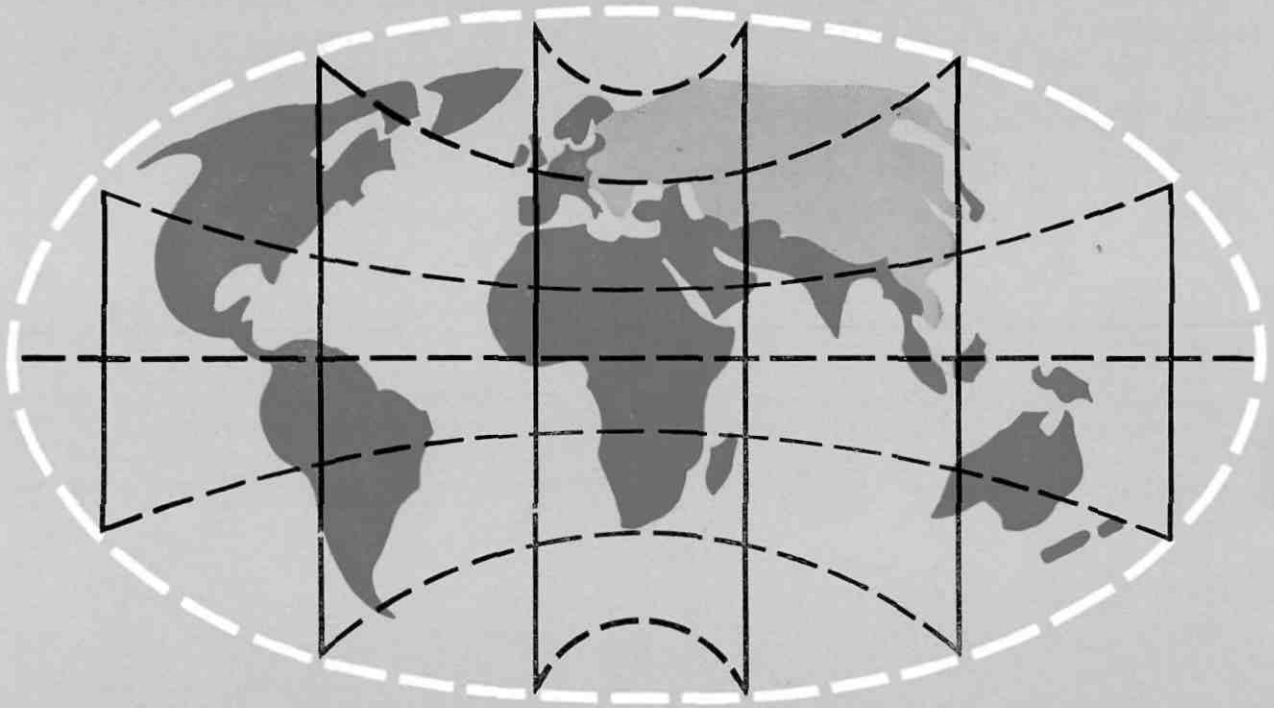


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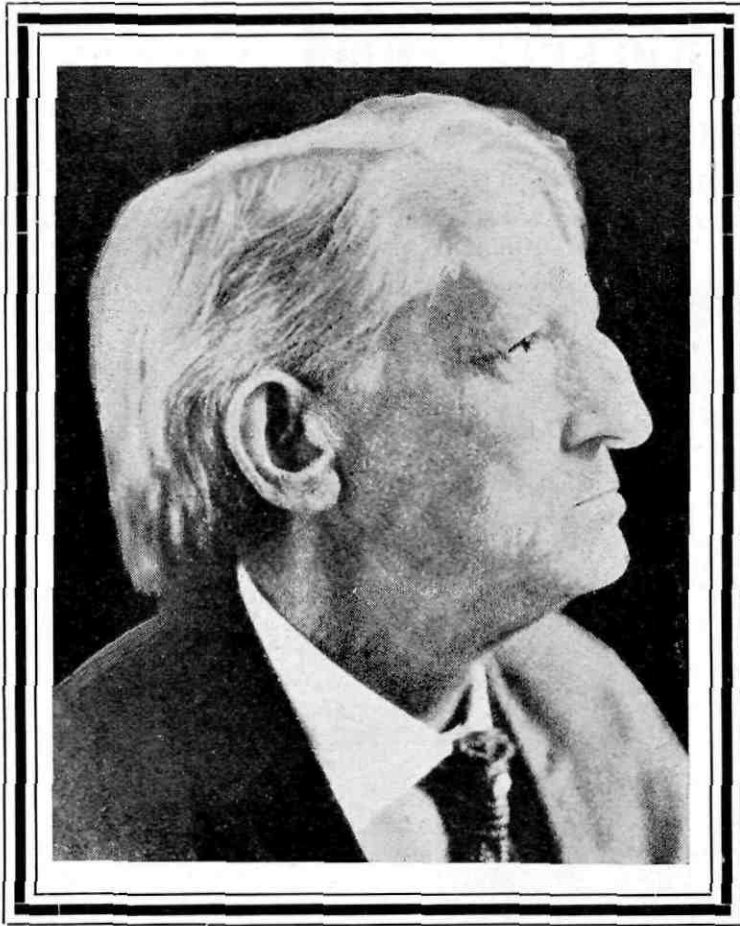
LATIN AMERICA Palacio de los Trabajadores, Habana, Cuba

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Forthcoming Meetings:

London 16-24 July Twenty-third Biennial Congress



Left: *Andrew Furuseth, legendary US seamen's representative, as he was in life. Below: The bronze memorial bust of Furuseth in front of Ferry Building, San Francisco. Memorial services are held here annually by the ITF-affiliated Sailors' Union of the Pacific.*

Andrew Furuseth - fighter for seamen's rights

MARCH 12 OF THIS YEAR marks the 100th anniversary of the birth of the man who played a leading role in the founding of the ITF-affiliated Sailors Union of the Pacific, and is credited with almost single-handedly leading the seamen of the world up from slavery – the late Andy Furuseth.

In his constant attempts to improve the lot of seamen, Andrew Furuseth was credited with being the outstanding layman authority on maritime law, and in his latter days was hailed in the halls of the Congress as 'The Abraham Lincoln of the Seas'.

Andrew Furuseth was born in Rome-dal, Norway on 12 March, 1854. He early went to sea and lived under the brutal conditions of slavery that then existed in the merchant marine fleets of all nations.

Shortly after the Coast Seamen's Union, the fore-runner of the Sailors Union of the Pacific, was started on a Folsom Street wharf in San Francisco March 6, 1885, the tall, lean and tough Norwegian joined, getting card number eleven.

He was elected Secretary-Treasurer in 1887, a position he held for forty-

eight years until, becoming ill, he was succeeded in 1935 by the present SUP Secretary-Treasurer, Harry Lundeberg.

He helped start the then Atlantic Coast Seamen's Union and was a leading figure in the amalgamation of the Coast Seamen's Union and another rival union, the Steamship Men's Protective Association, under the SUP banner.

His patience in the face of discouragement and near-disaster was noteworthy. He would shrug his age-bent shoulders and say, 'tomorrow is another day'.

But he could also be determined. During an injunction proceeding in an early strike, he used the now historic words frequently quoted in fo'c'sles around the world on quiet nights:

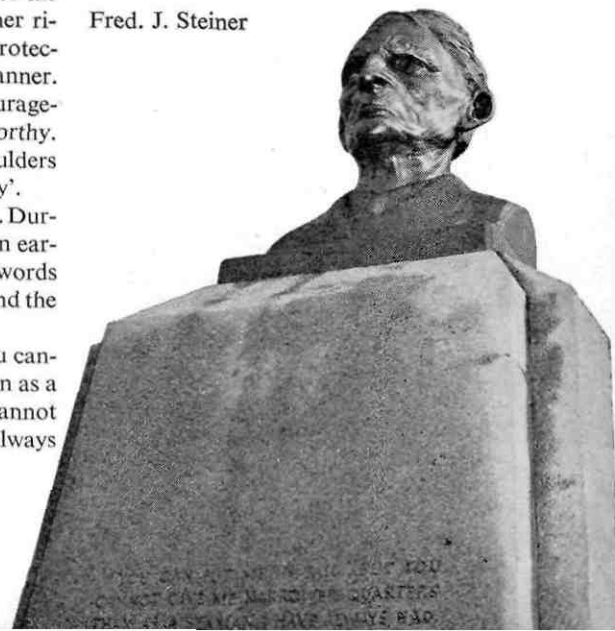
'You can put me in jail. But you cannot give me narrower quarters than as a seaman I have always had. You cannot give me coarser food than I have always

eaten. You cannot make me lonelier than I have always been.'

He was to change much of that in the decades which followed.

On January 22, 1938 he sailed 'outbound' forever in Washington, D.C. He never married. His ashes were scattered mid-way between the United States and England from the SS Schoharie at his request, 'as far from land as possible'.

