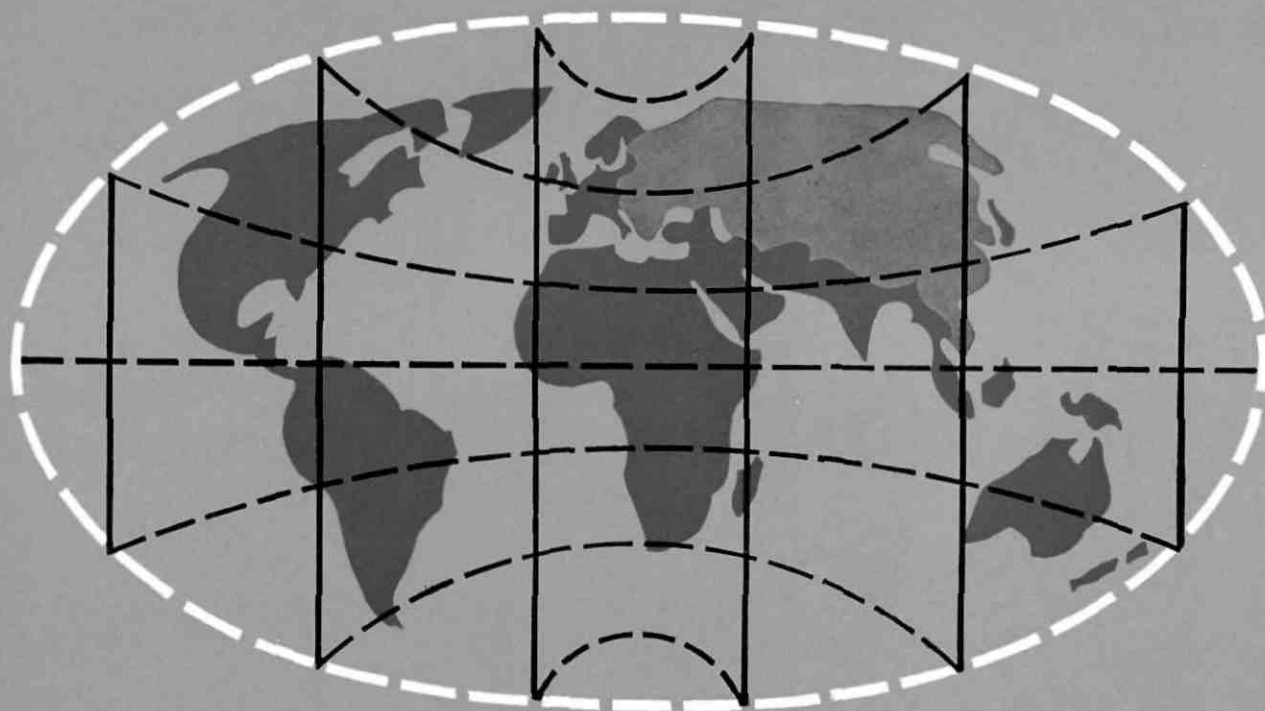


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Forthcoming Meetings:

Paris	10-11 June	Civil Aviation Conference (Flying Staff)
Copenhagen	26-27 June	Sub-Committee on Short Sea Trades
Copenhagen	29-30 June	Executive Committee
Copenhagen	1-2 July	General Council
Rome	Autumn 1953	Railwaymen's Sectional Conference. Postponed from April. New date not yet fixed.



... AND TO PROVE THAT I'M A GOOD DEMOCRAT, WE'LL ARREST ONLY TEN TRADE UNIONISTS INSTEAD OF THIRTY TO-DAY'

Cartoon by Vicky of London News Chronicle

The case of Franco Spain

The ITF's position is unchanged

IN RECENT WEEKS, the free press of the world has again reminded public opinion that the unhappy people of Spain still live under a regime of dictatorship and terror completely incompatible with the standards obtaining in civilized countries, and entirely foreign to Western traditions based on respect for human liberty and the democratic process.

The latest outrage reported from Franco Spain is the arrest and imprisonment, under what can only be described as mediaeval conditions, of some thirty

trade unionists from Madrid, Barcelona, and Bilbao. One of them, Tomás Centeno, has since died as the result of brutal treatment meted out to him in the

cells of the Madrid General-Directorate of Security.*)

That, of course, is nothing new. There have been many similar cases in the past. In the columns of this Journal we have repeatedly had the unhappy, if proud, task of condemning crimes of this kind, crimes committed with the refined cruelty common to the political police of all totalitarian countries.

Up to the present, however, neither the publicity given to them nor the widespread indignation which they have aroused among all civilized peoples has had much effect on the frequency with which these affronts to world opinion have been committed.

*) See ITF Press Report No 17 of 30 March 1953

As a result, many simple honest folk, reading such news in their daily papers, no doubt feel frustrated and even ashamed that so little can apparently be done about it.

Not so long ago, these same good people learned that Franco Spain had been admitted to UNESCO, a specialized agency of the United Nations charged with spreading education among the peoples of our world and with teaching them respect for the political and religious beliefs of their neighbours. In consequence, some of them may have believed that the Franco regime had adopted new and humane methods of government, somewhat more in line with those obtaining in the countries whose representatives had supported its admission to an international cultural organization.

The unpalatable truth, however, is that, only a few months after Franco's triumphant entry into UNESCO, we find that the persecution of decent honest Spaniards is still continuing in the same way as it did when Franco, aided by Hitler and Mussolini, destroyed the legally-constituted Spanish Republican Government.

The case of Tomás Centeno is a new proof of this. The Fascist press has, of course, done its best to vilify Centeno by alleging that he was 'a bandit and a swindler'. We, however, are satisfied beyond all doubt that he was simply an active member of the Spanish General Workers' Union (UGT) and that his only 'crime' was that of trying to recreate some of the organizations which once formed part of that union.

Centeno was in fact attempting to reconstruct a trade union centre differing in no way from those which exist in every free country of the world. If that was a crime, then it was not of his making. Our Spanish brothers derive no pleasure from working underground. On the contrary, they would prefer to do so openly and legally. It is the Franco regime itself which, by its iniquitous ban on all trade union activity inside Spain, has left them with only two alternatives: to remain idle and acquiesce in the arbitrary rule of a dictator or to go underground and carry out tasks which many of us undertook not so long ago in our own countries under circumstances created by the evil geniuses whose collaborator Franco once was.

It is shameful that the representative of a completely discredited ideology, enabled by a quirk of fate to assume the

pose of a conqueror, should be allowed to decree that the organization of an independent trade union is a crime punishable by from five to twenty years' imprisonment. And it is even more repugnant that, in order to enforce that decree, he should try to justify the barbarous methods which have once again resulted in the death of a loyal and honest citizen of the real Spain.

That is the way in which Franco repays the misguided generosity of those who supported Spain's admission to UNESCO. His mentality, in fact, differs in no way from that of any other dictator. Appeasement merely makes him bolder. No one should be surprised, therefore, that he has interpreted the gesture made by the nations of the free world as a tacit admission of the correctness of the policy which he has always followed.

There is, however, still time to prevent any further sliding down the slippery path chosen for the free peoples by their official representatives. Fortunately, the free peoples themselves are neither as gullible nor so easily cheated as their leaders.

As an organization representing a considerable body of ordinary people we can speak with some authority on this subject. The ITF's position with regard to Franco Spain, identical with that of the vast majority of organized workers, has remained unchanged since 1936. Convinced as we were of the righteousness of its cause, we gave our full support to the democratically-elected

Republican Government from the very beginning, and condemned the rebellious generals who traitorously attacked their own country, bringing to it destruction and dishonour. From then until the present day, we have continued to condemn Franco and his regime, despite hints from certain quarters that it would be more 'expedient' to refrain from doing so.

Throughout the years following the Civil War, we have given our Spanish comrades, and in particular the transport workers among them, as many proofs as possible of our continuing solidarity. Our only regret is that we have not been able to adopt more drastic measures to bring Franco's tyranny to an end. That, however, does not mean that we have abandoned all intention of taking such action should it at any time appear necessary.

Our stand on the Spanish problem thus remains unaltered. Our sympathies, as always, are with the thousands of Spanish workers whose love of freedom has brought them before the Fascist firing squads; with those lying in prison, many of whom may not live to see the end of their sentences; and with those who live in fear of a knock on the door that may separate them for ever from their loved ones and the security and happiness of family life.

Our admiration for the bravery of those who are still fighting for human dignity and freedom inside Franco Spain is surpassed only by our hatred and contempt for their torturers.

