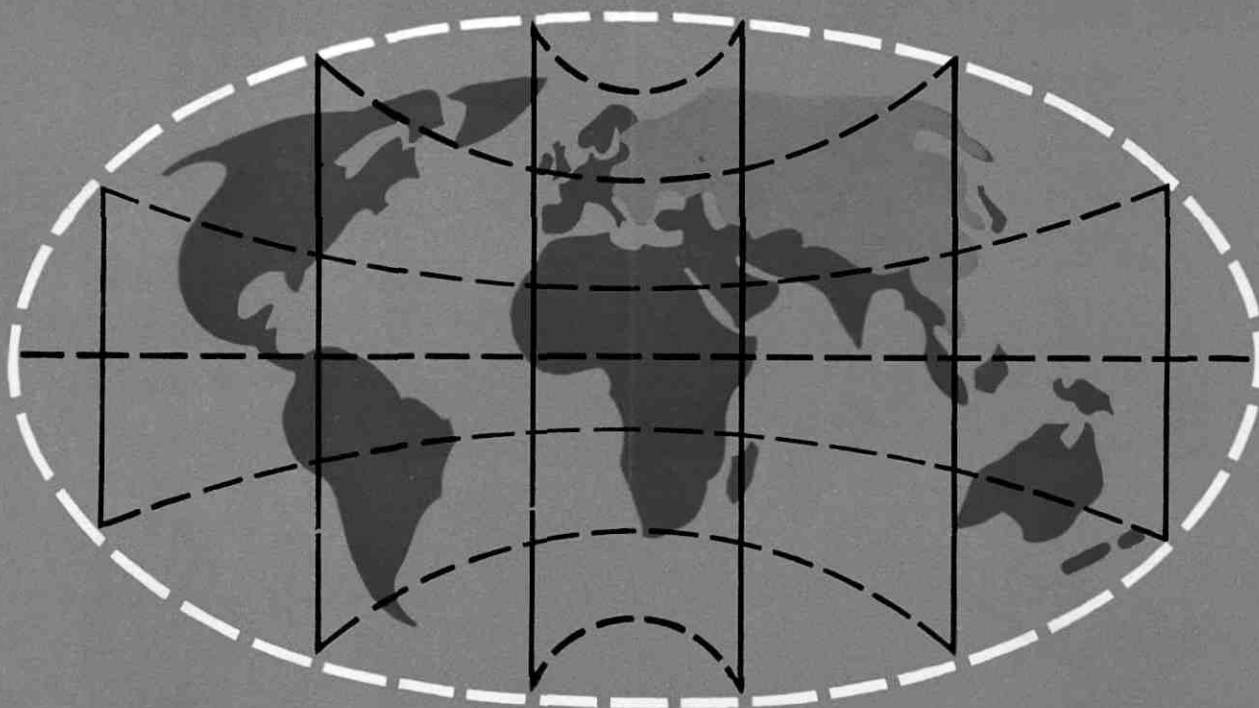


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ITF

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Forthcoming Meetings:

Hamburg	4 February Preliminary Regional Dockers' Conference
Brenscino	17-19 February Road Transport Workers' Section Committee
Amsterdam	21-23 February Regional Dockers' Conference
Paris	21-23 March Railwaymen's Section Committee



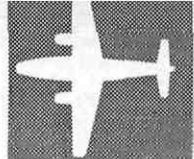
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Contents

	page
Schedules or safety? <i>by Omer Becu</i>	1
Air safety over the North Atlantic	5
The problem of road and rail	6
On the size of transport undertakings	7
Norwegian social and labour legislation for seafarers.....	7
The work of the ILO in the field of inland transport (1)	8
Spare time at sea	12
Government grants for Irish fishermen	13
The German tanker fleet	13
Proposed Asian railway research pool	13
Conditions in Indian coastal shipping.....	14
Claims of Dutch motor drivers...	16
International Bank aid for El Salvador road development	16

Schedules or safety?

by Omer Becu, General Secretary



AMONGST THE MANY TALKING POINTS OF AIRCREW PERSONNEL throughout the world there looms, well to the foreground, the question of crew fatigue and flight time limitations. Public attention is also focussed on the problem since in recent months a number of fatal aircraft accidents have occurred in which fatigue has been a predominant or contributory cause. Here is the sordid recital of the past few years and one is bound to ask how much longer must this sorry loss of life and property continue before effective legislation is introduced:

1) *Orient Airways' Convair AP-AEG, 13 March 1953*

Loss of eleven passengers and five crew: flight crew had been on duty continuously for 22.5 hours, and by the time the aircraft would have reached destination, this period would have been extended to over twenty-four hours.

2) *Skyways' York G-AHFA, Atlantic, 2 February 1953*

Loss of thirty-three passengers and six crew: although the cause of the accident was unknown, it was established that the flight crew had been on continuous duty for more than nineteen hours, and that by the time the aircraft would have reached Gander the period would have been increased to twenty-three hours, with a landing to be made in the dark under instrument flight rules. The inquiry recommended that 'the whole subject of crew fatigue should receive study at an impressive level.'

3) *Air France Constellation, Connecticut, 3 August 1954*

Although miraculously there were no casualties, the flight crew had been flying over fifteen hours and had been on duty over eighteen hours at the time of the crash.

4) *BOAC Constellation, G-ALAM, Kallang, 13 March 1954*

Loss of thirty-one passengers and two of the crew; the error of judgment of the captain was undoubtedly accentuated by the fact that he had been on duty over 21.5 hours.

International legislation inadequate

The International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO), an intergovernmental body whose chief task is the development of international rules to control and regulate civil air operations in the interest of safety and order, has ordained that 'an operator shall establish limitations on the flight time of flight crew

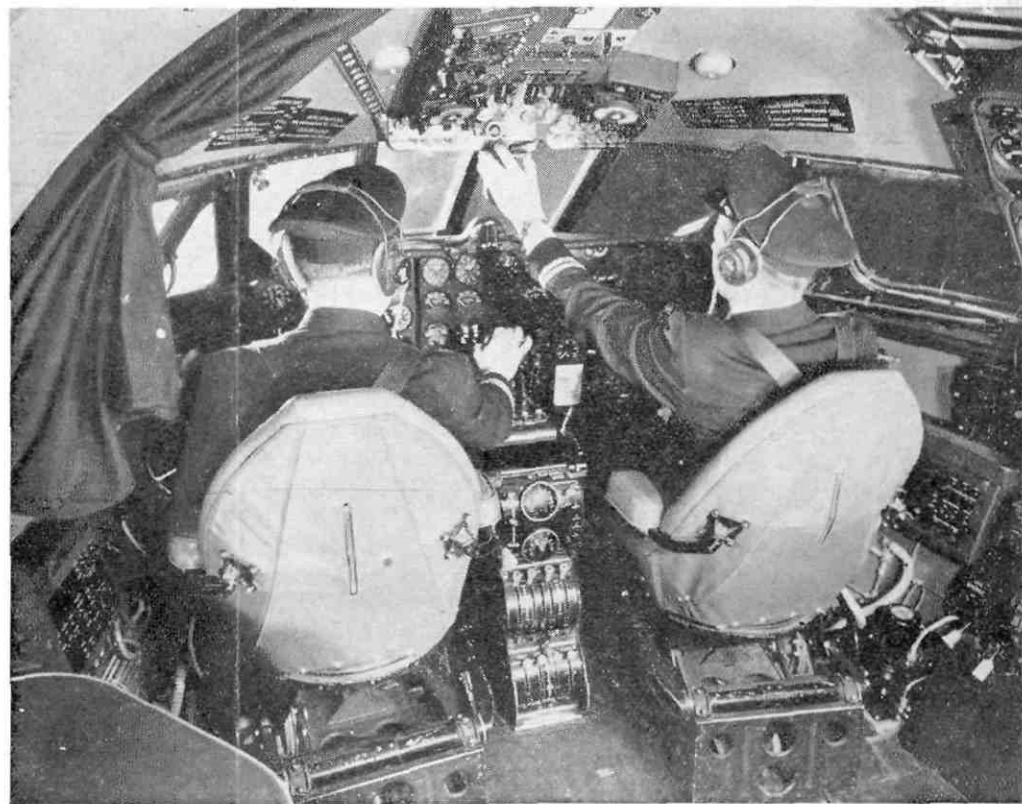
members. These limitations shall be such as to ensure that fatigue, either occurring in a flight or successive flights or accumulating over a period of time, does not endanger the safety of a flight. The limitations shall be approved by the State of Registry.'

It requires no far stretch of imagination to see that this regulation is vague in the extreme; it can be loosely interpreted, and leaves each member State free to introduce its own criteria. Such States as have decided to draw up national legislation may well have differing views as to what constitutes fatigue, and what endangers safety. It should, in fairness, be stated that ICAO has initiated further research amongst its constituent

members, but the unhappy fact is that precious months are passing and lives are being lost pending more concrete guidance. We present the views of the KLM Air Crew Federation which may be regarded as indicative of aircrew feeling: 'It is useless for ICAO to formulate standards and recommended practices for safe and orderly air transportation without ensuring that the human beings primarily responsible for their execution are adequately protected nationally and internationally from overwork and exploitation, so that they can tackle the complicated problems inherent in civil aviation with one hundred per cent efficiency.'