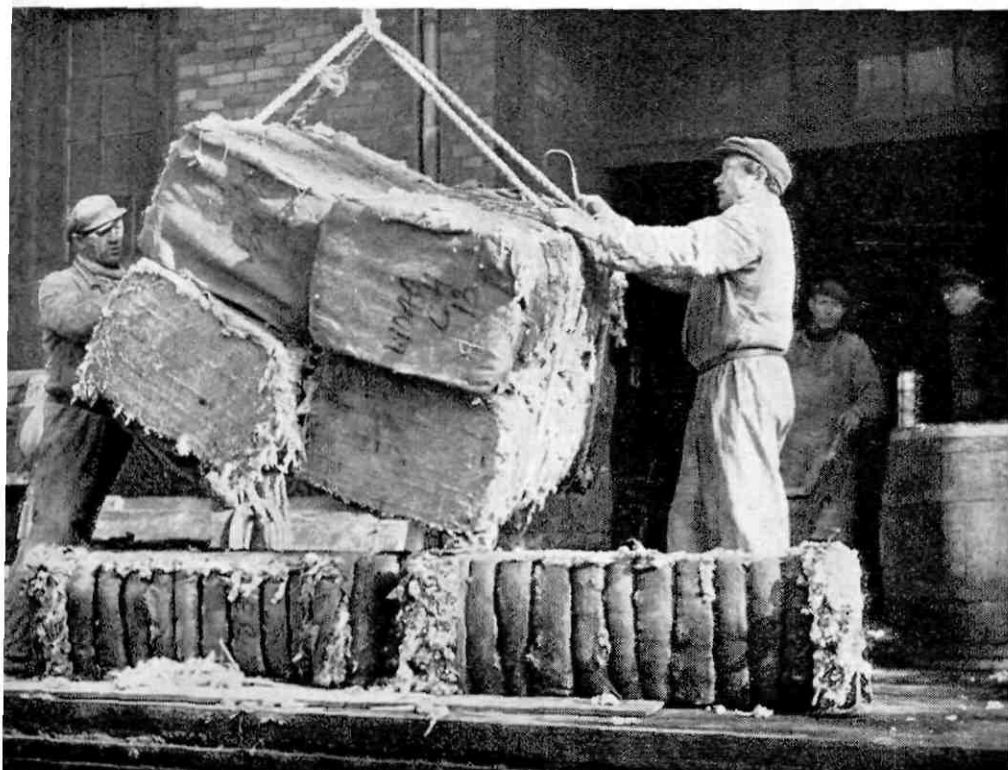
Fred. J. Steiner



The Danish General Workers' Union

The world's largest union of unskilled workers

by Chr. Larsen and Richard Børgersen



IT MAY PERHAPS SEEM A LITTLE STRANGE TO ASSERT, as has been done above, that the ITF-affiliated Danish General Workers' Union is the world's largest organization of unskilled workers, not least because it carries on its activities in one of the tiniest countries in the world. Nevertheless, it is perfectly true that this association of unskilled workers has no fewer than 250,000*) members organized in 1,300 branches all over Denmark. Some idea of how this came about is given below.

How it was founded

In Denmark, the 1880s and the early 1890s saw an upsurge of the working class, which, in the face of swiftly-advancing industrialization, began to look around for ways and means of asserting itself against the exploitation of the employers. In various parts of the country, the workers joined together in groups catering for individual trades. The unskilled workers organized themselves into so-called working men's unions and,

*) About one-sixteenth of Denmark's total population and slightly less than one-half of its organized workers.

until the middle of the 1890s, there existed a number of small organizations banded together in local or district groupings.

In the year 1897 all these working men's unions were amalgamated in a single national organization which was given the name Dansk Arbejdsmands Forbund or Danish General Workers' Union. The man who was responsible for bringing all unskilled Danish workers together for a common purpose was the outstanding labour agitator and orator Lyngsie who, in the years which followed, was to become known and honoured throughout both the Danish and

international trade union movements. He is perhaps best remembered by transport workers' unions abroad for the almost legendary manner in which he organized the despatch of food shipments from Copenhagen to the Finnish dockers during the latter's struggle for better living conditions.

The structure of the Union

Originally, the Danish General Workers' Union was so organized that the work of negotiating agreements and ironing out difficulties arising from their interpretation was carried on by the union's executive officers, led by Lyngsie (President), the union's treasurer and its Secretary. However, it gradually became clear that some measure of reorganization was necessary if the Association was to deal adequately with its members' interests, which, as was only natural, were both many and varied.

In 1925, therefore, Congress decided that the union should be divided into three groups, catering for factory, constructional, and transport workers. Each of these groups was given a corresponding secretary and two other executive officers, whose task it was to travel round the country and to place themselves at the disposal of local branches in whose area disputes concerning the interpretation of agreements had arisen.

Later, in 1934, an amalgamation took place between the union then catering for agricultural workers and our own union. As a result, Danish agricultural workers became members of the General Workers' Union, forming a new and separate group administered on the same lines as were those already in existence.

The factory workers' group, which caters for all those employed in factories, at shipyards and similar workplaces, has a membership of 67,416, at present covered by 1,202 collective agreements.

The constructional group, responsible for excavation workers, workers in concrete, and building operatives, as well as for unskilled workers employed by the

State and local authorities, has 86,126 members. Among these workers, national agreements are more common and consequently the total number of collective contracts amounts to only 741.

The transport group has 60,109 members and caters for port workers, warehousemen and storehands, drivers, civil aviation workers, etc. Their conditions of employment are regulated by 1,938 agreements.

The agricultural and forestry group unites all of the union's members who are directly employed in agriculture and forestry together with workers engaged on land drainage schemes, etc. This group comprises 33,960 members and accounts for 261 agreements.

How it is administered

The supreme authority of the union is the Congress, which is held every third year and which has gradually become a very large affair, mainly as a result of our policy of ensuring that as many branch members as possible have an opportunity of taking part in its work. If one includes guests, from both home and abroad, then it can be said that the number of Congress participants is normally in the region of one thousand.

Congress discusses the work of the union during the three years just ended and at the same time draws up plans for future activities. In addition, it elects the Executive Committee, on which each group is represented by nine members. The President, Treasurer, and Secretary bring the total number of members up to thirty-nine.

Day-to-day business is dealt with by a so-called Working Committee, which meets twice a week. This consists of the President, Treasurer, and Secretary, together with one member of each sectional group. Every month, a meeting of the Management Committee is held. At this, current business is discussed and proposals for submission to the Executive Committee drawn up. The Management Committee consists of fifteen members, again including the three principal officers plus three representatives of each group. Through the years, the amount of business in the individual groups has

The head office of the Dansk Arbejdsmandsforbund in Nyropsgade, Copenhagen. The building on the right was the Gestapo headquarters during the Occupation. It was destroyed by the RAF in an air attack made during March 1945.

grown to such an extent that it has been found necessary to appoint substitutes for members of the executive bodies. They too are entitled to attend meetings of the Executive and Management Committees, but without voting powers.

Social institutions

In 1907, the Danish General Workers' Union established an Unemployment Fund, through which all its members are assured of financial assistance during periods of unemployment. It would take too long to enumerate all the forms in which such assistance is given, but it may be of interest to note that during the financial year 1952/53 a total of 180,000,000 kroner (£9,000,000) was paid out in unemployment benefit. Of this, seventy-two per cent or 119,000,000 kroner, was refunded by the State. In addition to unemployment benefit proper, the Fund also assists members to pay their rent and to buy domestic fuel, whilst at Christmas a special grant is made.

As can be seen from the above, the work of both the General Workers' Union and its associated Unemployment Fund covers a very wide field. The union is, of course, affiliated to the Danish central trade union organization, De Samvirkende Fagforbund i Danmark, and, through that organization, takes part in the large-scale national negotiations which take place every year to draw up new collective agreements. Neg-

otiations of this kind are in fact being held at the present time. It must be said, however, that on this particular occasion it will be difficult to bring them to a satisfactory conclusion, for the claims of the workers and the counter-proposals of the employers are poles apart.

A few years ago a law known as the Conciliation Act was passed. This provides for the appointment, by the State, of a Conciliation Officer whose job it is to intervene in the negotiations whenever a stoppage, lock-out or strike threatens, and to seek to smooth out the differences between the parties. There have, however, been no conflicts of any significance in Denmark since 1946, as in every case it has been possible for the State Conciliator to find a solution acceptable to both parties.

Before 1946 there were situations in which either the Conciliator had to admit defeat or it was not possible to secure the adoption of a conciliation proposal. In such cases, it has happened that the Danish legislature has given the conciliation proposal the force of law, and both parties have had to accept its stipulations.

Then and now

There is, of course, a great difference between the conditions under which unskilled workers are employed today and those under which they lived and worked before they had a union. One of the most important factors in our day has



The Dansk Arbejdsmandsforbund takes a lively interest in international trade union affairs. Here, United States dockers' representatives are being entertained at the offices of the transport workers' group.

been technological progress. Even in the field of unskilled labour, mechanical aids have played their part and the resultant rationalization has meant a lightening of the worker's task. At the same time, this has created certain difficulties so far as wage rates are concerned. Formerly, unskilled workers performed only the roughest type of labour, using no more than pickaxe, spade, shovel, and wheelbarrow. Nowadays, in the building industry for instance, it is possible using the so-called non-traditional building method, for the largest type of building to be constructed by unskilled labour - with only a minimum of skilled assistance. This development led the Danish General Workers' Union to consider the need for creating some kind of training establishment at which the unskilled worker, like his skilled colleague, could obtain instruction in the use of mechanical aids which were formerly not available to him.