Fifteen years for 'stealing' own fish

THE ICFTU PUBLICATION *Spotlight* reports that two 60-year old fishermen were recently sentenced to fifteen years' forced labour by a Latvian Communist Court for taking home two baskets of fish which they themselves had caught, on the grounds that it was the property of the fishing cooperative to which they belonged. This is one of the many instances of the increasing difficulty of life in present-day Latvia related by four refugees who recently arrived at Gotland in Sweden. They are Alexander Kairis, skipper of the trawler on which they escaped, Zanis Nicis, a shipyard worker from the port of Liepaja, together with his wife and brother-in-law, Gunnar Cukurs, an apprentice em-

ployed in the Liepaja shipyards.

Average earnings of Latvian workers vary between twenty and twenty-five rubles per day. Butter costs about fifteen rubles a pound and, although Latvia is an agricultural country, is rationed at 300 grammes (about $\frac{3}{4}$ pound) per month. Milk costs four rubles a litre (a little more than $1\frac{1}{2}$ pints). The refugees confirm that the forcible collectivization of farms in Latvia which was carried through in 1948 was accompanied by large-scale deportations.

They also report that Liepaja, the country's principal port, has been closed to merchant shipping and turned into an important Soviet naval base.

European transport - the unsolved problem

by Paul Tofahrn, Assistant General Secretary

ALTHOUGH THE ORGANIZATION OF TRANSPORT in Europe has fully resumed its pre-war pattern, in Western Europe at any rate, it continues to be the subject of discussions and conferences. That is something of a paradox.

The system of organization based on national sovereignty has laws of its own. *Notwithstanding national sovereignty, persons and goods must be carried across frontiers.* Such international transport raises technical, legal and administrative problems and to solve them the governments concerned must conclude either a few multilateral or numerous bilateral agreements. None of these problems, however, is capable of permanent solution. To overcome this difficulty, international institutions are charged with framing regulations and adapting them constantly to changing requirements. Institutions adequate to this task already exist in Europe and it can be said that they are fulfilling it.

In recent years, there has been a valuable addition to this group of institutions, namely the Inland Transport Committee of the Economic Commission for Europe. It has solved an impressive number of new problems with which none of the old organizations could cope. In January 1953, there was a further addition – a conference of Ministers of Transport.*) That conference adopted a series of resolutions which can be considered a useful encouragement of endeavours to make international transport smooth-running, swift, and economical. The Ministers have even given their blessing to plans for setting up a European cartel of those who purchase rolling stock, and do not seem to be deterred by the prospect that this may call into being a European cartel of rolling stock manufacturers. The conference also drew up a list of roads to be made fit for use by very heavy traffic. Each national state concerned is to do that with its own means and in its own interests as well as in that of other European users of the roads. The conference has further taken in hand the study of inland waterway problems which, for some obscure reason, may not be tackled by the Inland Transport Committee of the ECE.

From the viewpoint of the upholders of national sovereignty in transport matters, therefore, everything should be all right. The necessary institutions exist, they work, and, on the whole, work well.

*) This conference, attended by the Transport Ministers of Austria, Belgium, France, Western Germany, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, and Switzerland, was held in Paris from 29 to 31 January. It was called at the initiative of the French Government.

Of course, they are capable of improvement, but so far nobody has investigated the cost of running them or means of reducing such costs. In that respect, international transport organizations are not yet on a par with railway stations, loco-sheds, or garages.

Collective action or collective talk?

But things are not all right. Twenty years ago, experts began to have an inkling that national sovereignty stands in the way of achieving the best possible results in the field of transport. A League of Nations expert, for instance, wrote: 'Air transport is still waiting for the most valuable gift it could receive: a doctrine of collective action calculated on a European scale to meet European needs, and based on strictly economic lines'. That applies to all transport and not only to that in the air.

Since the end of the Second World War, many more people have realized that the present system is inadequate for meeting the needs of a Europe that, on the one hand, strives towards greater unity and, on the other, is compelled to husband its resources. The Ministers of Transport, though defending, as unobtrusively as possible, national sovereignty against endeavours to set up a European Transport Authority, felt the need to talk about 'the European spirit', 'the general interest of the European community', 'the progressive integration of railways on a European plane', and 'the coordination of transport with a view to its integration in a European framework'. Optimists may perhaps think that at a first meeting they could not do

more than talk, and they will emphasize the fact that the Ministers have committed themselves to collective action.

Indeed, the Ministers have adopted a statement in which they declare their 'resolve to pursue in common, without the setting up of a new organization, the progress of the studies contemplated and the development of the actions undertaken and to maintain among themselves effective relations'. They have further decided to coordinate their efforts for the achievement of their aims and to meet again when that appears useful. A permanent Conference of Ministers – does that not look rather like a new institution? And since the French Minister of Transport has been asked to continue to coordinate his colleagues' action on the international plane, might not a practical joker affix to a certain building in Paris a nameplate bearing the inscription 'Ministry of Public Works and Transport of France and Europe'?

Towards a European ICC

Further weighty evidence that things are not as they should be in European transport is supplied by the OEEC. The Council of the OEEC has convened a European Inland Transport Conference which opened in Paris on 18 March and is scheduled to conclude its work within three months. The antecedents of this conference go back to 1951, when the OEEC decided to send a mission to the United States to study the manner in which transport is being controlled and coordinated in that country, which is larger than Europe and comprises forty-eight states. That mission came back with the conclusion that Europe would do well to derive inspiration for the solution of some of its transport problems from the American example. Acting on that conclusion, the OEEC Council convened the above-mentioned conference, asking it to state whether the existing organization of European transport was adequate for achieving the general aims of the OEEC and, if not, to make suitable recommendations. One American lesson was applied at once: the Conference

was instructed to arrange for hearings of international organizations, both governmental and non-governmental, which had something to say on the problem.

The conference works behind closed doors. That has the advantage that nobody is encouraged to make statements addressed to the 'gallery' rather than to his colleagues, and nobody talks with the wording of a fine newspaper headline in mind. The disadvantage is that public, and even expert, opinion is neither informed nor given an opportunity of exerting moral influence. Discretion is pushed to extremes by providing that representatives of one non-governmental organization may not be present at the hearing of another.

This conference is evidence that the governments cannot and do not close their eyes to the fact that there is a problem to be solved. But whether they see or wish to see the real problem is still an open question.

A hindrance to economic integration

Over twenty years ago, to be precise two years after the Wall Street slump of 1929, it was realized that Europe could hold its own in the world only by becoming an economic unit. In the midst of the world economic crisis of the thirties, a League of Nations report contained the following statement:

'.....even when Europe has emerged from the present crisis she cannot hope for a real economic revival unless she is prepared gradually to adapt the traditional conception of separate national economic units and to approximate it - with every necessary precaution, and possibly in forms yet unknown - to the conception of one vast market accessible on equal terms to all or most of the producers of Europe.'

In a resolution passed in 1948, the ITF stated: 'According as it is organized, transport can be either a help or a hindrance to economic integration, and the existence of national transport systems pursuing policies primarily, if not exclusively, concerned with national interests is definitely a hindrance in so far as Europe is concerned.'

Hitherto, the transport policy of the various States has been aiming at the exact opposite of economic integration. A League of Nations report issued in 1929, signed by Professor Eli Heckscher, Julien Eberhardt, and Lt. Cdr. Cecil M. Dillon, contained the following significant statement:

'German, Belgian and French railways are quoting several reduced tariffs with the explicit object of securing as large a part of the traffic as possible to their own seaports. As a matter of fact, the low railway rates in this connection mean sacrifices which cannot be defended from an economic point of view, and the railways are sacrificing their own interests in order to secure traffic which would under natural circumstances reach the sea in a different way.'

In 1953 the situation is, in essence, the same and, in extent, even worse. The principle underlying this policy was stated in 1927 by a director of the German Reichsbahn to Professor Heckscher in the following terms:

'In practice, the whole tariff policy of the German Railways in no way differs from that of all other Central European railway companies - national economic interests are and must be safeguarded, so long as there is not full freedom of traffic policy and renunciation of every protectionist commercial policy on the part of all European countries by joint agreement and on uniform principles.'

That principle still applies today. Transport is used, or rather misused, by the custodians of the different national interests in order to wage economic war on each other. In the field of transport a policy prevails that is in direct conflict with the aspirations of the European peoples and even with official policy as embodied in the constitutions of the OEEC and the Council of Europe and in the terms of reference of the Economic Commission for Europe.

A help to economic integration

On their return, the OEEC experts who visited the United States stated:

'Major benefits would result from the formation in Europe of an interstate body to study and coordinate the general transport tariff and economic problems in all the affected countries with a view to arriving at a policy for the most efficient and economic utilization and development of all the transport resources of these countries, both individually and collectively.'

Clearly the OEEC experts have independently come to look upon transport in much the same way as did the late John Marchbank, Chairman of the ITF's war-time European Transport Committee, who said in 1943: 'We must use transport as a lever to secure a better European order'. That transport

could and ought to be used as a spearhead in endeavours to bring about the economic unity of Europe is a view also endorsed by the ECE experts, whose most recent 'Economic Survey' states: 'Undoubtedly, transport presents a field *par excellence* for an attempt at international planning and coordination.'