Airline operators' attitude

The Medical Committee of the International Air Transport Association (IATA), a federation of some seventy airline operating companies, has been concerned with the problem of crew fatigue for a number of years, and at its Ninth Annual General Meeting in Montreal, Oc-



tober 1953, set forth the following record of its progress:

'The IATA Medical Committee continued to show great interest in the question of aircrew fatigue. The various members had continued to investigate this problem by frequent interviews, questionnaires, clinical examinations and assessments. As a result, the Committee wished to restate that, under existing regulations and modern operating procedure with present-day aircraft, fatigue was rarely encountered in aircrew to a degree that interfered with the proper performance of their duties. In addition, the members of the Committee had kept in close contact with researches in this field. At the present time there was little new in the matter that was applicable to the personnel of the commercial airlines. It was hoped, however, that researches now being carried out, might, in time, add materially to knowledge on the subject. In the meantime, it was of much value for airline medical officers who travel the routes to continue to report at first-hand knowledge on specific route conditions, operations and irregular schedules liable to cause acute fatigue.

'It was decided that returns should be furnished by the various members of the Committee covering the main diseases and injury conditions which caused lack of man-hours of aircrew in various categories, in accordance with an appropriate questionnaire. It was hoped that this would help to reveal the relative importance of fatigue as a cause of potential man-hours lost by aircrew from a medical aspect.'

A serious operational hazard

It is recognized that crew fatigue is a difficult condition to study objectively; it is recognized that eminent medical authorities are not always agreed on its causes and implications; it is recognized that it may be difficult in cold legalistic terms to correlate its relationship to aircraft accidents; it is recognized that official scientific researches may well ultimately increase knowledge on the subject; it is equally recognized that crew fatigue does actually exist as a serious operational hazard, and the least that can be expected, if not at international level, is that on the national front, early legislation – if need be of an interim nature – shall be introduced on the flight and duty hours of aircrew in order to eradicate or lessen this evil. The

ITF is aware that certain States are actively pursuing the problem, but desires to see the matter tackled resolutely and humanely by every major air-minded nation pending a satisfactory international solution.

The American problem

The American air transport scene has recently been clouded by a dispute on the flight time limitation for domestic services, the eight-hour daily maximum of some twenty-three years' standing having been challenged by American Airlines who found it impossible to operate their westbound nonstop coast-to-coast DC-7 schedule within that limit. A waiver, granted by the Civil Aeronautics Board, permitted 'air carriers in the conduct of scheduled transcontinental nonstop flights, to schedule flight crew members for more than eight, but not more than ten hours of continuous duty aloft without an intervening rest period; Provided that the flight is conducted in pressurized airplanes with a flight crew of at least two pilots and a flight engineer.'

The ITF-affiliated Air Line Pilots Association, International (ALPA), petitioned the Board to reconsider its decision contending (1) that it acted without an opportunity to investigate and determine the facts and that such a serious step should not be taken in an obviously hasty proceeding; (2) that the Board's decision was based, not on its concern with safety, but on its eagerness to accommodate the economic interest of the applicant; (3) that the Board's disregard of its authority in permitting American Airlines to disregard the law (the company had been violating Civil Air Regulations for some time previously) reduced those Regulations to a suggested procedure for operations rather than rules to be observed; (4) that the Board had no legal authority to grant the waiver; (5) that the Board had 'transferred the responsibility for the protection of the travelling public from its own shoulders to those of the pilot and his organization'; (6) that the pilots would have no recourse but to pursue other remedies available to them in order to protect the public. ALPA's petition was turned down, and 1,200 pilots subsequently ceased work on 31 July 1954. They returned to duty on 25 August on the understanding that the whole question should be transferred to an independent referee.

The waiver mentioned above was designed to operate only until the Board had been able to test industry comment on its proposal that an ultimate regulation would allow flight crew members to fly up to *twelve hours* during any twenty-four consecutive hours, provided that the crew consisted of at least two pilots and one additional flight crew member, that the aircraft be pressurized, and that the flight be scheduled for not more than one take-off and landing. We cannot do better than quote from the ALPA magazine, 'The Air Line Pilot' of July-August 1954:

'To a pilot, approval of such a proposal means but one thing: a virtually unlimited ceiling on flight time piled on top of additional on-duty time to form a work day exceeding all bounds of reason and accepted standards of industry. Unlike the interpretation placed on work days limits in industry, which are a maximum, flight time limitations work just the reverse. Because of the all-important words "scheduled to fly", they are actually a minimum, not in any sense a maximum. An eight-hour scheduled flight can easily become an actual ten-hour or more flight; a ten-hour flight one of twelve hours. Flights scheduled for twelve hours, records show, have been known to experience actual flight times of close to eighteen hours, almost six hours in excess of schedule. One airline scheduling its pilots coast-to-coast for about 8.5 hours under the Board waiver, during one month failed to make schedule thirty-five times in sixty flights; of the thirty-five occasions, nineteen flights exceeded nine hours, four of these being in excess of 9.5 hours. Thus pilots flew over their scheduled time far more often than within it. President Sayen sums up pilot feeling in the words: "It is the opinion of the Association that the majority of the Board has prejudged the twelve-hour proposal by granting the special waiver up to ten hours to American Airlines; we oppose the twelve-hour proposal even more than the extension to ten hours".'

Many heart-searching questions had to be faced before ALPA formulated its views, and it may well be of interest to record some of them, together with the answers:

1) 'Is the waiver or the new proposal in accord with the Board's own regulations?' No. On the contrary, both are in conflict with them.



A radio picture of the burning BOAC Constellation G-ALAM after its crash at Kallang Airport, Singapore on 13 March last. Evidence at the recent Court of Enquiry revealed that the pilot of this aircraft had been on duty for more than 21½ hours

For twenty-three years it has been contrary to federal regulations to schedule pilots for in excess of eight hours of flight duty. This rule antedates the Civil Aeronautics Act itself. It was continued as a regulation when the Act was enacted and figured prominently in the testimony as one of the protections afforded the public and the pilots. The rule has been reviewed by the Board many times without revision or exception being justified. The rule has been reviewed several times in recent years and has been the subject of industry discussions. Despite such review, no change has ever been made; it existed through the years because it was recognized as necessary to safe operation and there is no equitable substitute. Both the ten-hour waiver and the suggested twelve-hour rule apply to scheduled carriers only, but irregular (non-scheduled) operators are bound by the eight-hour rule. Privileges are thus to be made available to a few scheduled carriers, and one is compelled to the conclusion that there is no question of impartial rule-making, but accommodation of the competitive problem of a few

companies seeking preferential treatment via waivers of established safety rules.

2) *'Are the number of stops of a particular flight proper criteria upon which to base flight limits?'*

No. If they were, it would open up a whole new concept of flight limit thinking. The twelve-hour proposal has been issued upon the sole factual premise that a flight *scheduled* to be nonstop differentiates it from other flights and entitles it to special treatment. If this premise is sound, then in order to be consistent, flight time established in accordance with this criteria must go up and down the scale. For example, if a pilot is scheduled to make four stops, should flight time be reduced to six hours? If scheduled to make eight stops, should it be reduced to four hours? Obviously, many other factors, exclusive of the number of stops made, are overriding considerations in the establishment of flight time maxima. There is no factual basis for distinguishing nonstop flights from other flights. Such a deter-

mination as a sole criterion is as ridiculous as attempting to establish different standards for flying in temperate zones from those operative for tropical zones.

3) *'Is the pressurization a criterion for special rule-making and a basis for extending flight time?'*

Hardly, since there is quite a body of opinion that pressurization aggravates rather than relieves some problems.

Pressurized aircraft of today, flying at optimum performance altitudes, carry a cabin pressure altitude of approximately 8/9000 feet. This approximates the maximum altitude at which flights were conducted prior to the advent of pressurized aircraft, and exceeds average altitudes of unpressurized aircraft. No relief is afforded from the fatiguing aspects of anoxia by requiring that non-stop equipment be pressurized. Also ten or twelve hours of work at 8-10,000 feet will produce the equivalent fatigue at a more rapid rate than for many more hours performed at sea level. Proof is abundant that anoxia and fatigue produce carelessness, inattention, a satis-

faction with a lesser degree of precision performance, and lessened muscular co-ordination. Yet the proposed twelve-hour limit would permit a larger work-period under such conditions in an industry requiring the highest possible degree of safety in the public interest.

4) *'Is a rule permitting a pilot to be scheduled up to twelve hours of flight duty either realistic or entirely safe?'*

It's neither – it's unrealistic; it jeopardizes safe operation. It should be completely obvious that a pilot who is *scheduled* for twelve hours, is faced *at least with 13.5 hours* on duty. The exposure over this figure is indefinite – any factor such as mechanical interruptions, passenger connections, weather difficulties may well extend this minimum 13.5 hour day. Even the most uninformed layman can recognize the danger in such an operation.