As a result, the union has collaborated with the Danish Employers' Association in the establishment of what is now known as the Technical Training College. This provides a three-year course of training in general subjects such as Danish and arithmetic, as well as in physics, working methods and other more technical subjects. The courses are financed by grants from both the State and municipal authorities and from the two central organizations. They are



held on two or three evenings a week during the period 1 October to 1 April, and have proved so popular with the union's members that technical training schools are now to be found in practically all Danish towns.

Conclusion

During the last sixty years then, the unskilled workers of Denmark have made very considerable strides. At the same time, they are still of the opinion that their wages and working conditions are best protected by a single union. As a result, we in Denmark have not adopted the idea of industrial unionism, a system which is to be found in so many other countries.

On the international plane, too, the union serves its members in what it believes to be the best possible way, maintaining relations with all international bodies which contribute to cooperation between unskilled workers of different nationalities.

If peace and toleration prevail among the peoples of the world, there is every likelihood that the unskilled workers of Denmark will be able to improve their position still further and continue to make progress that will benefit both themselves and their dependents.

Modern mechanical aids have played an important part in lightening the task of the Danish dock worker. The Dansk Arbejdsmandsforbund has encouraged that process by ensuring that its members receive training in the use of such equipment.

Canadian merchant fleet dwindling

CANADIAN SHIPOWNERS are forecasting the disappearance of the Canadian deep-sea merchant fleet. From a statement made at the annual general meeting of the Canadian Shipowners' Association in January last, it was learnt that twelve more ships were sold with transfer to a foreign registry during 1953, reducing the fleet by 103,000 tons gross to just under 274,000 tons.

Reasons given for the gradual disappearance of the Canadian merchant fleet were: increasing costs, a highly competitive freight market, and the Canadian Government's decision against financial assistance to the shipowners. The combination of these factors, it was alleged, would force the sale or transfer of the few ships now under the Canadian flag.

India to operate tanker fleet

IN AN AGREEMENT reached between the Government of India and one of the world's major oil companies, provision has been made for the future use of tankers under the Indian flag. As India possesses no tankers at present, the arrangement under which foreign tankers bring in crude oil for the refinery at Bombay and transport products of the refinery to other ports in India will continue until such time as the Government, or a corporation in which the Government has a controlling interest, acquires tankers of a size economically suitable.



Training for service at sea in Germany

by **Rudolph Becker**, German Union of Transport and Public Service Workers (ÖTV)

THE SUBJECT OF TRAINING FOR THE MERCHANT NAVY of the German Federal Republic has been discussed with increasing frequency in German maritime circles in the last two years. The problem is all the more acute because the sailing vessels which Germany maintained up to or for some time after the war began are no longer available as training ships for boys entering the merchant service. At the same time, the problem of training a sufficient number of these boys to ensure adequate future manning is but one aspect of the overall problem of vocational training for service at sea.

The question as to the best form of training has been debated very hotly in the daily Press and in the interested trade union and industrial journals of the German waterfront during the last two years. From these discussions, and those taking place at meetings of the organizations directly affected, it appears that about half those concerned favour the retention of training on sailing vessels, while the remainder prefer a system of training based solely on self-propelled vessels and preceded by preliminary instruction ashore.

No sailing ships for training

In the legislative field, the fact that there are no sailing ships available to serve as training establishments for boys entering sea service was taken into account by the Federal Minister of Transport when, in 1952, he promulgated an amending ordinance to the 1931 Act governing the manning of merchant vessels.

The amending ordinance lays down that the practical training required before an applicant is granted a certificate of competency is a two-month course of pre-sea training at an approved merchant navy training school together with a period of service (of specified length, extent, and nature) as a deckhand on an ocean-going vessel.

By these means, the first step was taken towards the establishment of government, or government-sponsored, merchant navy training schools.

Basic requirements

The German Union of Transport and Public Service Workers (ÖTV), however, was not satisfied with this partial solution of the problem of vocational training for seamen. Over a number of years it has repeatedly put forward certain basic demands regarding the man-

ner in which seamen's vocational training should be organized and how it should work in practice. These basic requirements are:

a) All young persons serving on board ship in any department should receive approved vocational training.

b) As approved vocational training is the most urgent in the case of boys expected to become deckhands, this should be given priority.

c) The duties of an AB, ship's cook or steward should be a skilled trade.

d) All young persons employed on merchant vessels should be given the same opportunity as those attending an on-shore vocational training centre giving instruction in the trade or calling they are following.

e) The requirement to attend a vocational training centre could be satisfied by three months' attendance at a pre-sea training establishment run as a kind of boarding school, and by attending a vocational training centre ashore for a further two months before taking the AB's, ship's cook's or steward's examination after a period of three years' service at sea.

f) During the period at sea, the training of young persons should be continued along approved lines by qualified instructors.

g) Seamen who have passed the AB's examination and wish to acquire an additional certificate of competency should receive further training during a fourth year at sea as preparatory instruction for eventual officer rank. This practical instruction should be supplemented as far as possible by correspondence courses on the theoretical side, organized by the navigation schools.

h) A body should be established, consisting of government, shipowners' and seafarers' representatives, to go into all

matters in connection with seafarers vocational training.

i) The legislative authorities should immediately take the necessary steps to place vocational training on a legally-defined basis.

Present situation

These basic demands have been satisfied only to a limited extent. We feel justified in our expectation, however, that future developments in the field of training for sea service will pay them due regard.

The present situation regarding the development of a regular system of vocational training is as follows:

There are four government, or government-sponsored, training establishments for young persons entering sea service in the Federal Republic of Germany. These are situated in Lübeck-Travemünde (Schleswig-Holstein), Elsfleth (Lower Saxony), Hamburg-Blankenese (Land Hamburg), and on the training ship 'Deutschland' - Bremen (Training Ship Association).

The last of these training centres to be put into operation was the establishment in Hamburg-Blankenese, which was opened in November last.

It is housed in what was formerly a large private residence but which has been structurally altered to suit the particular needs it is intended to serve. The school also has a recently-constructed private harbour on the River Elbe.

This establishment gives young persons a three-month course of instruction for entering the deck department as ship's boys. Instruction is not confined to training lads to obtain a certificate of competency, but also caters for those who will later wish to remain able seamen or boatswains.

Twenty-five trainees attend each course, of which a new one begins every month. The school can therefore train 250 ship's boys in the course of a year. The four existing training centres train about 1,000 boys a year for sea service. Whether this number covers the demand, or is in excess of it, is a question which nobody can answer with certainty. For several reasons, the real requirements of the German maritime industry

in respect of ship's boys cannot at present be estimated with any great degree of accuracy.

Financial assistance given

The decisive factor governing the acceptance of a lad for training is aptitude and not the financial standing of his parents or those responsible for his upbringing. Parents are required to pay 75 DM a month (about £7 in English money) towards board and lodging. This charge may be reduced or remitted in full upon application. A decision on applications of this kind is given by a sub-committee of the management committee, one member of which is a representative of the ÖTV. A charge of 97 DM is made for clothing which must be of a regulation pattern and remains the property of the trainee. It consists of two pairs of working trousers, two wind-jackets, one blue jersey, a fur cap and one pair of deck shoes. On application, the welfare authorities may grant financial assistance towards the purchase of this clothing.

All applications for admission to the training establishment are forwarded for preliminary study to the vocational guidance department of the labour office in Hamburg, but the final selection is made by the sub-committee of the management committee of the training school.

The average age of the lads entering the first two courses (fifty in number) was sixteen. Trainees come from all parts of the Federal Republic, most of them from central Germany. A good fifty per cent of those accepted had completed their schooling at a primary school, whilst the remainder had attended a higher educational establishment. Two of them had the higher school leaving certificate. In general, applicants do not have to produce evidence of having received special schooling.

A part of the instruction given at the training establishment counts as compulsory vocational training. This part of the syllabus is given by teachers of the Hamburg educational authority. In addition to the lessons given to satisfy the compulsory vocational training requirements, the syllabus also provides for practical instruction in handling boats, ropes and in signalling, etc., given by experienced seamen, boatswains and ship's carpenters. Since both the vocational and practical training are being given to young persons who have had

no actual experience of conditions in the calling they have chosen, it naturally follows that these courses lay more emphasis on the theoretical than on the practical aspect.

The training school has a management committee on which sit one representative from the Hamburg Harbour and Shipping Board, one from the educational authority, one from the vocational guidance department of the Labour Office, three from the shipowners, together with two from the ÖTV and one from the Union of Salaried Employees, all of whom have full voting powers. The committee includes in its functions decisions on the selection of candidates, amounts payable in fees, complaints from the trainees, the syllabus and examination procedure.

