters.

If a ship is required to have wireless telegraphy on board, it must also be equipped with direction-finding apparatus and carry at least one qualified wireless telegraphist. Similarly, every vessel equipped with wireless telephony under the new regulations must also have a certificated wireless telephonist on board. The certificate can normally be obtained after a comparatively simple course lasting three weeks.

The periods during which wireless watch must be kept on board vary considerably according to the type of ship. Formerly watch was kept for three periods of half-an-hour during a 24-hour period. Under the new regulations, wireless watch must be maintained from eight to twenty-four hours a day.

'There is also wage-levelling in the pay of drivers of machines differing in carrying capacity. The rates are exactly the same for drivers of trucks with a capacity of one and a half to three tons and for those who drive trucks with a three to five ton capacity. It is time to introduce a differentiated wage scale based on differing carrying capacities . . .

'There are major discrepancies in the drivers' earnings. Thus, for example, the Ministry of the Heavy Machine-Building Industry pays 30% higher wages than those paid to drivers working under identical conditions in Moscow Soviet motor pools. This has caused personnel turnover and encouraged drifters.

'The bonus system has not fostered the development of progressive work methods in motor transport. Fulfillment of the freight delivery plan has not been required for bonuses on gas economies and bettering established norms. This has resulted in certain drivers making trips without a full load . . .

'The necessity of revising the system of truck drivers' pay has arisen. First of all, sharp distinctions must be drawn between remuneration per kilometer traveled with freight and remuneration per kilometer traveled unloaded. This will bring about an increase in freight shipments and properly reward the pacemakers in competition.'

Our readers, acquainted as they are with bona fide trade union aims and the action taken to achieve them, may be left wondering what part, if any, is played by Russian trade unions in such matters. Certainly, so far as determination of wage rates and vehicle classification is concerned, they seem not to have done a proper job. However, the letter is also interesting for another reason. For it throws a glaring spotlight on fundamental shortcomings in the organization of transport in Russia. It appears, for instance, that the practice of operating unbalanced trunk services continues unchecked in the road transport industry. That, of course, does not testify to the existence of a well-organized and properly integrated transport system. Nevertheless, to judge from what 'Engineer I. Seriakov' has to say on the subject, there would not seem to be any intention to change the present 'unorganized' conditions in the Russian road transport industry.

Yes, they still have a long way to go . . . even if they ever succeed in getting on the right track!

## They've still got a long way to go!

### The Russian truck driver and his remuneration

IN MATTERS RUSSIAN, both great and small, one is constantly left wondering. Take the case of the so-called 'Letters to the Editor' which appear in Russian papers and frequently set rolling balls which eventually hit some sector of Soviet society like an avalanche. How are such letters inspired and who are the writers who dare, albeit sometimes rather belatedly, to point out certain weaknesses of Russian institutions? For the points which they raise make one wonder whether those self-same institutions are in fact intended to perform normal functions at all.

A striking example of what we mean is afforded by the Russian trade union paper TRUD, which, in its issue of 29 October last, printed a 400-word letter from a certain 'Engineer I. Seriakov', who may or may not exist, under the title 'Certain questions of remuneration for truck drivers'. The following is a condensed version of the letter, for which acknowledgement is due to 'Current Digest of the Soviet Press':

' . . . . The successes achieved by leading truck drivers have shown that

there are still unused reserves in motor transport. Proper remuneration for workers is particularly important in disseminating new work methods. Unfortunately violations on this score can frequently be observed.

'Consider the following example. Two trucks left Moscow for Tula to pick up freight. One returned to Moscow with three tons of freight while the other for some reason returned unloaded. The first driver earned thirty-four rubles and the other driver earned twenty-eight. It would seem that everything was in order - the one who carried freight earned more. But actually this is far from the case. The driver of the truck that made the trip unloaded saved more gas and wear and tear on the tires and his machine will hold up better. Ultimately he will get a bonus for this and the two drivers' earnings will be equal.

'This can occur because under the recent system the relative importance of pay per ton of freight carried is not a large part of transport workers' total earnings; the fundamental pay index is based on the kilometres travelled.



## European international traffic by goods road motor-vehicles<sup>a</sup>

Country	Entered		Left		Direct transit		Total	
	1950	1951	1950	1951	1950	1951	1950	1951
<i>A. Tonnage carried</i>								
Denmark . . . . .	35 041	28 489	153 116	128 350	16 709	14 010	204 866	170 849
France . . . . .	58 949	126 513	111 017	204 082	13 631	15 686	183 597	346 281
Germany (Western Zones) .	473 214	495 557	467 602	657 694	73 879	52 070	1 014 695	1 205 321
Netherlands . . . . .	535 000	..	844 000	..	32 000	..	1 411 000	1 746 000
Switzerland <sup>b</sup> . . . . .	50 528	75 936	16 393	19 320	—	—	66 921	95 256
<i>B. Numbers of freight vehicles crossing frontiers</i>								
Denmark { loaded . . . . .	16 429	14 233	16 688	15 044	2 002	1 720	24 010	20 911
{ empty . . . . .							11 109	10 086
France { loaded . . . . .	9 498	18 332	13 617	22 386	1 421	1 469	24 536	42 187
{ empty . . . . .	9 742	17 501	5 623	13 447	439	717	15 804	31 665
Germany { loaded . . . . .	69 885	65 359	70 752	95 810	8 962	5 148	230 158	166 317
(Western Zones) { empty . . . . .								41 716

<sup>a</sup> Frontier traffic not included.