5) *'Is fatigue a factor?'*

It most certainly is. Fatigue is induced by many factors, among which the most important are the maintenance of constant attention and alertness, tension, constant noise and vibration (more pronounced in the DC-7 and Lockheed 1049 than in other comparable modern

long-distance aircraft), anoxia, sitting or standing in the same position for long periods, poor ventilation, worry and many other considerations. Many pilots greatly prefer that flights be interrupted periodically so that there is variation in their activity – opportunity to get out of the airplane to stretch and relax and to get a breath of fresh air. It also provides an opportunity to re-evaluate the problems peculiar to the flight.

Whilst on the subject of fatigue, it is nonsensical for an accident report to indicate that the cause of the accident was pilot error when the error occurred after extended flight or on-duty hours. The conditions surrounding extended work hours have been too well-known in industry circles for many years for such fallacious reasoning to prevail.

6) *'Is an extra crew member justification for extending flight limits?'*

Such thinking is basically inconsistent in its premise since it must then be argued that in any instance where the Civil Aeronautics Board approves the removal of a crew member, the flying time shall be reduced.

7) *'Is the fact that international flight time limits are now set at twelve hours a*

proper measure on which to base domestic flight time rules?'

No, because the twelve-hour international rule is in itself inadequate and has long been condemned by international pilots as such.

The international regulation was framed when international flying was in a state of development and experience had not crystallized; aircraft speeds were much slower and the vast majority of flights was of such a duration as to require a multiple crew. Such crews permitted sufficient pilots to ensure relief at the controls, a flight engineer, a radio operator and a navigator. Since then the pilot has taken over many of these specialist duties, and has been steadily burdened with additional responsibilities; in view of these developments, pilots condemn the international twelve-hour limit as unrealistic.

8) *'Is there any provision for protection of public or pilot against excessive on-duty or flight time?'*

None whatsoever. Although in the proposal authority is sought for an extension of *scheduled* time, no protection is afforded by establishing maximum actual flight and on-duty times.

9) *'How long may a pilot be required to remain on duty?'*

Twenty-four hours a day, six days a week, is an actual possibility. There is no requirement to the contrary. Similarly a pilot may fly for periods of indefinite duration provided only that he is not *scheduled* in excess of certain hours. Any action on flight time and on-duty time must necessarily encompass the entire field of the regulations. Piecemeal actions ignore the entire problem and create inequities within the regulations themselves which lead to further inequities. If the Civil Aeronautics Board intends to take any action on the matter of flight time limitations for domestic operations, then in equity and good conscience, let them scrap the ten-hour waiver and twelve-hour proposal and establish a proper procedure for a complete investigation and rule-making

(continued on the next page)

The flight time limitation problem is not one which concerns pilots and pilots' organizations alone. Other air crew members whose efficiency is equally vital for air safety are often required to work long hours without adequate rest periods



Air safety over the North Atlantic



THE THIRD REGIONAL NORTH ATLANTIC AIR NAVIGATION MEETING of the International Civil Aviation Organization, held in Montreal, examined all aspects of air safety over the area. A review of existing facilities – air traffic control, telecommunications, aerodromes, installations and ancillary services – was made in the light of increasing traffic over the North Atlantic and the likely introduction of turbo-jet and turbo-propeller aircraft.

Long-distance aids to navigation

It was noted that whilst existing long-distance aids had been designed to assist air safety, they do not allow aircraft to fix position with sufficient accuracy; hence it is necessary at present to ensure adequate time-separation between aircraft take-offs, such procedure involving considerable delays. In order to improve this state of affairs, the meeting recommended that Consol beacons be installed in Iceland, southern Greenland, the

Azores, eastern Newfoundland, Labrador, Nantucket Island, and Atlantic City. With the Consol stations already functioning in Europe, aircraft will be able rapidly and accurately to fix their position on North Atlantic routes. Pending installation of the new stations, the meeting recommended that the general principle of a thirty-minute separation for aircraft on the same and converging routes, and a minimum lateral separation of 120 nautical miles for aircraft on parallel routes, be maintained.

(continued from page 4)

on the entire flight time and on-duty subject.

ITF attitude to flight time limitations

Whilst the ITF Civil Aviation Section deplores the absence of satisfactory international legislation on this subject, and hopes that ICAO will be prodded into action at a very early date, it recognizes that attempts can and must be made nationally to incorporate a sensible set of figures into collective agreements and into legislation by Governmental authorities. It notes with grave concern the fact that flight personnel are working under conditions which would never be tolerated in any other industry; instances could be cited of stewardesses – whose duties are more physically demanding than those of any other crew member – undertaking arduous flights without even being provided with individual seats in the aircraft, and of staff working at such pressure during the peak seasons that they are compelled to forego a hot midday meal. It may not be generally known that many scheduled flights call for fifteen to twenty hours' continuous duty and of course many more if delays accrue owing to bad weather or technical defects; the crashes mentioned in the first paragraph of this article prove beyond all doubt that this policy is wrong. Either there must be adequate sleeping quarters

aboard the aircraft, with relief crews carried, or more frequent 'slip-crew points' must be introduced to lessen stage lengths, even if this entails flying crews deplaning at places where accommodation and other facilities are relatively poor. For too long the industry has considered the problem of flight and duty hours from a local or 'route-by-route' point of view; what is now needed is that an overall broad policy be introduced, and the ITF has recommended to its flying staff affiliated organizations that the following maxima be used as a basis of negotiations:

	Short Haul		Long Haul	
	Flight Time	Duty Time	Flight Time	Duty Time
	hours	hours	hours	hours
Week	32	40	60	80
Month	90	150	100	150
Quarter	255		255	
Year	900		900	

The absence of precedent must not permit bad practices to develop within this youthful industry and public disquiet at 'fatigue accidents' must be allayed at the earliest possible moment; to this end it is to be hoped that remedial action will be taken to restore public confidence and to afford social justice to flight personnel.

Meteorology

The meeting recommended improvements in the system of observing weather conditions on the surface and at height, an increase in the number of observations made by North Atlantic weather-ships, and radio-soundings of conditions up to 17,000 metres in preparation for high-altitude flying within the region. Ways and means were explored regarding the more expeditious interchange of weather information, the World Meteorological Organization being invited urgently to examine whether North American, Western European and North Atlantic weather stations can interchange information obtained by radiosonde balloons within thirty minutes of the balloon reaching its maximum level of operation. It is also being asked to consider whether surface and upper air observations of North Atlantic weather-ships can be incorporated in the synoptic code messages between North America and Europe in order that forecasting centres responsible for trans-Atlantic and trans-Arctic flights may have such information within an hour of receipt by the weather-ships.

Telecommunications

A number of improvements were envisaged in the fixed aeronautical telecommunications system, and methods of countering certain circuit defects and periods of bad transmission are to be studied. The Committee also prepared a complete plan of radio aids to navigation including actual and anticipated aids.

Altimeter setting procedure

The meeting recommended procedures applicable for the entire North Atlantic region; the implementation of this plan would necessitate changes in procedures in force in Iceland, Bermuda, and the Azores. It further proposed to introduce transition procedures for aircraft crossing the boundaries of the North Atlantic regions.

Aerodromes

The meeting considered that at the present time there was no need for a sea-plane base for international air transport

(continued on the next page)

The problem of road and rail



'An elementary exposition of the basic facts'

IT IS DIFFICULT AND PERHAPS IMPOSSIBLE to add something new to the stream of writings on the problems raised by the troublesome co-existence of rail and road. One author, however, Mr. M. Cameron, has succeeded in characterizing the situation in Great Britain in a statement that is at once striking, illuminating, concise and practically wholly applicable to each European country.

The statement, which is part of an article published in a recent issue of *British Transport Review*, runs as follows:

'...the facts that matter in this twentieth-century revolution in transport can be boiled down to two, each with its attendant consequences.

1) The Time Gap

The first is historical – the *time gap* of

(continued from page 5)

services. It drew up a list of ground aerodromes to serve as regular aerodromes for commercial and refuelling purposes, and also studied the requirements of alternates. It recommended that certain aerodromes should be provided with approach and ground lighting installations as well as navigational and bad-weather landing aids.

Air traffic, Gander Airport

The meeting noted that aircraft flying within the neighbourhood of Gander (Newfoundland) experienced communications difficulty in obtaining authority regarding heights to fly; this was due to the density of the air traffic in the Gander terminal area. It was considered advisable to re-route aircraft wishing to avoid Gander and Canada was invited to consider the installation of omnidirectional radio beacons along sections of the New York-Gander, New York-Goose Bay and Montreal-Gander routes to facilitate this purpose.