Need for training at sea

The present system of vocational training for service at sea as applied in the Federal Republic must be regarded as still in the experimental stage. It should be noted, for example, that there is still no regular system of instruction provided whereby a lad, on leaving the training establishment, continues his training at sea. At the moment, next to nothing is being done for his practical instruction, which really begins at that point. The most pressing problem in the immediate future is to ensure that vocational training is provided whilst the boys are serving at sea.

A central organization is expected to be set up in the early part of the year to ensure an adequate supply of young entrants to the merchant service and assist in the work of organizing and supervising their training for service at sea. The Federal Republic, the coastal Länder of Bremen, Hamburg, Lower Saxony, and Schleswig-Holstein, the German Shipowners' Association, the Association of German Coastal Shippers, the Union of Salaried Employees and the ÖTV will be represented on this central body. The establishment of this maritime training control board should mean that the expert handling of problems related to vocational training for service at sea and the machinery for ensuring that decisions are put into practice have been put on a permanent, organized basis.

The beginning made in training for service at sea is promising, taking into consideration the fact that, formerly, practical instruction in the chosen call-

ing and compulsory attendance at an appropriate vocational training centre had been non-existent. Nevertheless, there is still much to be done to meet the needs of the boys themselves, of the maritime industry, and of the State, before the goal towards which the ÖTV is striving has been reached.

Fishery development programme for Greece

THE GREEK GOVERNMENT has decided to finance a new programme for fisheries development, costing up to 838,000 dollars (about £250,000), and as a first instalment the Bank of Agriculture is to lend 133,000 dollars (about £40,000) to fishermen.

It aims to supply mid-winter fishing craft – trawlers and seiners – with echo sounding machines, deep freeze machinery, and cold storage; to supply engines to inshore fishing craft and sponge fishing boats; to enable fresh fish to be marketed; to improve fish canneries; salted and smoked fish factories; to replace fish gear found 'harmful to fishing' by other gear; loans to replace lost boats; to finance Atlantic fishing; and to help build fish piers.

Indonesia to nationalize railways

ACCORDING TO A PRESS STATEMENT made by the Indonesian Minister for Communications, the Government intends to nationalize all privately-owned railways in Indonesia. There are eleven private railway companies in Java and discussions have been begun with them on the subject. Employees of these companies have already been taken over and the Government has also assumed control of operations. Only the actual rolling stock and installations are still privately owned.

With the nationalization of the railways, for which compensation will be paid, the Government proposes to put an end to heavy losses incurred through non-paying passengers – said to amount to one-fifth of the travelling public.

It is also reported that the government of Indonesia is considering the possibility of nationalizing the country's civil air transport services, at present operated by the Garuda Indonesian Airways. An ad hoc committee, consisting of representatives from the ministries concerned, has been set up to study the question. Air transport in Indonesia began in 1927.

The boats that wait too long...

by Henri Marc



SIDE BY SIDE, MOTIONLESS ON THE CALM WATERS, some three to four hundred barges are moored – waiting for cargoes. The scene is the inland port of Conflans-Sainte-Honorine, the ‘capital’ of the French inland waterways, which stretches for about a kilometre along the Seine from the seventy-metre long house-boat ‘Je Sers’ to the Pont Saint-Germain, almost as far, that is, as the point where the Oise joins the Seine. There would have been no difficulty in walking the entire distance by going from barge to barge. A child could have stepped over the space between them. The boatmen, whilst going about their tasks, were calling out to one another and exchanging greetings from barge to barge. It was reminiscent of the friendly intimacy of suburban life, yet somehow more intimate, for here there were no garden fences separating neighbours.

Strolling along the quay-side, I stopped a moment to survey the scene, and one of the men, noticing my glance along the long line of barges, seemed to read my thoughts. ‘I suppose you are thinking there are a lot of them’, he said. I nodded.

‘And you are right’, he went on. ‘Too many barges, and not enough people offering cargoes. Take me, for example. I’ve been waiting for a cargo for over a fortnight, and I look like having to wait another week. Some days, one, two, or maybe three of us move off. That’s all.’

‘Still, things are a bit better than they were a time ago.’ A second boatman had joined us. ‘Back in August and September’, he continued, ‘it was a good couple of months before we could pick up a cargo. Nowadays we are seldom tied up for more than twenty days.’

I enquired the reason for the long hold-up, and was told that production was being slowed down by the general slackness in all business activities. Furthermore, there was little building work going on during the winter and building materials were their main loads. If it were not for the sugar-beet, they would be working only six months a year.

They take their turn

On arriving at an inland port, the boatman immediately proceeds to the cargo registration office which allots him the next number on the serial list kept by the office. He then awaits his turn for a cargo. It is a case of first come, first served. Should he get tired of waiting, he has to go on to a less congested port.

The cargo registration office was set up during the Second World War to en-

sure an equitable distribution of available cargo and to stop queue-jumping and unfair practices. Inland waterway traffic was organized and rates laid down applicable to all those engaged in the traffic. Even the large companies running a whole fleet of barges had to conform to the regulations.

Along the bank of the river, between the Mutual Aid establishment ‘Je Sers’ and the Pont Saint-Germain, there is a long, wooden structure. This is the charter office, where three times a week the same law of supply and demand is seen operating as on the Stock Exchange. Freight brokers put in an appearance and post up details of the offers they have received. They have already contacted their clients, given them all the requisite information, and have now returned armed, to a greater or lesser degree, with orders to charter. The charter office presents the same noisy scene as the Stock Exchange, with offers being shouted from all quarters. Clerks are busy taking down the names of the boatmen and of their vessels as well as their registration number, and handing out confirmations of charter in an atmosphere of feverish activity.

Everybody seems to have joined the throng; owner-operators and skippers are all there, chatting, joking and puff-



The skipper's wife not only does the washing and cooking; she also assists her husband, as deckhand, in running the barge, and often takes his place at the tiller.



An infinite variety of goods is transported by canal in France: timber of all kinds, coal, carbide, foodstuffs – the list is almost inexhaustible. A large Fleet of over ten thousand vessels of all kinds transports a gross tonnage of Fifty millions a year.



Apart from a few showpieces, such as those on the Paris-Le Havre Canal, the vast majority of locks on the French inland waterways are still worked by hand. A number of canals date back to the time of Henri IV and many are falling into disrepair. Notable exceptions are the Canal du Nord and the Saint-Quentin Canal.

ing away at their pipes. The distances covered and the places mentioned in the course of their conversation would girdle the earth several times.

And now, those who have been chartered move off to make their arrangements for departure. Others follow them out to continue their conversation in

one of the cosy little 'bistrotts' lining the quay-side. Prospects for the coming winter, it appears, are not very bright. Fog and ice will conspire to reduce traffic on the waterways, and the lock-keepers will stop working too soon—at least the majority of them will. Trips will be slower and more risky. Cargoes for the north-

ern and eastern regions will get fewer and fewer.

A rota system in operation

It has been found necessary to set up a rota system for the tugboat men similar to that for bargemen. Previously it was nearly always the same men who got the

jobs. There were frequent complaints until it was discovered that the system these men worked on – actually a very simple one – was to offer the bargemen a refund of the towing charges amounting to as much as 2,000 francs in some cases. By means of this sharp practice they were able to obtain an unfair advantage over their colleagues. Nowadays things are conducted in a more orderly manner, each man taking his turn as in the case of the bargemen. This has meant a slight pecuniary loss to the latter – a loss, however, which could be ill afforded by those who were employed by a large company and did not own the barges of which they were in charge.

Not a princely wage

The large inland waterway transport companies each operate several barges, but the vessels are actually operated by a skipper assisted by a deckhand. The skipper is thus responsible for the entire running of his vessel. For this, he gets 19,310 francs a month, plus a mileage allowance of approximately 3.50 francs a kilometre. On some canals he also gets a bonus for tunnel working, particularly in the northern region. He also gets paid for overtime. When actually working, a skipper draws something like 25,000 to 30,000 francs gross (about £25 to £30) a month. Not a princely wage by any means. And it is his wife who assists him, as deckhand, in running the barge. For this, she draws 2,000 francs. Two whole thousand!

When the two are not working, they get a total of 21,310 francs a month. The big companies do not lay their employees off but retain them on maintenance work during slack periods when no cargoes are available.

As in other branches of industry, French inland waterway workers get family allowances. The only advantage they have over other workers is that, sleeping on board, they have no rent to pay. But then on those wages, how would they manage to raise the rent?

No time to dream

Badly paid as she is, the skipper's wife does all the cooking, keeps the living quarters tidy, does the washing and, of course, grapples with the problem of provisioning. In addition to this, she takes her husband's place at the tiller when necessary, helps him to tie up the barge, and, when it has to be poled through particularly narrow locks, jumps ashore

and wields the long, heavy pole used for this purpose. Small wonder then that, even when the barge is moving smoothly and requires no particular attention, she has little time to sit and dream and, in the words of the song 'as the boat glides along, listen to the plaintive melody of an accordion'. She is much more likely to be seen as she stands firm-footed on the edge of the deck, plunges a pail at the end of a rope into the water to pull it up full and disappear with it down the hatchway, or maybe as she hangs out the washing on lines which she has arranged with no little ingenuity. For her, as for her husband, life anywhere else than on a barge would be inconceivable.