<sup>b</sup> Excluding traffic carried in Swiss lorries which was not recorded in 1950: in 1951, the figures including Swiss lorries were: Entered 190 000 tons; Left 28 000 tons.

ECE Annual Bulletin of Transport Statistics 1951

### Working hours in Canadian transport

IN OCTOBER 1951, the Canadian Department of Labor carried out an inquiry into the duration of the normal working week in manufacturing industries and five other major Canadian industrial groups.

In transport, communications, and storage, excluding the steam railways, normal working hours of 'plant employees', i.e. workers other than office employees, varied as follows:

Worked 40 hours or less	43.4 per cent
Worked over 40 to 45 hours	19.6 per cent
Worked over 45 to 48 hours	22.1 per cent
Worked over 48 hours	14.9 per cent

Nearly seventy per cent of the office employees worked less than forty hours. The detailed distribution was as follows:

Worked less than 37½ hours	19.7 per cent
Worked 37½ and up to 40 hours	49.6 per cent
Worked 40 hours	20.4 per cent
Worked over 40 hours	10.3 per cent

The proportion of workers on a five-day week was 45.5 per cent for plant employees, and 59.9 per cent for office employees.

The steam railways employ 160,000 workers plus 30,000 office staff. Almost all the 'non-operating' employees — 'operating' grades comprise mainly locomotive and train staff — worked a five-day week, in the majority of cases of forty hours.

### Cost of traffic congestion in the USA

MOST OF US at odd intervals have been content to quote, or have quoted at us, the proverb that 'time is money', and to accept its implications without feeling any marked desire to come back with the question 'how much?'. Just this question, however, has been put and answered, at least in so far as the time lost in traffic jams is concerned, by some illuminating statistics published recently by the US magazine 'Newsweek'.

An engineering test showed that the normal performance of a car on a modern nonstop highway of 20.75 miles per gallon of petrol was reduced to 8.7 miles in stop-and-start city traffic. This amounts to 2 cents a mile in terms of petrol consumption. The difference in cost in the case of lorries is even greater, being 13.3 cents per mile in a crowded city compared with 7.7 cents

on a dual-lane expressway. The 'cost of congestion' for road haulage concerns in Chicago is put at \$100,000,000 a year. In Cincinnati, it is estimated at \$100,000 a day, whilst in New York, stated to be afflicted with the worst traffic tangle of all, the daily bill exceeds \$1,000,000.

### Nationalization of Indian air transport

NINE EXISTING AIR TRANSPORT COMPANIES in India may shortly be merged into a statutory corporation to operate both inland and foreign routes. The policy committee of the Indian Government has made this recommendation on the grounds that it is impossible for the companies concerned to undertake any replacement programmes without financial assistance from the Government.

The scheme which, it is understood, meets with the approval of the companies concerned as well as their shareholders, is said to provide for a sum of ninety-five million rupees for compensation to the companies, and the purchase of thirteen new aircraft, of which three would be large enough to operate long-distance international services.

(continued at foot of page 48)



### Sicilian ship registration law upheld

THE SICILIAN CONSTITUTIONAL COURT has overruled opposition by the Italian Minister of Merchant Marine to a new ship registration law adopted by the Sicilian Senate. The law in question, to which referred in our January issue, provides a ten-year exemption from taxation for any shipping company newly established in a Sicilian port and operating vessels which have not already been registered in Italian ports. As a result of the constitutional Court's decision it will now take immediate effect.

(continued from page 47)

Although details of the proposals have not yet been announced, it is understood that the Indian Government would be a majority shareholder in the new airline corporation, which would take over the assets and liabilities of the companies concerned, the shareholders being issued with stock equivalent to the current market value and redeemable in approximately five years.

# The Japanese whaling industry

THE JAPANESE WHALING INDUSTRY is of two kinds, one land-based and carried on in near waters, the other based on factory ships and operating in distant waters. Of these two types of whaling, the latter is by far the more important, its output in 1951 being approximately nine times greater than that of the land-based vessels.

Distant-water whaling, which is almost entirely confined to the Antarctic Ocean, was begun in 1934 with technical guidance and assistance from Norway, where the first whale catchers and factory ships were purchased. Its output in that year was 2,131 tons of whale oil. By 1940, this had increased to 103,303 tons of which fifteen per cent was exported.