Maps of Arctic regions

It was revealed that a large number of defects have come to light in maps of Arctic regions; recent examples have shown that, among other things, the coasts of the glacial cap of Greenland are not accurately represented. Several countries publish maps of these regions and it was recommended that they initiate an exchange of views in order to improve topographical accuracy.

roughly one hundred years or four generations which separates the development of steam power on railways from that of efficient power-driven road vehicles on pneumatic tyres. The main consequences of this hundred-year gap are:

a) Tributary railways were built in many rural areas where traffic was never likely to be plentiful and railways were needed only so long as road transport remained horse-drawn. This, however, was long enough to allow these lightly-used railways to become firmly established as part of the local scenery and tradition.

b) Because railways when first built were so much better than other available forms of transport, and because they needed compulsory powers to purchase land, powers which could only be obtained from Parliament, railways were naturally monopolistic. The concept of free competition which was general in the latter half of the nineteenth century did not seem to be fully applicable to railways – and when railways did compete freely with one another, the results in rebates and special favours to those able to exact them were frequently undesirable.

c) Because railways were in their nature monopolistic, the State felt that they had to be closely regulated, particularly in their charges. Act after Act therefore laid it down that charges should not exceed specified sums per mile for given groups of commodities. These sums would be higher for expensive commodities than for cheap ones, provided there was no discrimination between one customer and another. This grouping of goods into different classes, each with its own rate schedule, was approved alike by Parliament, the customers and the railways. But it does not seem to have occurred then to anyone to relate these charges to the costs of particular transactions – still less to any differences in cost which there might be between

one section of a particular journey and another section of the same journey. Nor did this matter so long as the near-monopoly of railways remained. The system of transport rates of charge varying according to the value or price of the goods conveyed, but not according to the cost of carrying the goods, was appropriate to monopoly and seemed fair to everyone. What was not perhaps realized was the extent to which that system subsidized those who lived in rural and sparsely populated areas at the expense of urban dwellers.*) For costing inquiries now show that the difference in cost per ton or per passenger per mile between conveyance in train loads over well-used main lines and in single vehicle loads or less over little-used branch lines may be of the order of six thousand per cent – a half-penny as compared with half a crown.

2) The Economic Contrast

This takes us at once to the second main fact – the *economic contrast* between rail and road transport. One has a very large fixed capital – a private and specialized track, graded and signalled to exacting and costly standards. The other has very little fixed capital and uses public roads on a pay-as-you-go basis (through licence and fuel duties). The characteristic unit of the one is relatively large – the train. The train is of course made up of separate vehicles, but the distinguishing feature of the railway is a locomotive hauling behind it a long line of coupled trucks or a set of passenger coaches. The characteristic unit in road transport is the single vehicle. It may haul one (in other countries two) trailers, but the basic unit is the vehicle, with built-in engine and pneumatic tyres, designed to carry from ten hundred-weight to per-

*) Making Peter pay for Paul is called 'internal compensation'. The amount of such compensation taking place on the railways can be gauged by the fact that on the French Railways, for instance, eighty per cent of the traffic is carried by a fraction of the railway not equal to twenty per cent. The very considerable profit achieved here disappears through internal compensation and does not even suffice to balance the losses incurred by effecting the remaining twenty per cent of the traffic on eighty per cent of the railway net. On the Dutch railways fifty per cent of the passenger-miles are performed on fourteen per cent of the railway net and thirty-nine per cent of the railway net account for eighty per cent of the passenger-miles.

Editor's note

haps fifteen tons. Before 1933, a man with five hundred pounds could buy a lorry and start a road transport business; a man with five million pounds would have found it difficult to start a railway.

a) The first consequence of this second fact is twofold – that rail cost per ton or per passenger is very low on well-used main lines where traffic moves in bulk and can be readily assembled in train-loads, and the fixed charges, in themselves heavy, become light through being spread over millions of units conveyed. On the other hand, rail cost per ton or per passenger is extremely high where fixed charges, still heavy per mile of track even when it is single, have to be borne by relatively few consignments of traffic, where traffic is moving at most in vehicle-loads and not in anything like full train-loads.

b) The second consequence is that rail charges averaged on a national basis, which pay little regard to this wide difference in costs, can be so much *above* rail cost on main lines that they are also above the higher road cost incurred through multiplying the single vehicles characteristic of road transport; while on branch lines the same rail charges are not only much *below* rail cost for these lines, but also below the much lower road cost of handling traffic offering at most vehicle-loads and not train-loads.


c) The third consequence follows at once. Such rail charges, in so far as they are still based on an assumed but now almost non-existent monopoly, and are applied in competition with road transport free to charge according to cost, actually distort the economic use of the two forms of transport. For these rail charges encourage road operators to concentrate on full-road traffic between main centres, where the traffic volume could yield train loads and where rail cost per ton could be extremely low; but in rural areas where the traffic moves at most in vehicle-loads, and rail cost is far above road, these rail charges give road operators no inducement whatever to come in and do the job which, from any logical point of view, is essentially theirs and not the railways.

One result of this distortion has been that when the railways decide to close a particular branch line, and save thousands of pounds a year by doing so, there is often an outcry from local residents, who suddenly find themselves

having to pay road charges based on road costs – charges which are higher than the rail charges to which they have been accustomed for generations.

Another and more important result is that the national cost of freight transport by rail is seriously inflated because of the continued existence of a number of unremunerative services which the railways have rendered for many years. These services include the transport of small consignments, other than those which can be made up into goods wagon-loads and trunk-hauled between main centres; traffic in relatively small quantities for collection or delivery in areas off the main traffic routes; and empties

On the size of transport undertakings

 PRESIDING over the first session of Motor Operators and Allied Traders' Conferences in Calcutta, in August last, Dr Nalinaksha Sanyal, Member, Executive of IRTDA, pleaded for speedier road building, a licensing system that would favour the development of road transport for own account as well as for hire and reward, and some freedom to compete with the railways.

From *Transport*, published in Bombay, we cull the following statement on the future shape of the road transport industry:


'While placing our demands on Government for various considerations we must not forget that there is great need for setting our own houses also in order, if we want to live. The operation of road motor services today calls for a high degree of business ability, technical knowledge, foresight and tact in dealing with the public as also with labour and there should be no room for adventurists or mere favourites of men in authority. It is common knowledge how unthinking persons have rushed into this business and come to grief very soon and how also holders of permits on patronage have had to place the actual operation of their lines to persons having experience and resources. The days of independent individual owner-operators are gradually getting numbered and rationalization of block transport in some form or other, either through joint stock enterprise, amalgamation and working agreements or co-operative societies controlling fairly large and economic units of transport services with suitable arrangements for repairs and standby are

returned by rail at nominal rates when the full load has passed by road. These are all traffics in respect of which existing rail charges yield far less than it costs to carry the traffic. The first two could generally be carried more cheaply by road; and charges based on real cost and profitability would certainly be on a level radically different from present figures.'

The author calls this 'an elementary statement of the basic facts'. It ought to be made compulsory reading for those who have to make decisions affecting transport or to advise the people called upon to make decisions.

bound to receive public support and encouragement by the State. I hope that members of the Motor Unions' Congress are fully alive to the situation and getting ready for the same.'

Norwegian social and labour legislation for seafarers

 A COLLECTION of the laws and regulations relating to Norwegian seafarers in the sphere of social and labour legislation has recently been published in the English language. It contains the laws relating to seafarers' working conditions (Seamen's Act, Act respecting Hours of Work on Board Ship, Order respecting Seafarers' Annual Holidays, Order respecting Crew Accommodation, Act respecting Cooks and Stewards), to seafarers' social security (Acts respecting Seamen's Accident Insurance, Accident Insurance for Coastal Pilots in Tramp Shipping), Health Insurance, Unemployment Insurance, Old-Age Pensions, Pensions Insurance for Seamen), and to various other matters (Acts and Regulations respecting Taxation for Seamen, Medical Examination of Seamen, Compensation for Loss of Effects, etc.).

The collection, which is an extract of a wider collection of Norwegian social and labour legislation in general, has been published by the Norwegian Joint Committee on International Social Policy, a body in which Government, Labour and Management participate. The collection is to be kept up to date by the periodical publication of amendments and additions to the legislation.

Copies of the collection are obtainable from J. Grundt Tanums Bokhandel, Karl Johans gate 41, Oslo, price Kr. 25 (25/-) per copy.

The International Labour Organization is the oldest of the existing specialized agencies which have been brought into relationship with the United Nations. It was, in fact, originally established in 1919 as an autonomous institution associated with the League of Nations. Its constitution, based on the premise that universal and lasting peace can be established only if it is based on social justice, formed part of the Treaty of Versailles. In seeking to promote its aims, the ILO has of necessity had to devote considerable attention to conditions of employment in transport, the industry which plays such a basic role in the economy of nations. Its importance to the world's transport workers as an instrument of social betterment cannot be overemphasized. The following article, which has been specially prepared for the ITF Journal by the International Labour Office, explains how the ILO carries on its work in the field of inland transport.

The work of the ILO in the field of inland transport | 1



LABOUR PROBLEMS IN INLAND TRANSPORT are many and varied. Different countries have different needs and resources, and the number of branches of transport further complicates the picture. In fact, there would be some justification from many points of view in considering the five main divisions in inland transport as separate industries: railways, transport by rail, road, inland waterway, and air, as well as work in ports. The importance of transport cannot be denied and the basic part to be played by transport in the economy of nations has often been emphasized. Thus, the report which the International Labour Office prepared for the First Session of the Inland Transport Committee pointed out that 'transport can be both an index to a country's state of development and also a stimulus to its general progress - economic, political, and cultural'. In 1949, in a Report on Technical Assistance for Economic Development prepared for the Economic and Social Council, the Secretary-General of the United Nations, in submitting proposals for an expanded programme of technical assistance through the United Nations and the Specialized Agencies, stated that 'improved transport is the key to economic development in many parts of the world.'