All the inland waterway workers I spoke to were united in condemning the mistaken notions about themselves to which journalists, story-writers and the cinema alike contributed. Actually, they considered themselves to be a very quiet section of the community, and one that caused little trouble. They certainly did not supply the scandal sheets with any material to work on!

A race apart

To understand inland waterway workers properly, one must accept the fact that they are practically a race apart – a distinct section of the community – with their own customs and traditions. Without exception, a son will follow in the footsteps of his father. If there are several sons, one will take over his father's barge and the others will go to work with one of the water transport companies. In spite of the countless difficulties, hardships, long waiting periods and poor pay, they remain faithful to their way of life. It is in their blood.

Boatmen, it is true, do not forsake their calling. But things have changed for them. Whereas before the first world war practically every man owned his own vessel, today more than half of the skippers work for others. In those days, the cost of living being what it was, periods of enforced idleness did not seem to hit them so hard, whether as owner-operator or employee. Nowadays the 'little bit put by' simply melts away.

All the boatmen with whom I came into contact would have liked to be in a position to buy a barge of their own, but one in particular was quite definite about the difficulties. 'It would take about ten million francs', he said, 'and the return on your money is practically nil. The young folk simply cannot take

the chance. As for me, I started as an ordinary skipper, and then, in 1920, managed to get hold of a wooden barge at the reasonable price – even in those days – of 6,500 francs. To tell you the truth, it was a fairly ancient affair, forty-seven years old in fact'.

'Five years later, I wasn't exactly rolling in money but I could afford to buy a more modern boat – only sixteen years old this time – for 25,000 francs. One could get a living out of it, provided it was made a family affair. I called my boat 'Per Laborem' – not a bad name for it, seeing that it means 'by hard work'. I have not been working on her for about six months now, for a number of reasons, but she is still being operated on my behalf by another skipper. I am staying here at Conflans, but I just have to go on board every time she is here. I cannot see myself giving that up. The hardest thing to get used to about life ashore is that it is always the same; no change of scene. On land you feel as if you have no room to breathe. We boatmen need plenty of elbow room!'

There are some 50,000 people ceaselessly plying up and down the French inland waterways which, in their total length, would stretch from Paris to San Francisco, and in width vary from three to three hundred metres. Practically all these fifty thousand were born on board and have never lived ashore even for a few days. French boatmen can trace their existence as a separate body back to the days of the Frankish empire and are baptised with names harking back to those times, such as Clodomir, Chilpéric, Lotaire, and Charlemagne.

They all know one another and, from hearsay, everyone knows just where the boats they are interested in are plying. And yet they seldom see one another. Occasionally they meet going in opposite directions, when they will raise their right arm in salute. That is all. They do not write to one another – just a message left with a lock-keeper, and the news gets round.

During the war, whenever the National Navigation Bureau authorized a 'ticket' for a cargo allocation, it would advise the Paris inland port so that the latter could inform the boatmen. When all the Paris organizations had been advised, it would be passed on to the provinces, for example, to Douai, in the important mining district of the Northern region, which is one of the major inland waterway ports. The head of the service

in Paris would ring up his colleague in the Northern region and, in spite of the short time which had elapsed between his advising the various offices in Paris and picking up the telephone to get through to the province, he would be greeted by, 'Yes, thank you. We have been informed and have made the necessary arrangements.' The boatmen's 'bush telegraph' had been at work and spread the word more quickly than it had gone through official channels.

The problem of education

One of the most serious problems with which the people of the inland waterways are faced is the education of their children. Boarding schools ask 10,000 francs a month, and only rarely can the parents afford such a sum. Their children therefore have to stay on board and learn to read and write as best they can. But above all they are taught arithmetic. A man running a transport undertaking need not be a man of letters, but he certainly needs to know how to handle figures if he is to make a success of his business.

Those who are not owner-operators have no troubles on this score, however. One of the company's representatives will be on the spot and will take charge of the cargo at each point of discharge.

Some companies handle sand, gravel, gypsum, etc. An infinite variety of goods is transported by canal: timber of all kinds, coal, carbide, foodstuffs – the list

The luckiest among them make one run a month. They reckon that they are fortunate if they do ten a year.

is almost inexhaustible. An important cargo, and one which keeps a large section of the industry busy, is sugar-beet.

French boatmen do not expect to make big money or enjoy exceptionally good living conditions, and yet their homes on the barge are cheerful and made gay with flowers, and are brighter and more cosy than many other people's living rooms.

The luckiest among them make one run a month. They reckon they are fortunate if they do ten a year. The owner of the barge 'Ghyslaine' – named after his daughter – told me, for example, that he had left Paris last January for Pont-à-Mousson and from there had gone on to Strasbourg where he picked up a load for Saint-Etienne. From Saint-Etienne he had gone on to Rouen, from there to Le Havre, returning from Le Havre to Paris. His next trip took him back to Rouen where he took on a load for Pont-Sainte-Maxence. The 'Ghyslaine' then proceeded to Beaumont, from where she returned to Paris by way of Pantin. He left Paris again, this time for Verneuil, then went on to Creil, and from there to Le Havre again. Unfortunately there was no load for him at Le Havre and he had had to return empty to Conflans.

Competition from the railways

One would think that these peace-loving folk have no enemies. Nor have they in one sense, but in another, they assert, they have a rival or competitor if you will, in the French National Railways, whom they accuse of unfair practices.

They will tell you that the French Na-

tional Railways have increased their rates in all regions where there are no waterways, but elsewhere they quote very low. The taxpayer, they say, makes up the difference, and the waterway traffic suffers the consequences. Why, they ask, does the government not grant them a subsidy?

Canals in deplorable shape

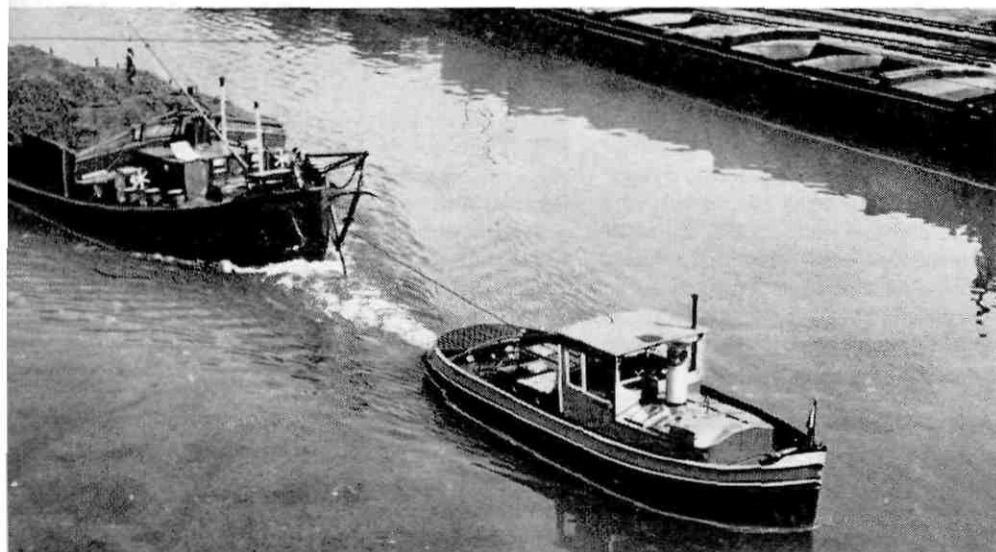
The boatmen accuse the public authorities on a very much more serious matter; the deplorable state of canals and locks which, in spite of the serious accidents which result, seems to bother nobody except the boatmen themselves. The public authorities are completely indifferent regarding their upkeep. No attempt has been made, for example, to bring the weirs a little more up to date – weirs dating back to the time of Napoleon! Then there are the Loing and Briare canals which have been in existence since the days of Henri IV. With the exception of the Canal du Nord and the Saint-Quentin Canal, all the waterways are falling into a most grievous state of disrepair.

Locks are still worked by hand, except those on the Paris to Le Havre canal which the authorities have finally got round to electrifying, together with those on the canals running through tourist centres – the latter obviously for the sake of appearances!

In conclusion, the question arises whether the boatmen are really intended to disappear. One wonders whether the authorities consider the fifty million tons of cargo transported by inland waterways every year as negligible. If that is the case, they have merely to continue their present policy: indifference tinged with hypocrisy. But, here again, the boatman's love for his calling will doubtless prove the stronger force.

Increase in German coastal shipping

ACCORDING TO FIGURES issued by the Association of German Coastal Shippers, the tonnage in service in German coastal shipping at the end of 1953 was 149,460 tons gross. This represents an increase over the tonnage employed in 1952 (141,217 gross, 207,792 tons dw.) although the actual number of vessels was smaller. The apparent discrepancy is explained by the fact that a number of more modern and larger ships were put in to service during 1953.





A Dutch long-distance lorry driver climb into his cab before setting out on a fresh trip. Netherlands legislation lays down that he may not work more than 55 hours per week. A maximum of ten hours a day may be increased to fourteen under certain conditions.