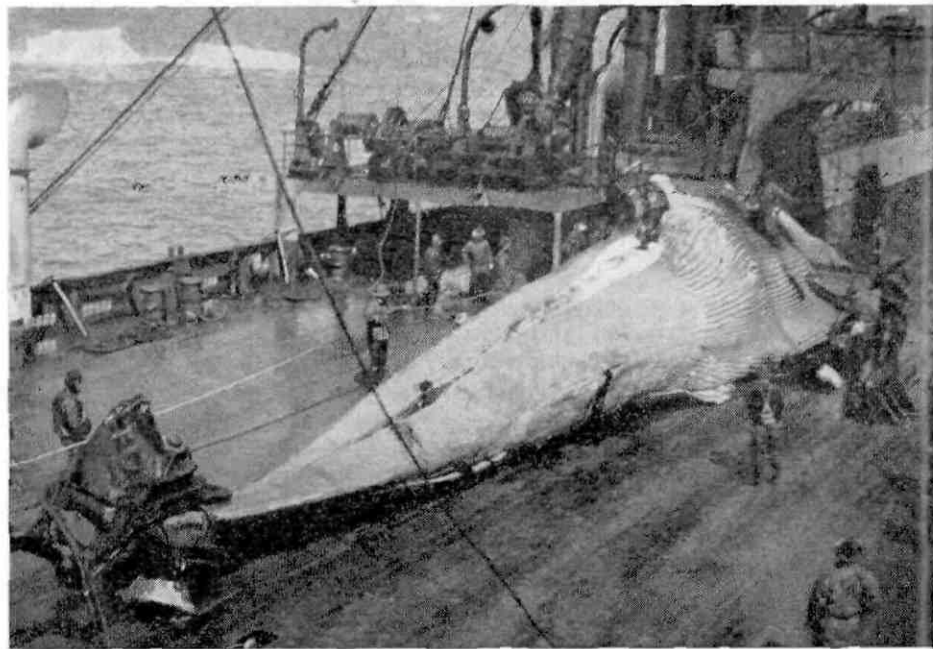
Japanese whaling, interrupted during the Second World War, was resumed in 1946 with an output of 12,260 tons, rising in 1951 to 44,100 tons, of which thirty per cent was exported. Permission to resume whaling was given by the Allied Council for Japan (Soviet Russia dissenting) in order to alleviate the food shortage, and 22,223 tons of whale meat was preserved and subsequently consumed in 1946. In 1951, home consumption of whale meat was still high, being in the region of 26,900 tons.

The present Japanese whaling fleet consists of three factory ships and twen-

ty-five whale catchers together with a number of vessels used for transporting whale oil and frozen whale meat. Some 3,600 men are employed, 670 of them being engaged in near water whaling.

Their earnings consist of fixed wages, overtime pay, and a bonus. The fixed wages are approximately the same as on merchant vessels, while the bonuses depend on the size and yield of the catch. According to figures supplied by the All Japan Seamen's Union (a member-organization of the I.T.F.), the wages of those engaged on whale catchers in Antarctic waters average out at a little over 57,000 yen (1,000 yen being approximately £1), made up of 22,000 yen in wages, and 35,000 yen in bonuses. This compares very favourably with the figure of 16,733 yen given for merchant navy personnel.

The feudal character of Japanese fishing compared with other industries is reflected in labour-management relations. Clerical staff and those engaged on processing have their own unions with many of the characteristics of company unions, and these are not likely to develop into genuine trade unions. Of the 3,000 men engaged on factory ships, transport vessels and whale catchers, however, some two-thirds are members of the All Japan Seamen's Union.



# INTERNATIONAL TRANSPORT WORKERS' FEDERATION

President : R. BRATSCHI    General Secretary : O. BECU    Asst. Gen. Secretary : P. TOFAHRN

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Founded in London in 1896. Reconstituted at Amsterdam in 1919.  
Headquarters in London since the outbreak of the Second World War.  
147 affiliated organizations in 50 countries. Total membership: 6,000,000

## *Seven industrial sections catering for*

RAILWAYMEN · ROAD TRANSPORT WORKERS · INLAND WATERWAY WORKERS · DOCKERS  
SEAFARERS · FISHERMEN · CIVIL AVIATION STAFF

## *The aims of the ITF are*

*to support national and international action in the struggle against economic exploitation and political oppression and to make international working class solidarity effective;*  
*to cooperate in the establishment of a world order based on the association of all peoples in freedom and equality for the promotion of their welfare by the common use of the world's resources;*  
*to seek universal recognition and enforcement of the right of trade union organization;*  
*to defend and promote, on the international plane, the econ-*

*omic, social and occupational interests of all transport workers;*  
*to represent the transport workers in international agencies performing functions which affect their social, economic and occupational conditions;*  
*to furnish its affiliated organizations with information about the wages and working conditions of transport workers in different parts of the world, legislation affecting them, the development and activities of their trade unions, and other kindred matters.*

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## *Affiliated unions in*

ARGENTINA (ILLEGAL) AUSTRALIA AUSTRIA BELGIUM BRITISH GUIANA CANADA CEYLON CHILE CHINA  
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