The International Labour Organization, in seeking to promote its aims and purposes as reaffirmed in 1944 in the Declaration of Philadelphia, obviously had to grant considerable importance to problems affecting transport workers. The ILO is still working on this problem in two main ways. Firstly, transport workers are included in the scope covered by the texts adopted on certain general questions and, secondly, transport workers are covered by special measures affecting them only.

Methods followed by the ILO

Since its establishment in 1919, the International Labour Organization has had three main instruments for carrying out its work: the International Labour Conference which is the highest body in the Organization and which consists of an annual meeting of tripartite delegations of the States Members, with a view to adopting standards of social policy mainly in the form of international treaties known as Conventions - which come into force only in so far as the States concerned have ratified them - and of Recommendations; the Governing Body of the International Labour Office which is the executive body, also tripartite, whose task it is to carry out the policy of the Organization; and, finally, the International Labour Office which provides the permanent secretariat of the institution and which collects, studies, and publishes the required information, carrying out the decisions of the main bodies.

The work of the ILO takes many forms



apart from the adoption of social standards and the publication of studies and reports: technical assistance, enquiries, establishment of field offices in certain regions, organization of regional conferences and technical meetings, etc.

The main event in the field with which we are concerned is the establishment in 1945 of the Inland Transport Committee. Already in 1938 the International Transport Workers Congress, at its meeting in Luxembourg, requested the International Labour Office to consider the establishment of special machinery to deal with the transport industry. In 1941, at its meeting in New York and Washington, the Conference of the International Labour Organization considered a report on 'The ILO and Reconstruction' in which reference was made to the need for establishing worldwide bodies to deal with the major industries of an international character. In particular, consideration was given to a proposal put forward by a number of Government and Worker delegates for the creation of an international transport section in the Office, and the Conference referred to the Governing Body a resolution authorizing the Office to prepare a scheme for the creation of such a section, based on the tripartite principle, and designed to promote the international regulation of economic and social conditions in transport. Similar requests were made for other industries, in particular for textiles, mining and the iron and steel and engineering trades. In 1943, the Government of the United Kingdom submitted to the Governing Body proposals put forward by Ernest Bevin, then Minister of Labour and National Service, for the formation within the International Labour Organization of a number of Industrial Committees. This general plan raised a number of problems which were considered by a Committee of the International Labour Conference at its Twenty-Sixth Session (Philadelphia, 1944). At its Ninety-Fourth Session (Geneva, January 1945), the Governing Body decided to set up such Committees for several industries, including inland transport, and in 1946 an eighth was added. These Committees aim, generally speaking, at achieving two purposes: firstly, to improve conditions of employment and social conditions in their respective industries – an improvement which it should be easier to promote thanks to the cooperation and agreement of the

ITF representatives at a meeting of the ILO Inland Transport Committee. From left to right: G. Devaux, Chairman of the ITF Railwaymen's Section; Omer Becu, General Secretary; R. Santley (ITF Secretariat). The ITF first called for the establishment of special ILO machinery to deal with transport at its Luxembourg Congress in 1938



parties concerned, i.e., governments, employers and workers – and, secondly, to take part in the general work of the Organization in contributing to social progress and world peace. The Governing Body invited twenty-six countries to be represented at the First Session of the Inland Transport Committee which was held in London in December 1945. Six other countries were later granted membership, so that at its Fifth Session (Geneva, February, 1954) the following thirty-two countries were represented: Argentina, Australia, Belgium, Brazil, Canada, Chile, China, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Egypt, Finland, France, Federal Republic of Germany, Greece, India, Italy, Japan, Luxembourg, Mexico, Netherlands, Norway, Pakistan, Peru, Poland, Portugal, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, Union of South Africa, United Kingdom, United States, and Yugoslavia. The meetings are now held at intervals of about two years and last for two weeks. Each member-country is entitled to send two Government delegates, two employers' delegates and two workers' delegates, together with, if they so wish, substitutes and technical advisers. The non-governmental delegates are appointed by the Governments, in agreement, as far as possible, with the employers' and workers' or-

ganizations having a substantial membership in the industry. In addition, representatives and observers of governmental and non-governmental international organizations take part in the proceedings: the ITF has accordingly been represented at all the sessions of the Inland Transport Committee. The agenda of each session is fixed by the Governing Body. It includes, in addition to a General Report dealing with the effect given to the conclusions adopted at previous sessions and with recent developments in the industry, one or more technical items suggested in the light of the Committee's own requests. The International Labour Office prepares reports on each of the agenda items. The conclusions adopted by the Committee, which may take the form of resolutions, reports, or memoranda, are submitted in the first place to the Governing Body which has to decide on the action to be taken to give effect to them. They are then as a rule communicated to governments and, through the latter, to the employers' and workers' organizations concerned.

The establishment of the Inland Transport Committee, just at a time when the Organization was facing the huge task of reconstruction and development, was to enable the ILO to carry

Dock workers in the port of Rotterdam. At its Fifth Session, held in February 1954, the ILO Inland Transport Committee adopted a document setting forth recommended minimum standards for welfare facilities in ports

on its work in this particular field with renewed energy and efficiency.

The work of the ILO

An attempt will now be made to give some indication – of necessity very condensed – of the work of the ILO relating to each of the main labour problems, following more or less the order in which these subjects are dealt with in the *International Labour Code*. This work, published by the International Labour Office in 1952, reproduces assembled by subject matter, the texts of all the Conventions and Recommendations adopted by the International Labour Conference. Its second volume brings together the main conclusions adopted by Industrial Committees, Regional Conferences and other ILO bodies up to the end of 1951.*)

A preliminary remark applicable to most of the subjects discussed below should be made. The provisions of the Conventions and Recommendations adopted by the International Labour Conference with a few exceptions apply to inland transport whenever their scope includes industrial undertakings in general. There can be no question of analyzing this article or these general provisions: a somewhat more detailed indication, however, is given of the conclusions which apply specifically to inland transport.

Employment and unemployment

The Conference has not drawn up any text on problems of employment and unemployment relating specifically to inland transport but it has dealt in a general way with employment service organization, vocational guidance and training and large-scale public works, to mention but a few of the matters covered.

As for the Inland Transport Committee, it discussed employment problems in a general way as they affect all branches of transport and also considered especially the position of dock workers. The resolution concerning em-



ployment in inland transport adopted in 1947 covers the following matters: full employment; the part played by the coordination of transport; placing of workers; apprenticeship; vocational training and retraining; promotion; and exchanges of vocational training instructors and trainees. The question of the decasualization or regularization of the employment of dock workers was also dealt with in a resolution adopted in 1949. At that session also a resolution was adopted on technical methods for the selection of workers for the inland transport industry.

Wages

With regard to wages, the main standards of social policy adopted by the ILO are general in scope and include transport. The Minimum Wage-Fixing Machinery Convention, 1928 (No. 26) stipulates that machinery, with which the employers and workers concerned shall be associated, shall be created or maintained in cases in which no arrangements exist for the efficient regulation of wages by collective agreement or otherwise or where wages are exceptionally low. The same principle was

endorsed by the Inland Transport Committee in 1947 in a resolution on Industrial Relations in Inland Transport. At 1 March 1954, the Convention had been ratified by twenty-six countries and was accompanied by a Recommendation (No. 30) on the same subject.

At its Thirty-Second Session, the Conference adopted the Protection of Wages Convention, 1949 (No. 95) as well as a Recommendation (No. 85) on the same subject. At 1 March 1954, nine countries had ratified the Convention.

At its Thirty-Fourth Session, in 1951, the Conference adopted the Equality of Remuneration Convention (No. 100) and Recommendation (No. 90) establishing the principle of equal remuneration for men and women workers for work of equal value.

Other ILO meetings also adopted conclusions in this field, especially the Third Conference of American States Members of the ILO (1946) and the Preparatory Asian Regional Conference (1947). It may also be mentioned that in 1951 a Meeting of Experts laid down the general principles governing the use of systems of payment by results, the text of which was distributed to the Inland

*) Chapter I of the *General Report* (Item I(c)) prepared for the fifth Session of the Inland Transport Committee and published in 1953 can be used as a kind of annotated guide to the provisions of the *Code* which relate to inland transport.

Transport Committee in 1951. Finally, in 1949 the Inland Transport Committee, in a resolution on the regularization of employment of dockers, urged that consideration should be given to the need for providing, where applicable, a guaranteed minimum income for registered regular dockers who are available for work. The *International Labour Review* published in March-April 1951 an article on the stabilization of dock workers' earnings.

Hours of work

The International Labour Conference dealt with hours of work on several occasions. The Hours of Work (Industry) Convention, 1919 (No. 1) aims at limiting normal hours of work to forty-eight in a week and eight or nine in a day and applies explicitly to inland transport. It came into force in 1921 and at 1 March 1954 had been ratified by twenty-nine countries. The Forty-Hour Week Convention (No. 47) adopted by the Conference in 1935 has been ratified by New Zealand only and is therefore not yet in force. At its Twenty-Fourth Session (Geneva, 1938), the Conference had before it a report on the Regulation of Hours of Work and Rest Periods of Professional Drivers (and their assistants) of Vehicles engaged in Road Transport, a matter which also came before it in the following year. The Hours of Work and Rest Periods (Road Transport) Convention, 1939 (No. 67), however, has been ratified by Cuba and Uruguay only and will only come into force as between these two countries in March 1955. It should also be mentioned that in 1939 the Conference had before it a substantial report on the Generalization of the Reduction of Hours of Work, two volumes of which were devoted to transport.