Conditions of employment in long-distance road transport (1)

THE FOLLOWING SURVEY of the conditions of employment of drivers in long-distance passenger and goods transport forms part of the recently-issued ILO report on *Conditions of employment in road transport*. The survey covers five countries: France, the Netherlands, Sweden, the United Kingdom, and the United States. It consists of a summary of information supplied to the International Labour Office by a number of road transport undertakings (in one case by an association of such undertakings) and, in the case of two countries where drivers' conditions of employment are regulated on the national level, France and the United Kingdom, the provisions of the national collective agreement.

The ILO states that this account does not aim at giving a complete description of conditions of employment in the occupation under consideration, but at providing examples of some actual conditions in certain undertakings.

Hours of work

For the United States, the American Trucking Associations states that the Interstate Commerce Commission's regulations stipulate that no driver may drive more than ten hours in any period of twenty-four hours*. But drivers may do other work than driving after having driven ten hours. They may not, however, be on duty more than sixty hours,

*) '.... unless such a driver be off duty for eight consecutive hours during or immediately following the ten hours aggregate driving and within said period of twenty-four consecutive hours....'

or seventy hours in some cases, in any given week. In practice, a fair average for long-distance drivers would be between forty-eight and fifty hours per week.

In France, the maximum hours of work are fixed by law (Act of 21 February 1936 and subsequent amendments, Act of 25 February 1946) at forty hours per week. There is, however, the possibility of overtime, at higher wages, within statutory limits.

In the Netherlands, the passenger transport company reports that hours of

work are from eight to eight-and-a-half per day, and forty-six to fifty-two per week; in the goods transport company hours of work are nine per day, except Saturday, and fifty-one per week. The statutory maximum is ten hours per day and fifty-five hours per week. The maximum of ten hours per day may be increased to fourteen, twice a week at most, provided driving hours on the following day do not exceed six.

In the United Kingdom, hours of work are eleven out of twenty-four and forty-four hours to be worked in six days.

In Sweden, the collective agreement for bus drivers operating inside the country fixes the normal hours of work at eight hours per day, forty-eight hours per week or 144 hours over a three-weeks period. Under the Royal Order of 25 October 1940, the maximum hours of work of a driver (including all the time he is at the employer's disposal) are eleven in every period of twenty-four hours (exceptionally thirteen hours), provided the total hours do not exceed twenty-two in any forty-four hour period. Under the Linjebuss collective agreement for international transport, 'during service abroad; hours of work are fixed according to transport needs'.

The spreadover

The time at which the work of drivers in long-distance transport begins and ends is almost always irregular and difficult

to indicate precisely. The American Trucking Association states that the work day begins at various times in the evening, night or early morning. In France, for vehicles driven by a team of two, the total spreadover must not normally exceed fourteen hours, but may be increased to nineteen hours, at least three of which must consist of breaks, on vehicles equipped with bunks, provided that this does not take place on any two consecutive days. In the Netherlands, the passenger transport company reports that on regular work the early shifts begin between five a.m. and eight a.m. and the late shifts between two p.m. and five p.m. The goods transport company is the only one to give the exact time at which the working day begins, namely eight a.m., and at which it ends, namely five p.m. For the United Kingdom, it is considered difficult to generalize about the time at which the working day begins, and ends. The work is on a shift basis and the actual work schedule depends on the requirements of the service. The Swedish Linjebuss Company states that there are no fixed rules in long-distance transport, where regard must be had to various circumstances such as, for instance, the time tables of ferries.

Shift or relay systems

Driving is organized in shifts in the United Kingdom, the Netherlands (passenger transport company) and in Sweden (Linjebuss local service). The latter company points out that it is difficult to organize a relay or shift system on the international service. The same crew is responsible for the whole journey, but every journey is planned so as to allow a reasonable working day; the two drivers agree between themselves as to the division of the driving time and work as a rule on shifts of three, four or at the most five hours' driving. The American Trucking Associations and the Netherlands goods transport undertaking state that a shift system is resorted to if need be.

Arrangement of running and duty schedules

In the United Kingdom, the running schedule is a matter of company policy. It is based on the passengers to be carried, the speed of vehicles, etc. The timetable then has to be translated into (1) a daily work schedule and (2) a weekly rota. In arranging turns of duty regard



One of the modern Swedish buses operated by Linjebuss on its long-distance services. Inside Sweden, the Linjebuss collective agreement provides for an eight-hour day and a 48-hour week. Schedules on international runs allow a reasonable working day.

has to be had to the guaranteed daily or weekly wage, spreadover or straight-through shifts and so on. The arrangements take account of local conditions. The basic principle is that of the most efficient schedules to carry out the work to be performed. There are schedule committees composed of drivers and conductors which are able to represent the views of those directly concerned in the drawing up of schedules.

In Sweden, under the collective agreement for bus drivers, the work schedule showing turns of duty, breaks and preparatory tasks to be performed before work is drawn up by the management after consultation with representatives of the groups of workers concerned with a view to ensuring that duty times vary regularly for the workers on each line as far as possible. As regards international transport, the Linjebuss Company states that the work time table is planned with a view to satisfying tourist interests, during reasonably long daily journeys.

Nights away from home

One of the features of the work of long-distance transport drivers is that they are often obliged to spend the night away from home.

In passenger transport, the Swedish Linjebuss Company states that there are no fixed rules concerning the number of consecutive nights that a driver may have to spend away from home; in practice it is eight to ten nights, sometimes, but rarely, a maximum of twenty nights. The Netherlands passenger transport company gives two to twelve

nights as normal practice, although it has been as much as forty-two in one case so far. Available information for the United Kingdom does not make it possible to generalize about the number of nights drivers employed in long distance passenger transport may have to spend away from home.

As regards goods transport, the American Trucking Associations states that the Interstate Commerce Commission's regulations make no provision on this point. The number of nights spent away from home by drivers varies according to the nature of the undertaking and its activities. Some drivers whose work is organized on a relay system regularly spend every night at home; others spend only alternate nights at home. Drivers in many removal firms may be away for a whole week.

Other tasks

Both in passenger transport and long-distance goods transport, the drivers usually have to undertake tasks other than driving. In the Swedish Linjebuss passenger transport company, drivers must undertake any extra work 'connected with the operation of the service'. They have for example to assist passengers with their luggage and to carry out certain small repairs and maintenance work. The collective agreement for bus drivers provides that accounting for fares is part of their work and that, if the time required cannot be found during normal working hours it must be counted as special time. Employers may employ drivers on tasks other than driving if they have not

worked the normal working hours, namely forty-eight hours per week or 144 hours over three weeks.

In the Netherlands, the passenger transport company also states that drivers are required to do such work (maintenance of vehicle, loading and unloading of goods; also collecting cash on regular services). The same applies in France, where the national collective agreement provides that during slack hours included in the normal hours of work employees may be required to do minor maintenance work such as greasing and washing. In this case, the appropriate equipment and protective clothing must be provided by the employer.

In goods transport in the United States, the Netherlands and France, it is also stated that drivers have to do work other than driving, such as loading and unloading goods, supervising stowage and guarding the load, partial maintenance, washing and cleaning vehicles, etc. In France, however, the collective agreement for road transport provides that in regular services and in places where undertakings have a depot or terminus, headquarters of large branches, loading and unloading of goods must be carried out by employees other than those travelling on the vehicles.

The time devoted to such additional tasks is from half an hour to one hour per day on an average in the Swedish Linjebuss passenger transport company and one hour in the Netherlands passenger transport company. The American Trucking Associations states that the driver has to do incidental jobs as required and that he may, for example, spend two hours on the loading platform before beginning his trip and another two hours while the vehicle is unloaded.

The time devoted to such incidental jobs is, generally speaking, including in the hours of work. The American Trucking Associations specifies that it is included in hours of work but not counted as driving time.

Overtime

Overtime is generally the subject of special provisions in national regulations concerning hours of work. In practice, most of the undertakings which provided information are not in a position to give details as to average number of hours overtime carried out by drivers in their employment. The number varies greatly according to the nature of the service and the amount of business. The

Swedish Linjebuss Company states that there is in principle no overtime in the undertaking. Only the Netherlands passenger transport company was able to state a definite number of hours overtime per week worked by drivers, namely about seven.