All competent advisers thus urge the European governments to use transport for the new purpose of economic integration. In order to carry out this idea a plan of action is needed and an instrument to implement the plan. The first items in the plan of action could usefully be the following:

- a) ascertain the requirements of European industry, trade and agriculture, and pay special attention to neglected or handicapped areas, and industries;
- b) take stock of the existing transport facilities;
- c) throw into relief the distortions, duplications and inadequacies of existing transport services;
- d) draw up a technical plan for rectifying and completing the various transport systems and welding them into a coherent whole in which each form of transport is a complement of the others;
- e) draw up a plan of investments, taking into account the technical and economic needs and the resources of the industry and of the capital market;
- f) work out a rates policy that will ensure that all traffic passes by the cheapest means allowing for the value of the service rendered.

As to the instrument, the European governments have no other difficulty than 'l'embarras du choix'. All that is needed is to vest one or other of the existing bodies with the necessary authority and power.

Intergovernmental muddle

Post-war experience has taught European governments that a return to pre-war conditions is not possible. They have therefore set up:

- a) in 1947 the Economic Commission for Europe;
- b) in 1948 the OEEC;
- c) in 1949 the Council of Europe;
- d) in 1952 the European Coal, Iron and Steel Community;
- e) in 1953 a Conference of Ministers of Transport.

Within each of these five bodies discussions take place on either the problem of European transport as a whole or questions affecting that problem. In

addition, the Central Rhine Commission has now also started discussing the economic problems of transport, whilst the Coal and Steel Community takes decisions which have to be carried out in the field of transport.

It stands to reason that this method of working is bound to lead to confusion, and experience shows that it even leads to worse. On the one hand, the European governments declare, through

the brand-new organ of a Conference of Ministers, that they will take joint decisions on concrete problems, and direct the national administrations and transport industries to carry them out. On the other hand, and practically at the same time, through another meeting of Ministers, they ask for advice on the question of whether Europe needs an equivalent of the Interstate Commerce Commission in the United States. The

two lines do not rhyme.

To seek to discern a purposeful policy behind such incoherence would be a vain endeavour. The truth is that the European governments are at sixes and sevens with regard to transport policy. The old policy of national sovereignty is patently obsolete, but there is no government yet courageous enough to give the lead in a new policy and to choose the transport field for pioneering work.

The ECE on European transport integration

.....
A most valuable survey of economic conditions in Europe, prepared by the Economic Commission for Europe, has just been published by the United Nations in Geneva. Its full title is Economic Survey of Europe since the war - a reappraisal of problems and prospects. As is indicated by that title, the survey covers a wide field including economic conditions in Eastern Europe and the Soviet Union. The whole is set against the background of the historically decisive period following the war.
.....

DUE ATTENTION is paid, under various headings, to the transport industry, e.g. in the section dealing with the Coal and Steel Community. In the chapter 'Problems of Economic Integration', a separate section, entitled 'Integration in the field of transport in Western Europe', is devoted to the transport problem. We reproduce this section below but preface it, by way of introduction, with the concluding paragraph of the survey, since this provides, in the most concise manner, the general background against which the problem of Western European transport should be viewed.

'The modest achievements in economic integration within western Europe give little reason for optimism about the future prospects, especially when it is remembered that, in the post-war period, conditions were in some ways favourable for bold steps towards international economic integration. In those years, at least one fundamental prerequisite was present: there was general economic expansion. When production is rising everywhere, when large investments are being made in nearly all fields and labour is fully employed, adaptation of production structures to the requirements of the international division of labour should be less costly and meet less resistance. Any progress towards in-

ternational integration in the years to come is therefore dependent on a continued expansion. If future increases in production are to be only slow, and still more if there is stagnation, Governments, business and labour will be concerned solely with the protection of established market positions and existing employment opportunities. Without continued economic expansion, even the most modest steps towards international integration have little chance of success.'

'In the field of transport, the aim of international integration has been, not primarily to promote fiercer competition, but rather to introduce the necessary amount of central coordination, thus extending to the international sphere the development which has for many decades been going on in various countries. The essential reason why unregulated competition does not provide an answer to the problem of organizing transport is that in this field there are particularly big economies to be gained from large-scale operations. Therefore, at the national level, important branches of the transport industries are almost everywhere under more or less direct Government supervision. In fields where competition does exist it often leads to the development of over-capacity.'

'It is natural, therefore, that much of

the discussion in recent years about the ways to achieve a better international integration in the field of transport has centred around the question of whether and how a new international body could be set up, designed to take over the task of organizing centrally the transport systems of a smaller or greater number of western European countries. So far, however, these efforts have not gone beyond the stage of general discussions of over-all plans.'

'Undoubtedly, transport presents a field par excellence for an attempt at international planning and coordination. But the difficulties in establishing such coordination among a group of countries with otherwise sovereign powers in matters of economic policy should not be underestimated. In particular, there are great differences from the case of coal and steel. First, Government control being normally more far-reaching in transport than in most other industries, a high authority in the field of transport would have to be vested with more extensive powers than those granted to the High Authority of the European Coal and Steel Community, and in particular, such a body, if it were entrusted with the coordination of investments, would need very large financial resources. If the role of the High Authority for coal and steel can be said to be to secure free competition and to direct and control only in particular cases, a transport authority would have planning and coordination as its main task, providing for unregulated competition only in those limited fields where this appears to be desirable.'

'The second factor which makes it difficult to establish full international coordination for transport is the very

fact that transport permeates the whole economy of countries to an even larger extent than coal and steel. Therefore, a unification in this field would involve particularly serious problems arising from the dualism inherent in any attempt at "integration by sector": that the sector subjected to an international authority is nevertheless influenced by and exerts its influence on the general economic policy of national Governments.⁷

'At any rate, Governments would have to be prepared to surrender an important part of their power to fix tariffs and to decide on investments in the field of transport in favour of an international body if they really wished to carry farther the economic integration of transport in western Europe by this means. Failing this, efforts to achieve a higher degree of international integration in transport will have to take the form of more intensive coordination effected by inter-government cooperation rather than through an independent international body. This should be all the easier to achieve because transport – being already largely under Government control – is a field where a day-to-day approach can very well be adopted. There is certainly no need to choose between full integration and no integration at all. Steps towards better coordination can be taken, small or large, as conditions permit.*')

'There would seem to be three main ways in which a closer international integration in the fields of transport could contribute to a higher productivity generally.'

'First, there are the direct economies from planning over a wider field. Lines of communication can be used more economically if national frontiers can be ignored; duplication of lines can be avoided; empty runs and thereby the stock of ships, vehicles and wagons, can be reduced'.

'Another main element of an international transport policy is the rationalization and unification of tariff struc-

tures. Existing tariff structures are highly irrational and this entails a distortion of commodity price structures. The practice of not allowing rates and fares to "taper off" beyond political frontiers has general protective effects by making the cost of a transport higher when one or more frontiers are crossed than when the whole journey is within one country. In addition, a complicated system of tariff discrimination and of subsidizing industries and trade through transport has developed, partly in favour of certain commodities, partly in favour of domestic versus foreign commodities. Thus, the present pattern of transport prices for alternative distances and alternative commodities is far from reflecting truly the real cost relationships. It is understandable, therefore, that the Treaty constituting the High Authority for coal and steel lays so much stress on

the abolition of transport discrimination within the community.'

'The third, and perhaps the most important, advantage to be gained from a coordination of transport is in the field of investment policies. It has been mentioned that there is often a tendency to over-invest in transport. If the planning of transport investment is made on the basis of international forecasts of the demand for transport services, the risk of serious waste of investment resources could probably be reduced. That very large interests are involved is clear from the fact that transport accounts in many countries for fifteen to twenty per cent or more of total investments. The lack of coordination in decisions concerning investments in the most important sea and air ports in Europe is only one illustration of the need for international cooperation.'

The development of road and rail transport in Sweden

THE TWO DIAGRAMS reproduced on page 72 are taken from a recently-published monograph on the Swedish inland transport industry, entitled *Svenskt Transportväsende*, by Carl Wilhelm Petri. As a background to them, we give a short summary of the position obtaining in the industry in 1950, the last year covered by Mr. Petri's book.

In that year, the total volume of goods conveyed amounted to about fifteen billion ton-kilometres. Fifty-seven per cent of this figure was accounted for by the railways and seventeen per cent by motor vehicles. On the waterways, thirteen per cent was carried by domestic shipping, five per cent was accounted for by timber towing, and eight per cent by timber floating. However, if the length of hauls – which varies considerably as between individual sectors of the industry – is left out of the picture, distribution of the 230 million tons of goods carried was as follows: lorries seventy-two per cent, railways eighteen per cent, shipping two per cent, with timber towing and floating each accounting for about four per cent.