Several Recommendations concerning hours of work in inland transport have also been adopted by the International Labour Conference. The first of these, adopted in 1920, asks governments to limit the normal hours of work in inland navigation as far as possible, and taking into account the conditions peculiar to that branch of transport, to forty-eight a week and eight a day, and suggests that agreements on these lines should be entered into between States riparian to waterways which are used in common by their boats. Four Recommendations adopted in 1939 concern road transport and relate to the contents

of individual control books, the authorization and limitation of night work, the methods of regulation of hours of work, for instance by joint collective machinery, and to the desirability of regulating the rest periods of private chauffeurs.

In March 1939, a Preparatory Technical Conference on Hours of Work in Rail Transport met in Geneva and the possibility of entering this subject as an item on the agenda of the conference had been considered. It has not, however, been taken up again since then.

The Inland Transport Committee has naturally been concerned with hours of work, especially with regard to the failure to secure ratifications of Convention No. 67. As suggested in resolutions adopted in 1947 and 1949, the Office ascertained from governments the position in this matter and submitted to the Committee in 1951 an analysis of the replies received. The Committee then invited the Governing Body to open, as soon as possible, the procedure for the revision of this Convention. The Governing Body, however, considered that the Inland Transport Committee should define the items which should be included in a possible revision and should seek to ensure that a general agreement on it could be reached. The

The Director-General of the International Labour Organization, David A. Morse, addressing a plenary session of the Inland Transport Committee. Seated on his right is Luis Alvarado, Assistant Director-General



Committee considered this matter in conjunction with the agenda of its Fifth Session in 1954, the first technical item of which related to conditions of employment in road transport. Though favouring revision, the Committee did not insist on this being taken up immediately and the Governing Body decided to wait until experience had been gained as a result of the action taken in the light of other relevant instruments and, in particular, the Memorandum concerning Conditions of Employment in Inland Transport which the Inland Transport Committee adopted in 1954 and of the Annex on Conditions of Employment attached to the General Agreement on Economic Regulations for International Road Transport in Europe.

The second of these instruments – the Agreement on International Transport in Europe – contains the principle of the average forty-eight hour week with at most nine hours' driving time a day, with a daily rest of, as a rule, ten hours which may be reduced to eight hours once a week or if there are two drivers, one of whom can stretch out in the vehicle. The Memorandum of the Inland Transport Committee advocates the following limits: (a) forty-eight hours a week and eight to eleven hours a day of normal hours of actual work averaged over not more than four weeks where that system is practised; (b) in long-distance transport, if the vehicle is manned by two drivers, 146 hours of work,



Spare time at sea

including overtime, for each driver in any fortnight (in these cases the daily hours of work may be extended to fourteen for two days in the week and up to thirteen hours for the remaining days); (c) total driving time for each driver should not exceed ten hours during any twenty-four hours and should not be more than nine hours calculated as an average over three consecutive days in certain specified cases. There should be a daily rest of at least eleven hours averaged over four weeks (except in the case of transport operations and services subject to substantial breaks or if a vehicle is manned by two drivers and is so equipped as to enable one of them to stretch out at rest) and, in any case, of not less than eight hours.

Holidays with pay

The Holidays with Pay Convention, 1936 (No. 52), which applies to transport, provides for a holiday with pay of at least a week, to increase with length of service. It came into force in 1949 and as at 1 March 1954 had been ratified by fifteen States. A new Recommendation (No. 98), adopted by the Conference at its recent session in June 1954, urges the extension of the minimum holiday period to two weeks. The Inland Transport Committee in 1954 considered that drivers of road vehicles and their attendants should be entitled to an annual holiday with pay no shorter than that granted to industrial workers in general.

(to be continued)

Two international agreements covering the social security and working conditions respectively of Rhine boatmen were negotiated at a series of conferences held under ILO auspices during 1949 and 1950



AN INTERESTING DEVELOPMENT IN THE MARITIME FIELD during the last few years has been the increased attention paid to the problems created by the fact that the seafarer lives in what is virtually a closed community, cut off from many of the amenities which are taken for granted by his fellow-workers ashore. During duty hours, this partial isolation is perhaps not too obvious. Most of us, whether we work at sea or on land, have grown tolerably used to spending at least part of our waking hours in the company of the same group of people, and to doing the same or similar things every day of our lives.

It is, of course, during his free time that the seafarer begins to realize how handicapped he is by comparison with the landsman. In fact, he is tied to his place of work and his workmates in a way which has few parallels in other fields of human activity. For him, the Saturday afternoon football match; the cinema; the concert hall; the dance-floor; the public library; and even the quiet drink at the pub might just as well not exist for most of the time.

For that reason, merchant navy welfare organizations, both official and voluntary, are now devoting an ever-larger proportion of their resources to providing the seafarer with substitutes or compensations for the recreational facilities which are lacking on board ship. We read, for instance, of the seafarers' library schemes operated in Great Britain, Sweden, and the United States; of world football championships and other athletic events organized by sports clubs on ships of many nations, particularly the Scandinavian; of study circles and discussion groups; and even of such ambitious projects as the large-scale provision of film equipment and regular supplies of films.

And yet - as is so often the case - some of the simplest and seemingly most obvious links may sometimes be overlooked. For example, in an article on the leisure time problem which appeared in *Sjömannen*, Brother Ernst Kastner of the Swedish Seamen's Union has drawn attention to inadequate sightseeing facilities in port and to the lack of suitable handbooks which could help seafarers in the choice of a worthwhile spare-time activity.

As regards the latter, Brother Kastner would perhaps be interested to learn that British seafarers, at any rate, have recently been provided with an excellent guide not only to the organization of shipboard recreational activities in general but also to the wealth of literature

which exists on individual hobbies and pastimes.

The book, *Spare Time at Sea* (Maritime Press, price 12s.6d.), has been published under the auspices of the British Seafarers' Education Service. Its author, Dr Ronald Hope, who is Director of the Service, has produced a volume which goes a long way towards realizing his aim - that of helping seafarers to a fuller enjoyment of their off-duty periods.

Dr Hope devotes his introductory chapter to a general discussion of the use of leisure on board and gives a number of practical examples of how effectively the problem can be solved, even on smaller vessels, provided only that enthusiasm and the willingness to cooperate are there. The following extract from a letter written by a seaman gives some idea of what can be done:

'The voyage started off with a visit from Neptune, and photographs of this event were sent to the British Ship Adoption Society. Lively debates took place once a week, typical subjects being: "Should we have continental hours of licensing in Great Britain?" "Should capital punishment be abolished" and "Should teenagers be allowed to marry?" There was also a farce described as "Five men in a boat", in which various members of the crew assumed the identities of famous personalities who were supposed to be in a life-boat without sufficient rations for all. Each had to give reason why he should not be thrown overboard, and it is interesting to note that, despite considerable eloquence, a well-known actress and a vociferous politician - an incongruous couple - were cast out. Sessions of "Twenty Questions" were also arranged, and a "Trial by Jury" held, in which Guy Fawkes was tried for failing to blow up the Houses of Parliament!

'Tombola was played once a week, and two of the crew edited a weekly magazine for which contributions rolled

in from every department, ranging from the humorous to the provocative, from news summaries to "Aunt Mildred's Advice Column".

Dr. Hope also sets out a specimen weekly programme of entertainment, but couples it with the warning that such programmes should not be too rigorously adhered to. As he puts it: 'No one wants to be over-organized and no programme should ever be allowed to become a fetish'.

One of the things that strikes one about *Spare Time at Sea*, is that although Dr Hope has written (or, as he prefers it, 'compiled') an eminently practical book, with the limitations of ship-board life kept constantly in mind, he has nevertheless not made the error of confining himself exclusively to the traditional standbys of the bored seafarer. In the sections dealing with sports and games, for instance, we find very complete descriptions of the old favourites side-by-side with suggestions for new departures and advice on how to adapt shore activities which might otherwise be considered too ambitious to confined spaces. Or again, in the chapter entitled 'Radio and News', practical hints on the organization of the ever-popular sweep-stake are found next to a section designed to show that the production of a ship's magazine is not quite so formidable a task as it might seem.

The same is true of the chapters on hobbies. Although Dr Hope admits that he has been unable to do more than mention a few of the hundreds of possible subjects, one is nevertheless impressed by the wide range of interests which he has managed to cover. Model-making, certain types of sea-fishing, astronomy, photography, and ship and aircraft recognition are among the things which one expects in a handbook of this kind, but Dr Hope has not stopped there. We also find short but readable articles on plastics, heraldry, metalwork and jewellery, book-binding, puppetry, and even embroidery and knitting, both of which, incidentally, are described as popular hobbies with some seamen. (This claim will, of course, not surprise anyone who has listened to Mr James Norbury, a recognized male authority on knitting).