Conditions as regards payment for overtime vary greatly according to the country and even within a single country. Thus the American Trucking Associations states that rates vary according to area. It adds that although the Interstate Commerce Commission's regula-

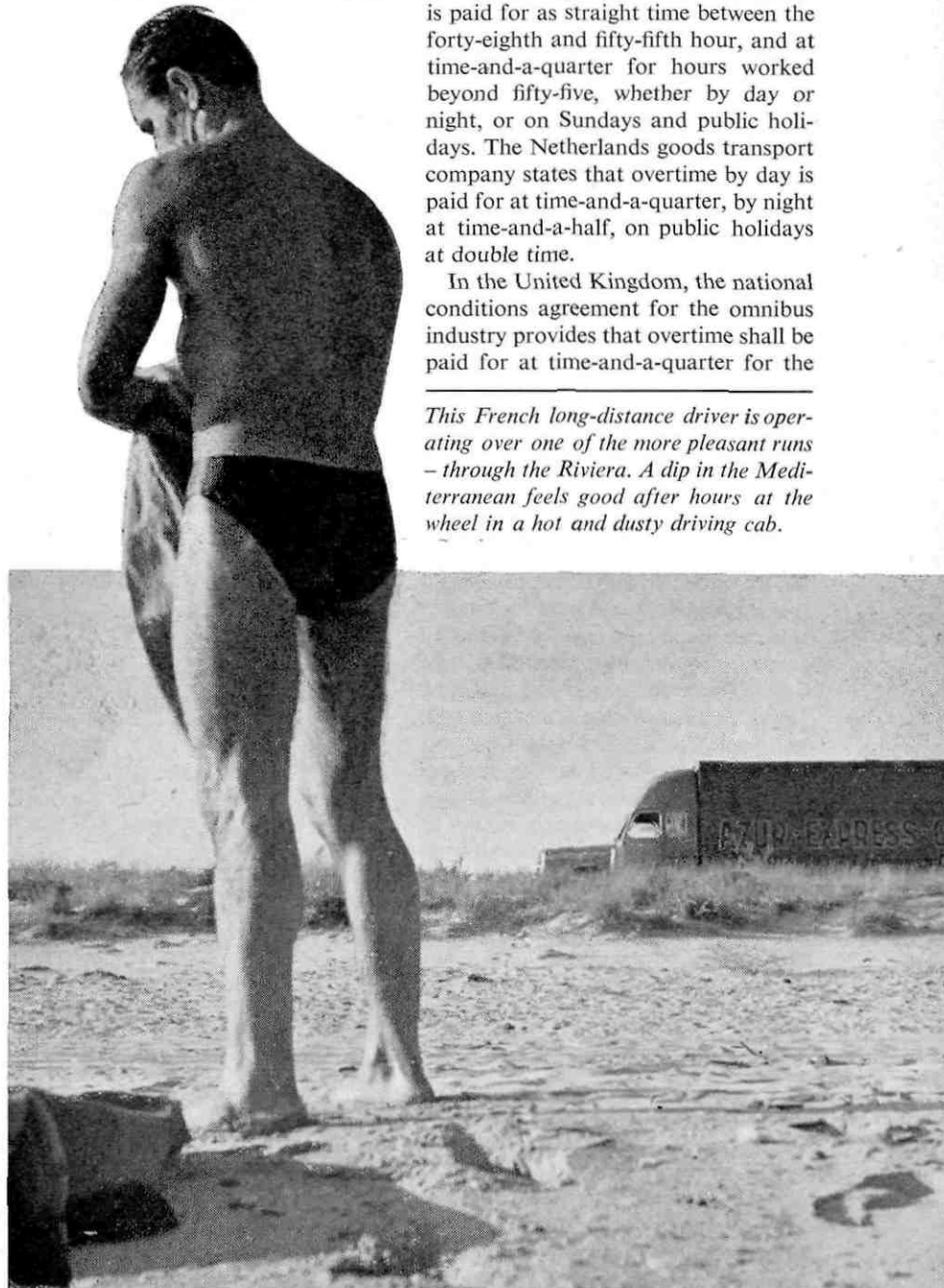
tions permit a working day of ten hours, the majority of collective agreements for drivers provide for an eight-hour working day and time-and-a-half for hours worked beyond eight and on Sundays and public holidays.

In France, where hours of work are fixed by law at forty per week, overtime is paid at time-and-a-quarter for the forty-first to the forty-eighth hour and time-and-a-half for hours over forty-eight.

In the Netherlands, the passenger transport company states that overtime is paid for as straight time between the forty-eighth and fifty-fifth hour, and at time-and-a-quarter for hours worked beyond fifty-five, whether by day or night, or on Sundays and public holidays. The Netherlands goods transport company states that overtime by day is paid for at time-and-a-quarter, by night at time-and-a-half, on public holidays at double time.

In the United Kingdom, the national conditions agreement for the omnibus industry provides that overtime shall be paid for at time-and-a-quarter for the

This French long-distance driver is operating over one of the more pleasant runs - through the Riviera. A dip in the Mediterranean feels good after hours at the wheel in a hot and dusty driving cab.



first two hours over the forty-four hour week, and at time-and-a-half thereafter. Work on Sunday and public holidays is paid for at time-and-a-half. If Sunday is scheduled as a day of rest for the drivers concerned, the overtime rate may be as high as double time. Work on Christmas Day (or New Year's Day in Scotland) must be paid for at double time with a minimum of four hours' payment. If the driver has to work on a rest day, he is paid at time-and-a-quarter for the first two hours and time-and-a-half thereafter, with a minimum payment of five hours, whether worked or not. Payment for night service and work performed between midnight and the beginning of the morning's work is subject to local negotiation, and if no agreement is reached, the question must be referred to the National Council for the Omnibus Industry.

The Swedish collective agreement for bus drivers provides for an overtime rate of thirty-five per cent above straight time for the first two hours worked above the normal working week of forty-eight hours or 144 hours spread over three weeks, and seventy per cent over straight time thereafter. In international transport, the driver is entitled to compensatory leave on returning home.

Daily rest

All the undertakings which provided information state that drivers are entitled to a minimum daily rest. In the United States, the length of the period is eight hours after ten hours, driving, under the Interstate Commerce Commission's regulations. The minimum daily rest period is nine hours in Sweden and ten hours in the Netherlands and the United Kingdom. In the Netherlands, it may be shorter in emergencies or cases of force majeure. In cases of force majeure, it may be reduced to seven hours twice a week in Sweden, and in the United Kingdom it may be reduced to eight hours once a week to meet the needs of the changeover of shifts.

Weekly rest

Drivers in undertakings which provided

An American truck crosses a bridge over a river in the State of Montana. Above the truck can be seen a transcontinental railway overpass. Most US drivers are organized in the International Brotherhood of Teamsters (an ITF affiliate).

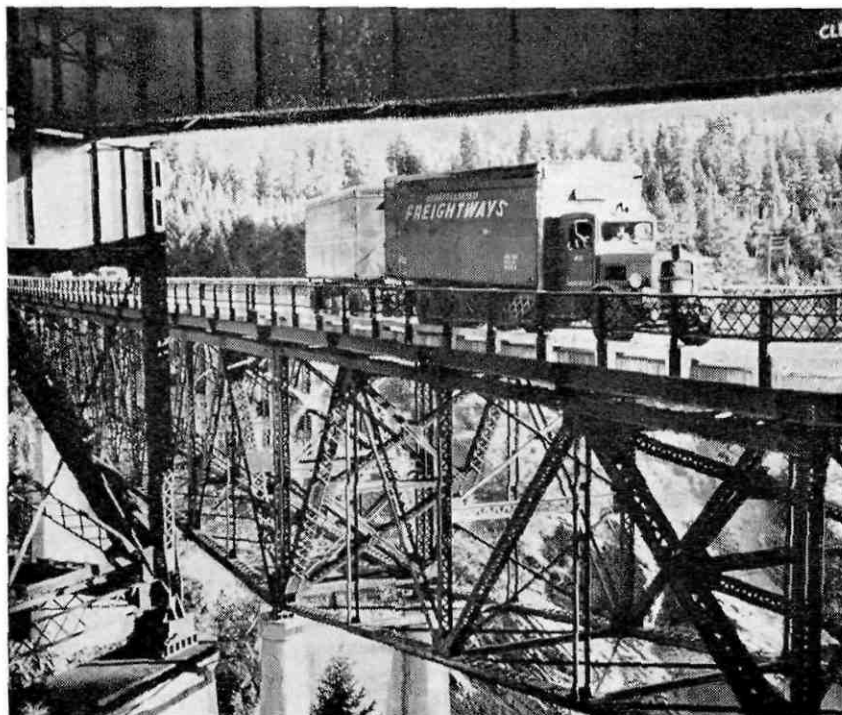
information all have a weekly rest. It consists of a minimum of one day in the Netherlands goods transport undertaking (thirty consecutive hours in the Netherlands passenger transport company), in the United Kingdom and in local travel in Sweden. The Swedish Linjebuss collective agreement for international transport provides that drivers are entitled to two consecutive days' leave after each trip abroad of at least five days. Such leave may, however, be reduced by agreement between the management and the driver concerned, provided that the preceding and subsequent trips do not last more than a total of twenty-two days and that the next leave period shall be four days instead of two. Any such agreement must be notified to the trade union concerned. In France, under the national collective agreement for road transport, the rest period may not be less than thirty-six hours for each six days working period.

In the United States, the weekly rest period generally coincides with Sunday and drivers are paid double time if they work on that day. In the Netherlands goods transport undertaking, the weekly rest is also usually Sunday. In the Netherlands passenger transport company, one out of three weekly rest periods must coincide with Sunday. The Swedish collective agreement for bus drivers provides that at least one weekly rest period per month must fall on a

Sunday and that in this case, work must stop at six p.m. the previous evening. The French national collective agreement for road transport provides that the weekly rest should normally be granted on Sunday, unless prevented by the overriding needs of the service. In regular services based on a rota, the rota should be so organized as to enable drivers to spend alternate Sundays at home, or at least four Sundays every two months. In the United Kingdom, the weekly day of rest (or days of rest in the case of the five-day working week) is not fixed but varies with the requirements of the turns of duty.