During the period 1930–50, the development of freight traffic showed a remarkably close conformity with the volume of industrial production. The share

of the railways in the total freight hauled, in ton-kilometres, was approximately the same in 1950 as in 1930 (about sixty-three per cent), that of road haulage was almost tripled, whilst that of domestic shipping decreased from about thirty per cent to eighteen per cent.

At present, the total volume of goods transported is expected to rise at approximately the same pace as mining and engineering output. Future demand for transportation services, however, may increase at a somewhat faster rate due to changes in the location of economic activity.

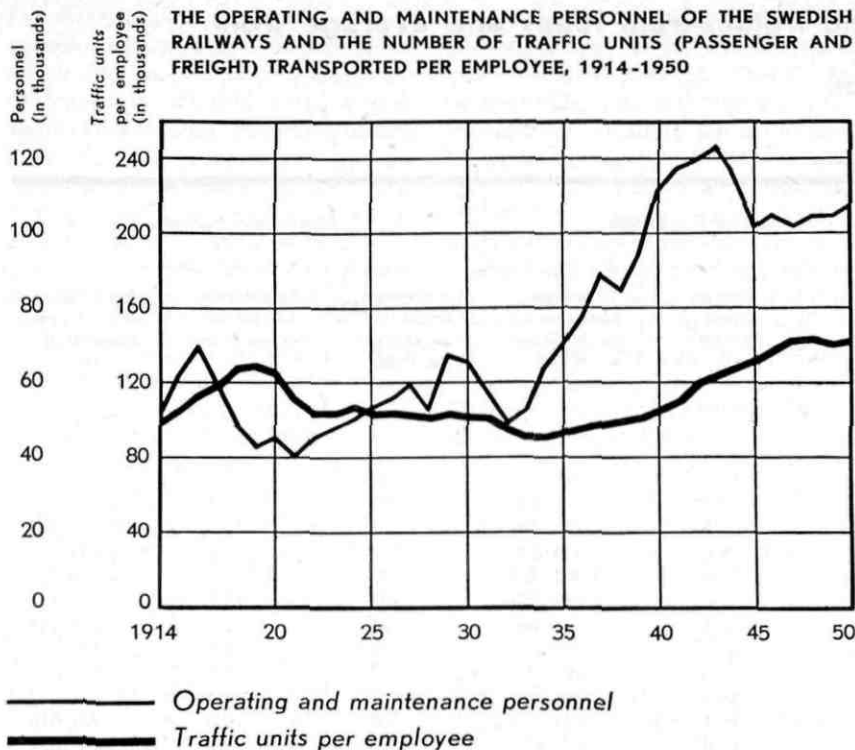
In 1950, labour input in transportation was about 248,000 man-years. This figure, which covers direct operations and also the maintenance and repair of all types of vehicles and roadways, represents about 8.3 per cent of the total input of labour in Sweden. Of the total man-years used in transportation, about twenty-nine per cent were accounted for on the railways, and sixty-two per cent by motor vehicle traffic. The remaining branches of transport were of less importance: waterways, 3.5 per cent; timber floating, 2.7 per cent; trams, three per cent; and aviation, 0.2 per cent. For accompanying diagrams please turn to page 72.

*) This pragmatic approach, which does not, however, lose sight of the general problems of coordination, is characteristic of the activities of the Inland Transport Committee of the ECE. In a number of resolutions, the Committee has laid down the main factors which a general transport policy must take into account. In accordance with these general principles, it has attempted to solve the main day-to-day problems which arise in the field of transport. These include, to give only a few examples, such varied questions as determination of transport costs, organization of international motor-coach services, establishing of international tariffs, definition of carrier's liability, coordination of investments, safety of road transport, etc.

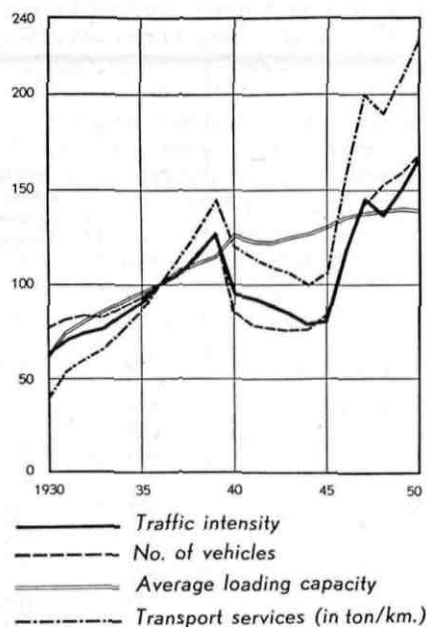
Average passenger-train and freight-train loads and average train and traffic density in Europe

Country	Year	Passenger trains and traffic			Freight trains and traffic		
		Average number of passengers per train	Average number of passenger-train-km. per day, per km. of line	Passenger-kilometres per annum per km. of line	Average net freight-train load (ton-km. per freight train-km.)	Freight-train-km. per day per km. of line	Net ton-km. per annum per kilometre of line
Austria	1938	69 ^a	16.0 ^a	403 112 ^a	208 ^a	9.1 ^a	708 733 ^a
	1950	124	15.7	709 406	273	10.4	1 038 543
	1951	129	16.4	772 939	305	10.0	1 116 827
Belgium	1938	96	35.6	1 251 377	248	12.4	1 124 195
	1950	138	27.8	1 401 022	280	10.7	1 100 714
	1951	138	28.6	1 442 160	299	12.2	1 332 954
Denmark	1938	63	26.4	611 846	92	7.1	229 402
	1950	119	27.1	1 180 105	138	8.5	427 861
	1951	112	27.6	1 127 867	153	9.1	505 548
France	1938	77	18.3	516 248	176	9.8	631 278
	1950	148	11.7	631 276	208	12.4	942 916
	1951	154	12.0	672 910	236	12.7	1 095 609
Germany (Western Zones).	1938	95 ^b	26.5 ^b	956 205 ^b	269 ^{bc}	14.4 ^b	1 355 604 ^b
	1950	109	25.3	1 608 042	296 ^c	14.7	1 589 916
	1951	97	27.6	979 241	312	15.8	1 800 634
Italy	1938	94	20.6	709 513	194	9.6	688 468
	1950	166	21.4	1 294 405	234	8.2	700 452
	1951	159	22.9	1 334 901	227	8.9	736 281
Luxembourg	1938
	1950	79	20.0	577 826	357	8.5	1 101 352
	1951	79	20.2	591 387	398	10.3	1 492 204
Netherlands	1938	72	36.0	939 834	180	9.4	615 385
	1950	156	33.5	1 915 000	200	12.9	940 270
	1951	155	34.0	1 921 810	202	13.8	1 014 590
Norway	1938	58	10.6	222 226	94	3.4	121 297
	1950	81	12.0	354 763	139	4.9	247 067
	1951	77	12.3	346 883	143	5.0	258 735
Sweden	1938	48	13.4	195 118	184	4.6	311 542
	1950	71	15.9	411 959	234	6.2	528 396
	1951	..	15.9	..	255	6.6	617 585
Switzerland (Federal Railways)	1938	81	33.3	983 436	142	10.4	543 436
	1950	112	45.0	1 843 130	138	13.4	675 475
	1951	120	45.7	1 992 685	154	15.0	848 653
Switzerland (B.L.S.)	1951	57	34.9	728 731	140	9.0	458 118
Trieste	1938
	1950	133	18.9	916 810	236	10.5	965 811
	1951	131	20.0	959 421	240	11.0	968 442
Turkey	1938	136	3.0	152 993	142	2.6	151 097
	1950	207	4.5	340 190	248	3.8	342 061
	1951	201	4.7	345 879	257	4.0	370 837
United Kingdom	1938	71	40.6	1 056 756	130	17.9	851 948
	1950	83	34.2	1 036 285	159	19.8	1 155 102
	1951	89	33.4	1 081 161	164	20.2	1 209 923
Average of above countries.	1938	70	24.1	616 734	193	11.8	830 231
	1950	113	21.3	880 867	218	12.5	991 383
	1951	116	21.9	952 200	233	13.0	1 107 280

a 1937. b 1937 — all Germany.
c Including service traffic.



THE DEVELOPMENT OF SWEDISH FREIGHT TRANSPORT BY LORRY DURING THE PERIOD 1930-1950, COMPARED WITH THE NUMBER OF MOTOR VEHICLES, THE AVERAGE LOADING CAPACITY OF LORRIES, AND FREQUENCY OF USE



Don't fall asleep at the wheel

by Dr. W. Schweisheimer

WHY DOES THE MOTORIST FALL ASLEEP? Last year fifty-seven auto accidents happened on an excellent highway in the United States because the drivers fell asleep at the wheel.