The articles on individual pastimes are naturally not meant to deal exhaustively with their subjects. They are, in fact, no more than appetizers, but in most cases give sufficient information to

enable the seafarer looking for a new interest to decide whether or not the subject is worth further enquiry. If it is, then he can refer to the carefully-chosen list of books with which Dr Hope has provided him in an appendix. Nor has the seafarer interested in extending his professional knowledge been forgotten. A further appendix lists some of the books which will help him to improve his qualifications.

The final chapter of *Spare Time at Sea* is devoted to a short survey of the many ways in which that department of the Seafarers' Education Service known as the College of the Sea can help the British seafarer to develop his own interests and abilities in any way to which he is naturally drawn.


He can, for instance, borrow non-fiction on personal loan from among the 200,000 books which the Service has in its library. The only charge made is the cost of postage and the only restriction that expensive nautical text-books are not normally loaned. No limit is placed on

the number of books borrowed and loans are made for several months at a time.

The Service will also help any seafarer who wants to study a subject or develop a hobby. The assistance given takes the form not only of advice and guidance, but also of continuous tuition in almost any non-technical subject. Study is arranged by means of personal correspondence between the seafarer and his tutor rather than by correspondence courses in the ordinary sense, and the College of the Sea can draw on the services of hundreds of voluntary tutors, university teachers and other experts for this work.


In the case of seamen serving on deck who are under the age of twenty-three, the Seafarers' Education Service also offers a number of scholarships each year which are designed to lead to a Second Mate's Certificate. The scholarships pay for all the necessary text-books and for a four-year course from the Southampton School of Navigation, or some other nautical school.

Government grants for Irish fishermen


 THE FISHING INDUSTRY in the Irish-speaking areas of the Irish Republic is to benefit from a grant of £80,000 which has been made from the National Development Fund for fishing boats. Four boats will be bought at £8,000 each, and the remainder will be spent over a number of years. They will be hired to Irish-speaking crews, who will be given the chance of buying them.

No payment or deposit would be needed from applicants for the fishing boats, the only condition being that they should be competent fishermen, able and willing to work hard. Such vessels would ultimately become the personal property of the fishermen.

The German tanker fleet

 GERMAN TANKER TONNAGE ON 1 November 1954 amounted to seventy-eight vessels with a gross tonnage of 236,997 compared with fifty-three tankers totalling 208,261 GRT at the outbreak of the second world war. Of the present fleet, 41.6 per cent is over twenty years old, whilst 44.5 per cent is less than five years old. The tendency to build bigger vessels is evidenced by the fact that 45.7 per cent of the total fleet is made up of vessels of over 10,000 GRT.

Proposed Asian railway research pool

 AT THE THIRD SESSION of the Railways Sub-Committee of the United Nations Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East, held in Tokyo, the Pakistani delegation suggested the creation of an Asian Railway Research Pool in which Indian, Japanese and other railways would make available their facilities to smaller railway systems in the region. Offers of assistance and cooperation were made by the representatives of France, India, Japan, the Soviet Union, the United Kingdom, and the United States.

Asian countries were recommended to make greater use of the Railway Training Centre at Lahore, set up jointly by ECAFE and the United Nations Technical Assistance Administration (TAA). The training centre, which was opened in April 1954, provides hostel accommodation and recreational facilities for up to twenty-eight students. Training facilities include classroom instruction in modern operational and signalling methods and telecommunications, and practical study tours of actual railway networks. Modern demonstration equipment for use at the centre is being provided by France, Japan, the Netherlands, and the United Kingdom.

Conditions in Indian coastal shipping



The following article, a slightly abridged version of a contribution which originally appeared in Oceanite, the official organ of the ITF-affiliated Maritime Union of India, discloses the existence of a deplorable state of affairs in India's coastal shipping industry. Commenting on the lack of amenities, miserable wages and discrimination ruling in the coastal trade, the Editor of Oceanite describes them as a blot on the name of India and calls for Government intervention to put matters right.

POORLY MANNED AND MAINTAINED IN SQUALID CONDITIONS, our ships on the coast are an eyesore. The more than one thousand officers who have been trained on board the T.S. *Dufferin* have scrupulously avoided service on them for fear of messing up their sea career.

Since its acquisition for training in 1927, 1,275 cadet officers have passed out from the *Dufferin* and all of them are eager to stick to the career which they have chosen. However, these men, who have spent both good money and years in qualifying to take up a career at sea, are often sorely tempted by the fact that Government departments and commercial firms can offer them more lucrative employment.

The vast majority are, nevertheless, fortunately still on the high seas. They man the merchant navy of our country. But hardly any of them are to be found on the Home Trade vessels.

Only fit for the scrapheap

An investigation into the reasons why the *Dufferin*-trained officers avoid the HT ships would lead to interesting results. The fifty-odd vessels on the coastal run are fairly old. They vary in age from twenty to forty years and the superstructure and hulls of some of them present a pitiable sight. Hulls are neither chipped nor painted, while the engine rooms are in a sorry state for lack of badly-needed repairs.

These ships were built to burn from 10 to 15 tons of coal and to ply at a speed varying between 9 and 12 knots. Worn-out as they are, however, they sail at 5 to 7 knots and consume 15 to 20 tons of coal.

The Home Trade shipowners are, in fact, following the dangerous policy of saving money at the expense of repairs. Valuable foreign currency is being wasted on the purchase of worn-out ships. Most of them would fetch a good price only in a junk market, yet they are tried out on our coasting services.

The manning of these junk-ships needs a serious probe. Under the Merchant Shipping Act, all vessels which are under coasting or home trade articles are required to carry three certificated officers in both the Deck and the Engine Department. What happens in practice, however? In the Deck depart-

ment, only the Master and First Officer usually hold certificates, the Second Officer being unqualified. In fact, it is not uncommon to find a ship's clerk filling the position of Second Officer aboard these ships. A cadet or apprentice is sometimes forced to carry out the multiple duties of Second Officer, ship's clerk and apprentice.

The Home Trade ships never engage third mates. On the engine side, only the officer working as chief engineer is certificated, with fitters acting as second and third engineers.

No proper pay scales

From the captain to the apprentice, everyone on board ship is interested in the monthly pay packet. On Home Trade ships, however, wages and salaries are fixed arbitrarily according to the whims and fancies of the owners, who take advantage of the officers and their need for employment.

For the same type of job, a foreign officer is paid from Rs. 700 to Rs. 1,600 a month, but Indians get only Rs. 700 to Rs. 800. A master on board a Home Trade ship of less than 2,500 tons gross receives a starting salary of Rs. 725, rising in fifteen years to 1,250. But a Norwegian or Greek master, when employed by the same companies, is paid from Rs. 1,250 to Rs. 1,500.

The all-in-one job of apprentice,

Third Officer, Clerk and Tally-Clerk carries a pittance of Rs. 75, whilst exploitation of the uncertificated officers knows no limits. Engineers or junior engineers, doing the work of third to fifth engineer, are paid from Rs. 90 to Rs. 250.

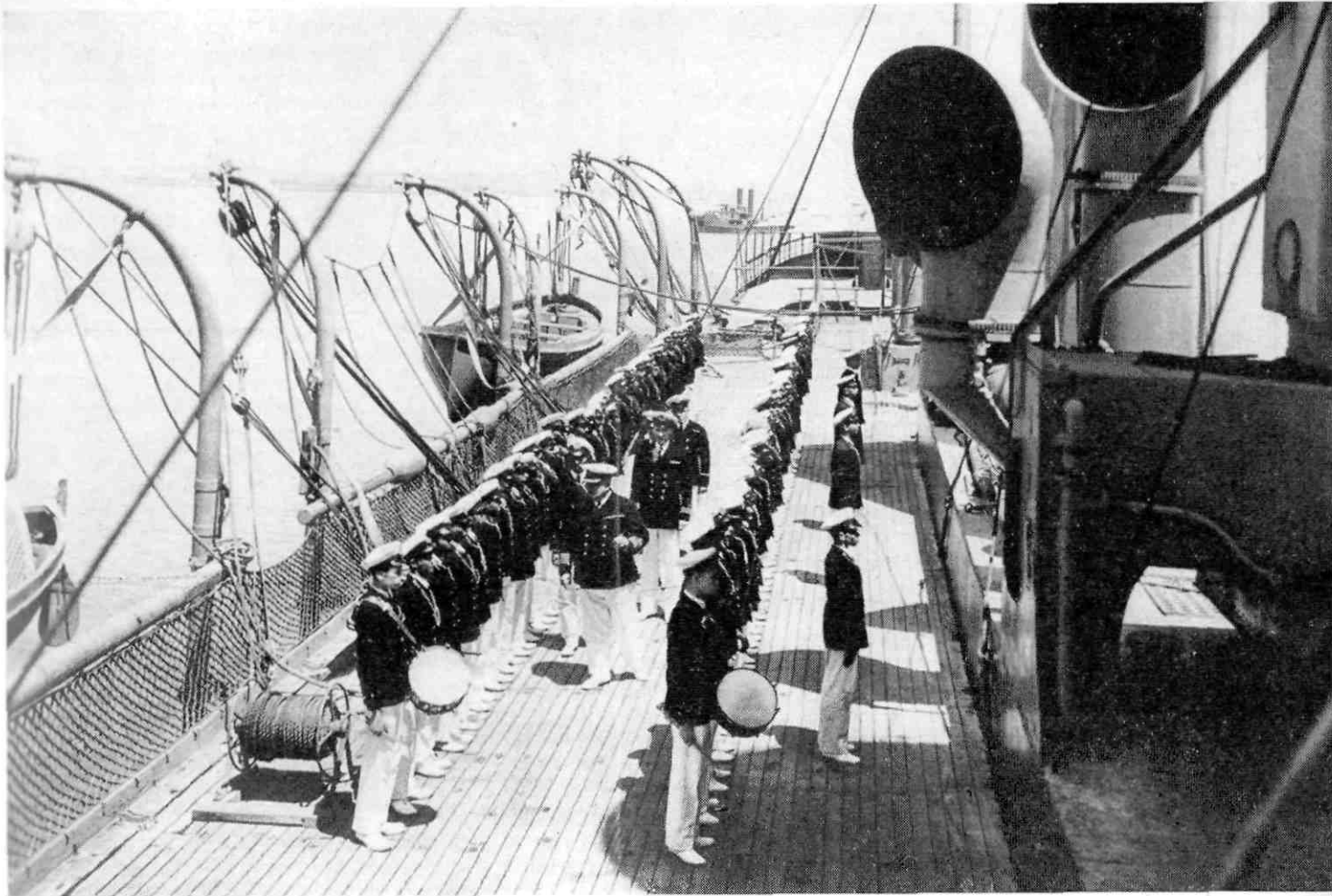
One of these companies signed a collective agreement with the Maritime Union of India some time ago, under which scales of pay were laid down for all categories. The shipowners have, however, bypassed the agreement by describing the junior officers as apprentices. Some shipowners have even refused to pay compensation to officers after their ships have been wrecked or lost at sea.