The weekly rest day may as a rule be spent at the driver's home in the Netherlands. The same applies in Sweden in the Linjebuss Company. In the United States, the American Trucking Association states that the weekly rest can as a rule be taken at home, unless the driver is on a long-distance haul, and then he is entitled to lodging, paid for by the employer.

Under the French national collective agreement for road transport, if drivers are compelled by the requirements of the service to spend more than one week on the road, they must be granted a rest period equivalent to the weekly rest period, which may not be less than thirty-six hours per six-day working period, on their return, without prejudice to any overtime due. Similarly, in the Nether-



lands goods transport company, a compensatory day's holiday is granted during the following week if the weekly rest cannot be taken on a Sunday.

Public holidays

In the United States, the American Trucking Associations states that, under their contract, drivers who have to work on public holidays are paid at a higher rate. Generally, there is no provision for taking the holiday on a normal workday at a later time.

In the United Kingdom, under the National Conditions Agreement for the Omnibus Industry, drivers are entitled to six public or local holidays per year at ordinary weekday rates, but where the requirements of the service do not permit of such holidays being arranged, then days off in lieu are substituted, as agreed locally.

The Swedish Linjebuss Company states that drivers are not entitled to paid public holidays, which are considered as ordinary working days in the bus trade, the pay for such days being included in the agreed wages.

The Netherlands passenger transport company states that drivers are not entitled to paid public holidays, but the goods transport undertaking on the contrary states that drivers are entitled to paid public holidays, without giving the number.

Annual holidays with pay

All undertakings furnishing information state that drivers are entitled to annual holidays with pay. In the United States, the American Trucking Associations states that by contract drivers are entitled to a paid vacation of one week with full pay after they have worked up to sixty per cent or more of the total working days during any year. In France, the length of the annual holiday with pay is fixed by legislation. The national collective agreement for road transport provides that the annual paid holiday for drivers may not in any circumstances be less than sixteen working days, after one year's continuous service in the undertaking.

In the Netherlands, both undertakings (passenger and goods transport) which provided information state that the length of drivers' annual holidays with pay is twelve working days. The passenger transport undertaking adds that it is split into six consecutive days and six separate days.

The 'good pull-up' is one of the most familiar features of the British lorry driver's life on the road. Eggs and bacon is the most popular snack, washed down with a good mug of hot sweet tea.

In the United Kingdom, the National Conditions Agreement for the Omnibus Industry provides for annual holidays with pay of twelve days with eighty-eight hours' pay, after one year's continuous service. On ceasing to be employed, after twelve months' continuous service, a driver is entitled to holidays with pay at a rate proportionate to his length of service. This allowance may be withheld or varied in the case of an employee dismissed for misconduct.

In Sweden, under the Holidays with Pay Act, drivers are entitled to three weeks' paid holiday per year. The Linjebuss collective agreement for international transport provides that drivers are entitled to twelve days' holiday with pay after sixty days' service abroad. Such holidays may be taken in two sections, provided there is no agreement to the effect that the whole of such holiday shall be added to the annual holiday. If the length of service abroad is too short to entitle the driver to the twelve-day holiday with pay, he is entitled to an allowance at the rate of five crowns per day worked abroad.

The length of the holiday varies in accordance with the length of service in the United States, where the American Trucking Associations states that drivers are entitled to twelve days' consecutive holidays with pay (instead of a week) after three years' service in the same undertaking, and in the Netherlands in the goods undertaking, where the length of the holiday with pay is fifteen days (instead of twelve) after fifteen years' service. The Netherlands passenger transport companies state that the length of the holiday does not vary in accordance with length of service but that the undertaking intends to introduce such a system in the near future.

Wages

In France, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom drivers are as a rule paid on a weekly basis. In Sweden, this is also the case for those employed in national transport, while the drivers employed in international transport by the Linjebuss Company are paid by the month, at the rate of 675 Swedish crowns with a monthly supplement of



fifty crowns after twelve months service. Extra drivers in international transport are paid by the day at the rate of 1/30 of the monthly pay of a permanent driver.

In the United States, long-distance drivers are mostly paid on a mileage or trip rate.

Premiums are sometimes paid in addition to the basic wage, for instance when a single driver is employed on a vehicle where there are usually two drivers. The same applies in rural areas in the United Kingdom, where the drivers concerned are paid extra wages. In the United States, the American Trucking Associations states that drivers are entitled to have their lodging paid by the employer under such circumstances. Some contracts provide for the payment of premiums for the carriage of dangerous or heavy loads. In the Netherlands, the goods transport undertaking pays a premium of two florins a week to drivers of certain vehicles whose maintenance is particularly complicated (laadkisten transport). The national agreement for road transport provides that in France, in the case of tourist traffic, if a driver uses a foreign language which he speaks fluently he is entitled to an additional allowance assessed at four per cent of that part of the minimum weekly wage for his pro-

fession which results from the percentage increase over the standard minimum wage which is granted on account of the skill and responsibility attaching to the occupation (*partie hiérarchisée*) for each day or part of a day on which he is required to use the foreign language, in addition to the wage fixed for his job. The agreement also provides that in undertakings which apply a *partial system of payment by results* or reward for saving costs, the rates and conditions of payment of premiums shall be such that (a) for all normal work, drivers shall be paid at least the equivalent, calculated according to the wage guaranteed by the agreement, of the wage for the hours of actual work recognized as necessary to perform the service, including overtime, and (b) any additional output or saving in costs shall be reflected in additional remuneration. A codicil to the agreement will stipulate what form of payment by results or for saving in costs should be applied by employers who wish to adopt such a system.

No premiums are paid to drivers by the Linjebuss Company in Sweden or by the passenger transport company in the Netherlands.

Drivers' wages are fixed by collective agreement in Sweden (Linjebuss) and in the Netherlands (passenger transport company). The Netherlands goods transport company states that wages in the company are fixed by regulations issued by the Board of Government Conciliators. In the United States, the American Trucking Associations states that drivers' wages are determined by collective agreement, through negotiation between management and union representatives, or by management directly dealing with the employee. In the United Kingdom, wage and employment conditions are determined by the National Council for the Omnibus Industry.

Guaranteed wages

In France and the United Kingdom, drivers normally are entitled to a weekly *guaranteed wage*. Under the French national collective agreement for road transport, guaranteed wages for transport workers over eighteen of normal skill and employed on normal jobs are determined according to their job and length of services in the undertaking.

In the case of workers paid by the day who are only required to work on receipt of notification the day before, a full day's

Maritime history is made



Our picture shows Harry Lundeberg, Secretary-Treasurer of the ITF-affiliated 69-year-old Sailors' Union of the Pacific handing over the first cheques paid out under the union's recently inaugurated pensions scheme.

These pension cheques, of which seventy were paid out on the inaugural night, were made possible by the union's negotiations with the Pacific Maritime Association in November 1949 resulting in the first Welfare and Security Scheme in the US maritime industry. Surplus funds of the latter scheme have now become available for the payment of pensions. The pension scheme is voluntary and provides \$ 100 a month on retirement at the age of sixty-five.

It is the proud boast of the Sailor's Union of the Pacific that its pension plan represents a milestone in the union's fight for better conditions for its members, and that the scheme will not only benefit its own members, but eventually all US seamen.

wage is paid for any part-day worked.

In the United Kingdom, under the National Conditions Agreement for the Omnibus Industry, drivers and conductors on the regular staff are guaranteed payment for forty-four hours each week, subject to their being capable of work and available at the appointed times during normal working hours, and willing to perform any services outside normal occupation which they could reasonably be asked to perform, during any period when work is not available in their usual occupation. In the event of a man being called out for work outside his normal working timetable, he is paid a minimum of three hours for the first call and a minimum of two hours for each subsequent call during the day. *(to be continued)*

European wagon pool makes good progress

THE EUROPEAN WAGON POOLING SCHEME, under which ten European railway administrations agreed to establish a pool of 160,000 freight wagons for common use and which came into force on 15 March 1953, has now been run-

ning for almost a year and details have been released of the functioning of the pool during the initial stages.

Immediately after the agreement was signed, work began on the affixing of the 'Europ' sign to the wagons of the pool, and by November ninety-five per cent had been so marked. The proportion of international traffic conveyed in Europ wagons increased consistently during the early months, reaching seventy per cent by November.

A study of the wagon exchange records showed that there was a fairly constant credit balance at certain points and a regular debit balance at others. With the aid of these records it is proving possible to plan in advance the compensatory movement of empty wagons.

Only minor troubles have been experienced from the technical point of view and wagons have, in general, been kept satisfactorily on the move. Early troubles regarding the distribution of spare parts have been surmounted. Meanwhile, a study is being made of the financial incidence of the Europ wagon pooling scheme with a view to assessing its true economic value.

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

ARGENTINA (ILLEGAL) AUSTRALIA AUSTRIA BELGIUM BRITISH GUIANA CANADA CEYLON CHILE CHINA
COLOMBIA CUBA DENMARK ECUADOR EGYPT EIRE ESTONIA (EXILE) FINLAND FRANCE GERMANY
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