These figures were proven by evidence. In most accidents of this type, however, no evidence can be given that the driver had fallen asleep if only for a few precious seconds. In particular this fact cannot be proven after a lonely driver has fallen asleep and had an accident that killed him.

It caused quite a sensation when, a few years ago, Mrs. Franklin D. Roosevelt, the widow of the President, 'dozed off' at the wheel for just a moment and had a bad three-car accident near Yonkers, N.Y. Her car immediately crossed the white line of the parkway and hit another car. A third car was also involved in the accident. Fortunately nobody was killed.

Many motorists are not aware of their falling asleep

Mrs. Roosevelt had the courage of frankness when she admitted after the accident that she had 'dozed off' for a second at the wheel. Not all motorists have this courage — and many more, after an accident, don't even know that

they dozed off for a moment. Pedestrians too have caused accidents by their being numbed by fatigue. People can fall asleep while walking.

By means of extensive statistics, the American Automobile Association (AAA) has shown that, of the traffic accidents in which the operator fell asleep, more than twelve per cent were fatal,

while in the total of all other traffic accidents only four per cent were fatal.

Many motorists have experienced, or nearly experienced, a similar situation. They have become so tired at the wheel that they could hardly keep their eyes open. It is one of the most painful sensations — to be overtired and not to be allowed to fall asleep. In such a state of fatigue great energy and will power are needed. The right thing to do is to stop and take a short nap.

I remember a night drive along the South rim of the Alps from the area near Toulon down the French and the Italian Riviera to Forte dei Marmi, a little town near Spezia where for some reason I was expected early the following morning. The night was cool, but my natural fatigue after so many hours of driving was increased by the many glaring headlights of cars coming in the opposite direction. They contributed to my fatigue by constantly irritating the retina of the eye and other nervous parts of this organ.

Keeping the eyes open was a most painful sensation during the second half of the night. Shortly before six o'clock in the morning I had to stop the car and take a short nap in a meadow high above

Spezia in order to avoid dozing off completely at the wheel.

After twenty minutes sleep everything was all right. Even a short but profound sleep is most helpful in such cases. I felt as fresh and efficient as if I had slept through the whole night.

But this short interruption, this break in the monotonous driving, and this half hour of sleep were absolutely vital to me. It was the only way to prevent me from falling asleep at the wheel and to avoid a bad accident.

Poisons produce fatigue

There is a medical theory that poisonous substances form in the body during the day, producing fatigue. Those poisons, fatigue toxins, make one drowsy and sleepy. They have a paralyzing effect such as narcotic drugs have. All muscle movements are slowed down, all intellectual powers decrease. The fatigue-poisoned motorist moves just like an intoxicated person.

A drunken driver has alcohol circulating in his blood which narcotizes the brain. Fatigue poisons, which also reach the brain by way of the blood, seem to produce a similar effect. These poisons are absorbed and eliminated during a period of sleep.

If you are tired, but are compelled to keep your eyes open, you may see things double. Under ordinary conditions, both eyes are concerned in the act of vision and are involuntarily adjusted, so that only a single image is seen. This may change when eyes and brain are over-fatigued, and two images are then perceived instead of one - a certain sign of exhaustion.

A dead-tired driver loses all judgment of distance, speed and, sound. His reactions are slowed down. He cannot judge an approaching danger with the split-second presence of mind which is needed for normal driving.

Falling asleep for a single second means nothing to a tired motorist in terms of recuperation. Nevertheless, assuming his car to be travelling at fifty miles an hour, it will have covered no less than seventy-three feet in that single second. What that means for both car and driver who have crossed the white line in that single second while he lost his power over the car, need not be explained to the driver while he is awake!

Rest periods are needed

The big truck-concerns in the United

Wage increases in US trucking industry

ACCORDING TO FIGURES recently published by the American Trucking Associations Inc., the average increase in the hourly wage of US road transport employees as the result of contracts negotiated in the third quarter of 1952 was 12.3 cents. This is 4 cents higher than the average increase for all industries in the same period. The corresponding increase for the second quarter was 12.6 cents, while an average of 10.7 cents was recorded for the first quarter of last year.

These figures are based on a study of the agreements negotiated during the first three quarters of the year 1952 numbering seventy-five, fifty-six and fifty-six respectively. Of the latter, fifty-three provided for wage increases. Escalator clauses were contained in six of

States which operate from coast to coast by day and by night, see to it that their drivers are not fatigued. They know that more accidents in commercial cars are caused by fatigue than by high speed. The truck-concerns insist that their drivers have a rest period of at least eight hours on the road, that they sleep by night. They therefore check the schedules of their drivers to ensure that they get sufficient sleep.

That peculiar condition of mind resulting from driving along a super-highway or turnpike, where everything goes smoothly, too smoothly, and no stops, road signs, or advertising billboards catch the driver's attention is known as 'highway-hypnosis'. The driver suddenly finds himself drowsing at the wheel. He does not get sleepy on the normal road where constant demands are made on his attention.

The American National Safety Council has stated that the number of known driver-asleep accidents is somewhere between one and two per cent of all motor vehicle accidents. There is every reason to believe, the Council points out, that the actual number is at least three times and possibly five or six times as great, even without including the accidents due to fatigue which does not extend to the point of sleep.

In these sleep-accidents there is no slackening of speed at the last moment, no desperate use of the brakes, no swerv-

ing the contracts, most of them allowing for a half-yearly increase of one cent for each one point rise in the Consumer's Price Index.

Changes in fringe benefits maintained a high level during this quarter, new or improved health, welfare and insurance clauses being written into eighteen of the fifty-six agreements. State-wide or near State-wide consolidation of agreements covering local personnel was achieved in three States. Most of these provide for elimination of inter-city differentials. The settlements arrived at in the third quarter of 1952 in the majority of cases continued a trend observable in the preceding quarter, being valid for one year. Nine, however, cover a period of two years, while six will remain in force for three years.

ing to minimize the collision; the driver cannot brace himself for the shock. The car of the sleeping driver goes on and on, unchecked. It hits another car, or a tree, or a wall, with undiminished speed.

How to avoid falling asleep

To avoid the dangers resulting from drowsiness the AAA recommends: keeping the car well ventilated; engaging in light conversation, especially near the end of the trip; pulling the car off the road when drowsy and taking a nap. Another suggestion made by the AAA is less clear: to park the vehicle and rest the eyes, massaging them by pressing the index finger gently over the eyelids.

Such procedure may well take the feeling of fatigue off the eyes, but it will return immediately driving is resumed. When you are so tired as to feel your falling asleep at the wheel is imminent, there is only one thing to do: stop the vehicle and take a short nap.

Fifty per cent of all auto accidents can be avoided if temporary physical defects of the driver are relieved. A cup or two of strong coffee or tea, or stimulating drugs such as benzedrine will keep you awake for a limited time. But their effect lasts only for a short time. When you are obliged to press on although feeling tired and exhausted, there is no other way out, no other safe way, that is, but to take a short nap at a safe place along the road.

ECE formulates physical and mental standards for drivers

IN CONNECTION WITH THE STUDY of possible measures to reduce the annually increasing number of road accidents in Europe, the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (ECE) recently brought together medical practitioners and administrative experts with a view to formulating physiological and mental standards which could be applied to motor vehicle drivers.

A Committee of Experts has already met at United Nations Headquarters in New York to examine various questions of wide interest relating to the issue of driving licences. However, this is the first time that special standards for European drivers have been considered on a purely regional basis.

At the meeting, held in Geneva, it was decided to confine the discussions to medical questions and to refer administrative matters to the ECE's Working Party on the Prevention of Road Traffic Accidents.

Visual acuity of drivers

The Study group, which is known as the Sub-Group on Physiological and Mental Standards for Drivers, has laid down different minimum standards of visual acuity for the drivers of the various categories.

In the case of Category D vehicles (motor coaches and buses), drivers should possess a visual acuity, both eyes together with glasses if necessary, of at least sixteen to seventeen tenths. Their visual field should be adjudged normal by a medical practitioner. The Sub-Group, however, considered that a colour vision test was not necessary for the time being.

It further recommended that drivers' eyes be tested at least once every three years up to the age of sixty, and more frequently thereafter. In the case of accidents involving physical injury, efforts should be made by the competent authorities to compile statistics about the physical attributes or deficiencies of the drivers involved.

As regards Category C vehicles (motor lorries), drivers should have a visual acuity of at least 0.7 for the better eye with glasses. The Sub-Group considered that a driver who has lost the sight of one eye through an accident should not

have his licence renewed until after a one-year period of adaptation. He should wear glasses to protect his remaining eye.

Lorry drivers should have the same visual field as drivers of motor coaches and buses and be subject to the same periodical examination.

Medical standards for drivers

Drivers of both Category C and Category D vehicles should also be subject to compulsory medical examination on first application for a driving licence, such examination to be repeated every three years, and more frequently after the age of sixty.

The Sub-Group also decided to recommend that a thorough medical examination be compulsory where there is a marked diminution of auditive acuity and *a fortiori* deafness, and that such infirmity might, according to the cause discovered, constitute a reason for refusing a driving licence. It further considered that hearing aids should not be permitted for drivers of vehicles in Categories C and D, and recommended that driving licences be refused in all categories where there was active disease of the labyrinth, i.e. disease involving a disturbance of the sense of balance.

The Sub-Group took the view that medical examination of drivers involved in a serious accident should be more frequent. It discussed certain specific disabilities which might constitute a valid reason for refusing a driving licence. It was of the opinion that recent idiopathic epilepsy should constitute a bar to driving all vehicles, as should also a permanently slow pulse, i.e. less than 36-40 beats per minute, with consequent danger of loss of consciousness.

It considered that a licence should be refused on evidence of chronic alcoholism or drug addiction, and that the at-

tention of responsible national authorities should be drawn to the importance as a cause of road accidents of taking even small quantities of alcohol. Education and propaganda on the subject was recommended.

Other decisions

The Sub-Group asked the ECE Secretariat to request governments to send it, prior to 1 July 1953, documentation on the stipulations contained in their countries' regulations in regard to the medical examination of motor drivers.

Finally, the Sub-Group invited its Chairman and the representative of France to act as rapporteurs on this subject and to prepare a summary of the various countries' requirements with a view to drawing up a list of physical disabilities constituting a bar to the issue of a driving licence. The Sub-Group considered that such a study undertaken on a European level might well serve as a model for a similar study on a world level.

US rail improvements cost more than atomic research

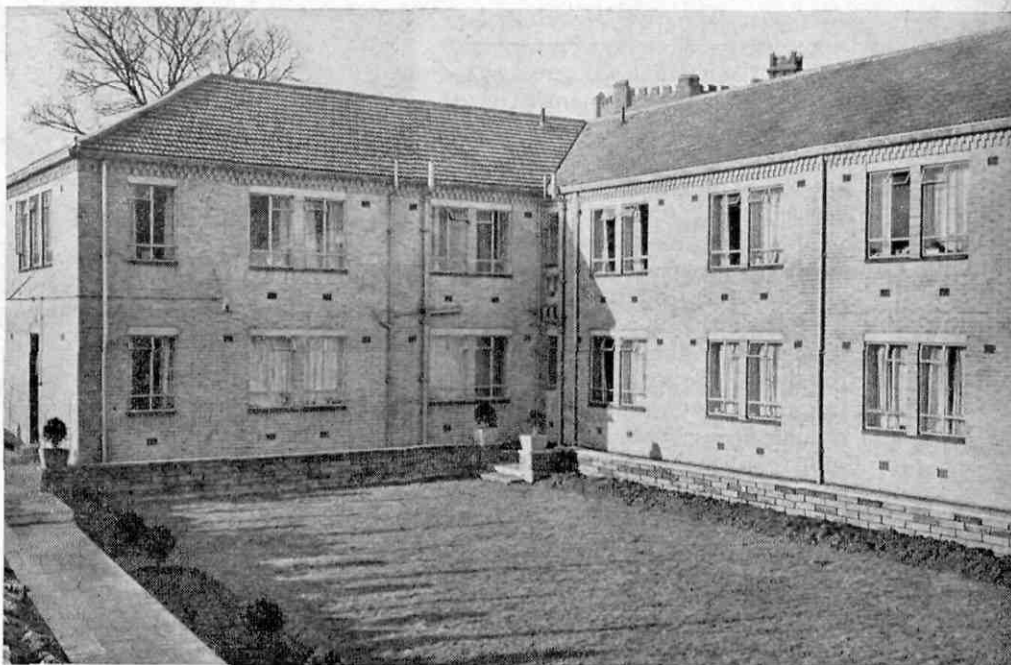
IN A RECENT SPEECH, David I. Mackie, chairman of the Eastern Railroad Presidents' Conference stated that since the war and up to the end of 1952 United States railways had paid almost \$7.8 billion for new equipment, roadway and structures, and for 'new facilities to increase their efficiency'. That was a total of \$300 million more than the full amount spent and programmed for expenditure on atomic research by the United States Government by the end of 1953.

'To continue the analogy', said Mr. Mackie, 'the railroad expenditure of over \$1 billion annually for improvement alone is about equal to the yearly bill for new atomic plant construction. And new atomic plant construction presently accounts for almost five per cent of all construction in this country'.

Among the results of the railroad modernization programme which could be seen at a typical railroad yard were automatic car retarders and switching devices, walkie-talkie communication systems, remote control from a central tower, in-the-cab signals, automatic speed and stopping controls, and ultra high frequency radio communication. The result was shown by a comparison

(continued on page 80)

Welfare on the British railways



A corner of the new British Railways Staff Hostel in Southall, Middlesex

FOLLOWING NATIONALIZATION, as part of the initial stage in the general review of staff welfare arrangements, discussions took place between representatives of the British Railway Executive and the Railway Trade Unions. As a result a Joint Advisory Council for Welfare was established, composed of representatives of the Railway Executive and the Unions with a view to the promotion and encouragement of measures affecting the safety, health and welfare of railway staff and for the purpose of making recommendations to the Railway Executive.

First tasks

The Welfare Council appointed Sub-Committees to consider specific matters referred to them and to examine and make recommendations as necessary on

matters brought to their notice by the Trade Unions. The Welfare Council meets at quarterly intervals whilst the Sub-Committees meet as required.

One of the first tasks of the Council, which is assisted by technical advisers, was to draw up Standards of Accommodation. These Standards, approved by the Railway Executive and the British Transport Commission, have been issued to the Regions for guidance in the preparation of staff amenity schemes.

The Council keeps under constant review the general welfare of all grades of staff, including such matters as amenities in workshops, offices, canteens, messrooms and hostels, hygienic facilities, the welfare of women and junior staff, social and recreational facilities, accident prevention and first aid. The Council also considers specific proposals from the Regions and makes recommendations to the Executive as to the order of priority in which they should be carried out.

Improved amenities

Priority lists of major welfare schemes have been kept under close review. Within the last two years more than £2,500,000 has been authorized for the provision of improved staff amenities including lavatories, messrooms, drinking water supplies, lockers, cloak-rooms, cycle storage, clothes drying facilities, rest rooms and first aid accommodation, canteens and snack bars, office accommodation, lengthmen's huts, heating and ventilation of accommodation occupied by staff, lighting (interior and exterior) and hostel accommodation.

A review of staff catering services was undertaken by the Welfare Council with the object of placing the services on the most satisfactory basis and of assisting committees of staff in the management of the canteens. The Railway Executive approved recommendations by the Council including the introduction of standard conditions and rules and a standard system of accountancy and recording. Arrangements have been made for the committees to receive assistance and guidance in the application of the standard procedure and in the operation of canteen services generally.

Staff Association formed

Following discussions by the Welfare Council, the formation of a British Rail-



Sun lounge at the Banbury Staff Hostel

way Staff Association was agreed by the Railway Executive and approved by the Transport Commission. The Association, which was inaugurated on 1 January 1952, is open to all staff, their wives, dependent children, retired staff and widows of former staff. Generous provision is now made for the organization of all forms of recreational and social activities to enable all grades to meet and spend their leisure hours in congenial conditions. The Association's rules are framed so that the members assume the maximum responsibility in management. Existing staff clubs are encouraged to ally themselves with the Staff Association and the facilities are available, when practicable, to staffs employed by other Executives of the British Transport Commission.

Regional welfare coordinated

Having established machinery for the general direction of welfare the Railway Executive have given consideration to the arrangements regarded as appropriate for the coordination of welfare in the Regions. These include for male



staff the appointment of a Regional Welfare Officer and an Assistant, where necessary, and of Area Welfare Officers as may be required. In fixing the Areas to be covered by the Area Welfare Officers regard is given to the number of staff employed, the line mileage to be covered and the number of stations, depots, hostels, canteens and other important features. Matters relating to the welfare of women staff are dealt with by women welfare supervisors.

The foregoing brief review of the responsibilities of the Joint Advisory Council for Welfare indicates the complexity and far-reaching character of the task undertaken. Whilst much has been done and much is being done, much more remains to be done. Up to the present it has only been possible to deal with the most pressing cases but when men, money, and materials become more freely available, the effort to provide staff welfare amenities can be intensified.

Life on a fishing trawler (3)

by David S. Blanchard of the International Labour Office

The return journey

After this decision had been taken, the crew were in higher spirits and accepted the misfortunes of the voyage philosophically. The first two days' fishing had been quite productive, and their previous trip had been satisfactory. After fishing for nine days the catch had been sold for a total of 55,000 francs. Of this gross return, the skipper received seven per cent (4,065 francs), the engineer six per cent (3,480 francs), the mate 5½ per cent (3,190 francs) and the two deckhands five per cent each (2,900 francs), or a total of 16,535 francs.

Conditions of employment

There are no collective agreements for the crews of vessels of the size of the *Lilliane*, or for any of the crews of fishing

vessels in Ostend except the men employed on the few large trawlers that fish the waters near Iceland and remain at sea for eighteen days or longer. These receive a minimum monthly wage plus a small share of the proceeds of the catch. All other fishermen receive only a share of the gross proceeds, as laid down in the ship's articles, which varies in percentage amount from boat to boat. In most cases the skipper alone is engaged directly by the owner, and he is given a fairly free hand in selecting the members of his crew. When signing on for the first time with a vessel, the men must go to the Office of the Maritime Commissariat with the skipper (who is accompanied by the owner) and present medical and birth certificates. As the skipper and crew usually remain on the same vessel for several months or even

for years, the signing-on procedure is not repeated for each trip but only when a change takes place in the composition of the crew.

From the gross shares paid to the crew, income tax of about 10½ per cent is deducted at source, and any necessary adjustments are made after individual returns have been filed at the end of the year. These figures are further reduced by the payments amounting to sixteen francs a day for social security contributions, and by the trade union dues of fifteen francs a week which include the unemployment insurance contribution. The cost of food stores purchased for common use usually amounts to between 200 and 300 francs per man for a trip of nine days' duration, to which must be added the cost of extra food brought on board by each man. As the

crew furnish their own bedding, eating utensils and waterproof clothing, a portion of the purchase or replacement cost of these items corresponding to the period of the trip should also be included.

The members of the crew of the *Liliane* did not agree whether in the long run they would be better off if, instead of being paid solely by a percentage of the sale of the catch, they were paid a minimum monthly wage plus a share in the catch. Some of them felt that, if such a system of remuneration were applied to crews of medium-size boats, there would probably be a reduction in the percentage share for the crew and this would mean a loss of net income. Others did not think that the introduction of this type of payment system would necessarily mean a reduction in the shares at present enjoyed and considered that, even if there were a small reduction, the advantages of having a basic minimum wage would be sufficient to outweigh the possible loss of uncertain income.

The earning of a living wage under the present share system is entirely dependent on the knowledge and good fortune of the skipper and on the weather. Although these fishermen are no longer superstitious and are fully aware of the value of modern equipment (such as the depth sounder and radio) in aiding them to bring in more profitable catches and to avoid accidents, they are quite sure that the question of luck is the most important single factor determining the quantity and quality of the fish caught. Julien, one of the deckhands on the *Liliane*, possesses a skipper's certificate and has on two occasions commanded a vessel; but he has, for the time being at least, given it up because he receives higher pay by working for a 5 percent share on the *Liliane* (where the skipper is considered lucky) than he received by working for 6 or 7 percent as a skipper.

All of the crew agreed that the greatest advantage to them of a system involving payment of a basic minimum wage would be that they would draw at least some money, even though only a small amount, on the one or two days spent in port between trips or in winter when the boat cannot go to sea. Under the present system, the fishermen receive no compensation for the days

spent in port and, as these are a complete loss of time from the point of view of earnings, the men often return to sea before they have rested from the previous trip. The *Liliane* usually remains in port only one day after a trip of six days, and only two days after a trip of nine days or longer. No unemployment benefit is payable for a period of less than three days.

The owner's share

It is clear that, if the crew of the *Liliane* are paid a total of 28.5 per cent of the proceeds from the sale of the catch, the owner receives the remaining 71.5 per cent or 38,465 francs. But the expenses incurred by him are more difficult to calculate than are those of the crew. The following information on this question was furnished by the skipper, and may not be entirely complete. During a nine-day trip, the *Liliane* consumes $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 tons of fuel oil. Taking the larger amount, this item would amount, at 2.50 francs a litre, to 7,500 francs. The lubricating oil used during the trip costs about 300 francs. The portion of the average annual expenses for the repair and replacement of nets and gear corresponding to this trip amounts to approximately 3,000 francs. The social security contributions paid by the owner on behalf of the five members of the crew come to 1,440 francs. For a trip of nine days, six tons of shaved ice are consumed, costing 600 francs.

The amount to be set aside to cover the depreciation and replacement costs of the vessel can only be estimated. A

boat of the size of the *Liliane* costs approximately four million francs, and is normally expected to have a useful life of from twenty to twenty-five years. Taking the less optimistic figure, about 200,000 francs per year – or 5,555 francs for the period under consideration – must be set aside for replacement. The quarterly scraping and painting of the hull costs 2,000 francs and, on the basis of last year's experience, 136,000 francs is paid for the annual overhaul. Proportionately, for the period under review, these charges together would amount to about 4,000 francs. No information was available concerning insurance charges.

The total of all expenses, both known and estimated, came to 22,395 francs, leaving a profit of about 16,000 francs for the period of nine days' fishing, less insurance charges, taxes, and any other payments which may not have been included above. Although the profits realized vary widely between trips, depending on the season, weather, size of the catch and volume of demand, it can be seen that this trip was about average when compared with the total gross proceeds of the *Liliane* for the year 1951 of over 1,500,000 francs.

The last trawl was brought in at 6 p.m. on the sixth day. After the fish had been cleaned and iced, it was estimated that the total catch for the trip amounted to approximately seventy baskets (fifty kilograms per basket) of dogfish, turbot, skate, shark, etc., and 450 kilograms of sole. This was considered only slightly less than an average catch for a trip of six days and, in view of the long series



The catch of a large trawler which has just returned to Ostend after a three-weeks trip to Icelandic waters. These are cod



A view of the shrimp fleet at Ostend. These are smaller vessels and generally remain at sea for one day only

Light ray to lure fish

NORWEGIAN FISHERMEN are reported to have placed large orders for a light-ray fishing sinker made and patented by a Norwegian firm. Fish are known to be attracted by light, and the new combined sinker-and-lure represents the first attempt to exploit this attraction for commercial fishing. The device is in the form of a hollow brass sinker, with a small chamber for a dry battery and bulb. There are two apertures through which the light is beamed for a distance of several yards. It can function at a depth of up to about 400 feet. It was first tested in the Lofoten fisheries last spring, with very encouraging results.

West German fishing vessels in be laid up

ON 27 MARCH, it was announced that approximately a quarter of West Germany's fishing fleet will be withdrawn from service from 11 April until 22 July for market reasons.

Officials of West German fishing companies announced that the companies had agreed on the move in view of the large supply of fresh fish and the expected seasonal decline in demand.

The West German fishing fleet at present totals 96,000 tons.

International air navigation meeting

TECHNICIANS representing twenty-five nations and four international organizations attending an air navigation conference of the International Civil Aviation Organization at Montreal spent four weeks in March examining air navigation problems in the fields of air traffic control, aircraft operation, meteorology, bad weather landing aids, and aerial communications.

Topics studied at the conference, described by its Chairman as 'a new type of technical forum designed to knock away the partitions between some of the pigeon-holes of aviation techniques', included in-flight reporting, aids for approach and landing, and the use of radar for air traffic control.

Aircraft in flight make periodic weather observations and pass them on by radio to the ground meteorological office for use in forecasting. In the opinion of the ICAO, a simplification of the methods used for this in-flight reporting was necessary owing to the increasing use of radio telephony in air-ground communication and the necessity for the aircrew to devote its full time and attention to its primary flying duties. The

conference consequently devised a new procedure enabling the pilot to transmit in plain language, thus avoiding the use of complex coding processes.

On the problem of landing aircraft with an acceptable degree of regularity under conditions of poor visibility, the conference made certain recommendations to improve the instrument landing system. It also made provision for a better coordination of the radio, radar, and visual aids which are used to enable a pilot to land safely in bad weather.

With regard to the use of radar in air traffic control, which is still in the experimental stage, the conference defined equipment requirements and discussed the technical aspects of different types of radar systems. The purpose in using radar is to secure greater flexibility in directing the movements of aircraft, thereby reducing landing intervals and expediting take-offs.

Other actions of the conference included further development of the ICAO Instrument-Approach-to-Land procedures, agreement on a standard holding pattern for aircraft waiting to land, and the study of visibility at airports.

(concluded)

Governmental activity and the American seaman

by E. P. Hohman

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The article which follows is the second of two chapters from Professor Hohman's survey 'Merchant Seamen in the United States, 1937-52', which originally appeared in the January number of the International Labour Review. The first of these, entitled 'The Taft-Hartley Act and Union Hiring-Halls', was published in our March issue.
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IT IS READILY UNDERSTANDABLE that United States seamen are raising their voices more and more frequently in connection with governmental programmes or policies which may exert an influence upon the amount, duration or conditions of employment. During the post-war period there has been no dearth of such programmes and policies, and seamen have not hesitated, through their organizations, to express their opinions and to emphasize their wishes and criticisms.

Both the merchant marine in general and its labour aspects in particular have long been subject, for many reasons, to unusually close contacts with many government agencies; and this still remains true in spite of much recent re-organizing activity. Within the past three years the United States Maritime Commission has been replaced by the United States Maritime Administration which is domiciled in the Department of Commerce, as are the related Federal Maritime Board and the National Shipping Authority. The Military Sea Transportation Service, on the other hand, operates under the aegis of the Navy, while the Coast Guard service is responsible for all matters pertaining to the examination, inspection and discipline of seafarers.

In the face of this by no means complete array of government bureaux, the seamen's unions express serious misgivings in some respects, as well as open criticism and definite approval in others. They are convinced of the extreme importance of maintaining their civilian and independent status, preferably in a privately-operated merchant marine; and hence they are critical of the operating activities of the National Shipping Authority, whose crews might be classified as government employees, placed under civil-service rules and limited in their right to strike or to exercise other

trade union functions. This same feeling applies even more strongly to the Military Sea Transportation Service, where the factor of military status presents further complications, either in terms of its possible extension to civilian crew members or of the displacement of such merchant seaman by naval ratings. There is objection to both agencies, too, on the count that they take cargoes away from private operators, and thus reduce employment opportunities under conditions where there is no threat to civilian status or to bargaining rights.

The reply of the two agencies is to the effect that their primary function is to supplement the operations of private shipowners, rather than to displace them or to compete against them. This they do partly by taking ships out of the 'moth-ball fleet' of laid-up government wartime vessels and operating them in order to meet emergency or peak-load needs, such as those created by Korean hostilities or other contingencies, and partly by other measures. But seamen still find this reply to be unsatisfactory, for they point out that these emergency sailings may well start so soon, or continue so long, or become so large, that they cease to be 'supplementary' and become directly competitive. This is particularly true, it is urged, with regard to American tramp shipping, which has recently appeared again after many years of virtual annihilation and is anticipating a number of difficulties in maintaining itself.

Another demand which has been voiced repeatedly by practically all maritime unions is for the return of the Bureau of Marine Inspection and Navigation from the Coast Guard to some civilian arm of the Government. It is felt that the functions of this Bureau (including inspection, examination, certification, manning, discipline and allied matters which have a direct impact upon

merchant seamen) are concerned with civilian regulations applicable to civilian crews, and should be carried out by a civilian agency, as they were for many decades before they were entrusted to the Coast Guard during the past war.

The most vehement criticism of all, however, is directed against the practice of ship transfers from the flag of one country to that of another with lower standards. To the seamen of a nation with relatively high maritime labour standards, such as the United States, this practice presents the double threat of depriving them of jobs and of endangering their own standards through the potential competitive undercutting pressures of the lower ones. Well aware of this double danger, American seamen have played an active part in the extended negotiations for the boycott of Panamanian-flag vessels (by far the most important offenders in this respect) by the International Transport Workers' Federation.

Further, by extending aggressive assistance to the crews directly concerned, they have forced several low-standard, foreign-flag vessels in American ports to grant drastic improvements in wages and working conditions before these were able to continue their voyages. They are carrying on an extensive informational, educational and propaganda campaign for remedial action at the national or international level; and the most recent of those rare meetings attended by representatives of practically all American maritime unions was devoted largely to the discussion and unanimous passage of resolutions dealing with the Panamanian and Honduran flag transfer problems. It was generally felt that the artificially swollen tonnage of the Panamanian merchant marine represented a major threat to the employment prospects and general welfare of the American seaman.

On the other hand, from the seaman's standpoint, government influence has also had a number of beneficial results, through job-creating or job-sustaining activities in which the Government was either the initiator or an active participant. These include the increased

demands for shipping brought about by the Marshall Plan, the Point Four programme, NATO, European defence, the Korean campaign, and relief and rehabilitation shipments. When the ECA Administrator indicated a disposition to interpret the legislative 'fifty-fifty clause' in such a way that less than fifty per cent of ECA shipments might go in American bottoms, seamen joined with shipowners in a chorus of protests which resulted in the strict application of the rule requiring a full half of all ECA cargoes to move in United States vessels.

In other respects, too, seamen frequently joined with shipowners and government agencies in advocating measures to build up or maintain the American merchant marine. Within the recent past the favourite provisions of this type have included substantial subsidies, based upon the differentials between foreign and domestic construction and operating costs, and tax deferments, so designed as to encourage the building of newer and faster ships. Where tax deferments and subsidies do not offer sufficiently strong inducements, the Government may initiate and underwrite new construction directly, as in the case of the new twenty-knot, Mariner-type cargo carriers which are now beginning to appear. By and large, seamen's organizations are inclined to favour such industry-supporting measures in the expectation that they will serve to maintain employment at a considerably higher level than would otherwise be the case.

On the whole, nevertheless, the position of the merchant seaman in the American economy is an uncertain and fluctuating one. Basically his problem, like that of the merchant marine in which he works, is one of being unable to use the underlying production methods which characterize the dominant and pace-setting sectors of American industry. Mass-production techniques, an elaborate division of labour based upon the standardization and assembly of identical parts, volume production through the moving-belt system, the mechanization of endlessly repetitive processes — these are some of the major factors which account for the enormous productive capacity of the leading American industries, and which give rise to the happy combination of high wages, large profits and low unit-costs. But these are also, unfortunately,

Educational experiment on tanker popular with crew

THE CREW of the Norwegian tanker 'Høegh Eagle' have good reason to remember a young Norwegian student who recently went ashore in Oslo after four trips with them from the Persian Gulf to Europe. It should have been three, but the crew telegraphed for permission to keep him on board for one more voyage.

One of the reasons for the young student's popularity was his success in putting the men to work — which sounds a little crazy when one thinks of the sweltering heat on some parts of that run. However, it sounds less crazy if we go back to the beginning.

One day in July last the student, Fred Krogsrud, went aboard the 'Høegh Eagle'. He had been sent by the Norwegian Seamen's Welfare Office, and his mission was to promote educational, social and sports activities among the crew. How well he did that job can best be seen from the Welfare Office's report on the study groups, amusements and entertainments he organized whilst on board. Seven tutorial groups studying English, two studying French, and one Spanish were established. There were also classes in Norwegian, mathematics, and geography. That is the serious side.

the very factors which cannot be applied, beyond a limited extent, to the operation or even to the construction of ships. Vessels at sea are essentially individualistic, subject to countless unpredictable variables which show an amazing capacity for coming together in an endless variety of combinations. Volume production is obviously impossible, and standardization and repetitive performance, beyond relatively low levels, would be clearly dangerous. For better or worse, the merchant seaman remains basically a small-scale producer in an individualistic industry.

This is true of all merchant shipping, of course, regardless of nationality. But for a variety of reasons many other nations have been able to adjust their manpower and material resources to the needs of such an industry more easily than is the case in the United States. Consequently, the American merchant

For relaxation, quizzes, sketches, community singing, gramophone recitals and film shows were organized.

The owners of the vessel generously supplied a film projector. Three of the tanker's crew were trained to operate it, and the film shows were often attended by the crews of other vessels when the ship was in port. Another popular institution was the dancing school on deck, with the ship's electrician as instructor and a guitar-playing sailor providing the accompaniment. For those who preferred something a little more restful, chess and bridge tournaments were arranged.

An important part of Krogsrud's work was to organize sports, and the 'Høegh Eagle' now has two good football teams which, although newly formed, have already won matches against teams from other ships. During the long sea voyages the teams keep fit by attending gymnastics class twice a week.

The young student has now left the ship, his mission completed, but the activities he had started will go on, for among the crew he has selected men qualified to take charge of the various courses and entertainments and to run the film shows.

marine and the American merchant seamen are caught between the indirect and the direct competition of lower-cost foreign shipping. So far, at least, the only effective antidote to a resultant crippling decline of the industry and a dangerous drop in the number of seamen seems to be a generous use of subsidies. In any case, such grants from the public treasury would appear to be justified, for the near future at least, by military and international if not by purely economic considerations.

(continued from page 74)

of last year's work figures with those of 1922, when the railways handled 340 billion ton-miles of freight with 21/3 million cars. In 1952, on the other hand, they handled approximately 612 billion ton-miles with 600,000 fewer freight cars and a labour force seventeen per cent smaller than that of 1922.

INTERNATIONAL TRANSPORT WORKERS' FEDERATION

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

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.

Affiliated unions in

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