In this connection, it is interesting to note that the Government of India has fixed scales of pay for ratings in consultation with various shipowners' associations, and the Shipping Master sees to it that an ordinary seaman who signs on gets the wage laid down for him. In other words, one group of seafarers is protected by law whilst another is neglected for want of proper legislation or directives. It is indeed amazing that there should be inequity in such matters.

If the Union Government can prescribe pay scales for ratings why is it impossible or impracticable to enforce rates, or at least a minimum salary scale, for officers? Here we have the main reason why trained officers keep well away from the Home Trade vessels.

Leave virtually unknown

Even State legislatures apparently find themselves incapable of helping the officers. The Shop Establishments Act and Factories Act provide for a weekly day off and annual holidays for factory workers and shop assistants, but for officers and men on board the HT ships no such provisions exist. No weekly days off, no privilege leave, no casual leave – in fact, no leave of any kind.



Cadet officers aboard the training ship 'Dufferin'. The author of this article claims that officers who pass out from the 'Dufferin' give Indian home trade vessels a wide berth and says that investigation into the reasons would probably lead to interesting results

That is their lot! And the shipowners make it a rule to see that this practice is widely observed and rigidly enforced.

An officer employed by one of these companies recently had to go on compassionate leave for about three weeks for urgent domestic reasons. He was thereupon asked to supply a substitute. He found one, but the man was not willing to take on the job unless he was guaranteed a month's salary. As a result, the officer had to pay a month's wages out of his own pocket before he could avail himself of his eighteen days' leave.

Two years ago, it was decided to give one day's leave per month for seafarers on foreign-going ships; and the Government officials, whilst signing seamen on board ships, guaranteed the leave. This rule, however, is not applicable to Home Trade vessels. So once again the

Government discriminates between two sections of the same profession.

The Union Government is likely to extend the Provident Fund Act to seamen. A progressive measure, the Act should also include officers and engineers, who should not be the victims of discrimination once again.

A few shipping companies in India do make provision for pensions, provident funds or gratuities, but the majority of the Home Trade companies have nothing to enable officers to get an old-age pension. After serving for twenty-five to thirty years, officers are dependent on their meagre savings.

The Government should act

Some comfort, good accommodation, good food and service are also essential aboard Home Trade ships. They ply

between Kandla and Calcutta, a voyage of a month or more. They therefore carry their own stock of food, but most of them lack cold storage facilities, even of the most primitive kind. As a result, officers must more often than not live on pulses, curry and rice and / or tinned food. Crockery, linen and saloon service are meagre or not available at all.

A few steps, a few enactments and directives and the miserable conditions on the coastal vessels would be changed and they would attract able, experienced and efficient officers from all corners of the land.

We could well ask the Government of India why, while granting subsidies and tax concessions to the shipowners, it has apparently forgotten the interests of the seafarers who man the ships of India's merchant marine.

Claims of Dutch motor drivers



THE MOTOR DRIVERS' SECTION OF THE DUTCH TRANSPORT WORKERS' UNION, at its last annual meeting, adopted a series of resolutions, the chief of which deal with the following subjects:

Drivers' cabins

Technical progress in the motor industry has led to the construction of vehicles in which the driver's cabin is completely isolated from the motor. Isolation has the distinct advantage of excluding all smells and fumes but also the drawback of excluding all heat generated by the motor. The Dutch drivers insist that it should be made compulsory by law for the driver's cabin on long-distance vehicles to be equipped with a heating device.

Drivers' cafés

The Dutch authorities have come to the conclusion that drivers' cafés are an obstacle to speedy and safe traffic on certain highways and have consequently forbidden the parking of vehicles in front of such establishments. The result is that these establishments are doomed to disappear. The union finds that these cafés are a necessity for professional drivers, particularly for the purpose of taking the rests prescribed by the driving-time regulations. They therefore urge the competent authorities to seek ways and means of maintaining cafés along the highways, if need be by combining them with tanking stations.

Third party and other insurance

In carrying out their duties, drivers run the risk of suffering or causing personal injuries and material damage, for which compensation has to be paid. When the employer is not insured or unable to pay damages, the driver is made responsible. Some employers make drivers pay for damage to the vehicle or the load occasioned by minor collisions or mishaps. The conference was of the opinion that such responsibility should never be put on the shoulders of the drivers and asks for legislation making it compulsory for employers to be insured against all risks inherent in road transport.

Technical supervision

Inquiries into accidents caused by goods vehicles have revealed that some accidents were due to mechanical defects. The conference asks for legislation providing that goods vehicles should be subjected to the same periodical supervision as passenger vehicles.

Application of collective agreements

The collective agreements bind only the undertakings affiliated with the employers' organization that is the signatory of a collective agreement. In many cases, the conditions of employment of drivers employed by undertakings which are not members of such an employers' association are less favourable than those provided by the agreements. The conference urged that ways and means should be found to make collective agreements compulsory for all transport undertakings.

Brakes in international transport

With a view to reducing the number and the gravity of accidents in international road transport, the conference urged legislation making it compulsory for all vehicles to be equipped with brakes deriving their power from the engine.

Manning of vehicles in international transport

The conference asked for legislation making compulsory the manning of vehicles in international transport by two drivers and the strict application of the forty-eight hour week in international transport.

Maximum driving and working times

The legal regulations concerning driving and working times being under revision, the conference asked for a stipulation that both the employer and the employee be made responsible for the observance of maximum driving and working times

and subject to penalty in case of breach of the regulations. The conference further asked that in the new regulation no distinction should be made between working hours and service hours and that working time be limited to forty-eight hours a week on an average.

Vocational training and grading of drivers

The conference asked that the union and all responsible bodies devote more attention and means to vocational training of drivers. It asked further that drivers' certificates be instituted. The certificates should be graded according to the degree of skill and ability and state the category of vehicle the holder of the certificate is entitled to drive. To each grade should also apply a corresponding wage scale.

European transport

The conference was of the opinion that the present policy in European transport was too much governed by national interests and is therefore beset with international difficulties and economic inconsistencies. It pledged its support for the endeavours of the ITF to obtain the setting up of a democratic European transport authority in which proper representation of the transport workers should be ensured.

International Bank aid for El Salvador road development

A LOAN OF \$11,100,000, the second of two intended to assist the Government of El Salvador in its programme of social and industrial development, has recently been made by the International Bank to cover the costs of imported equipment and foreign services needed for the completion of a highway network to cover the fertile Pacific coastal region of El Salvador.

Work on the construction of the 180 mile-long main coastal road, to extend from the Guatemalan frontier to the port of La Union on the Bay of Fonseca, has been in progress for several years, and a 24-mile stretch of it is already open to traffic. It is expected that the remainder will be completed within a period of three to four years.

It is hoped, as a result of the opening up of the coastal region, to encourage agricultural development, hampered up to the present by lack of all-weather roads and the resulting high transport costs.

International Transport Workers' Federation

President: A. DEAKIN

General Secretary: O. BECU

Asst. General Secretary: P. TOFAHRN

7 industrial section catering for

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

- Founded in London in 1896
- Reconstituted at Amsterdam in 1919
- Headquarters in London since the outbreak of the Second World War
- 160 affiliated organizations in 54 countries
- Total membership: 6,000,000

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 economic, 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
Chile ● Columbia ● Cuba ● Denmark
Ecuador ● Egypt ● Estonia (Exile) ● Finland
France ● Germany ● Great Britain
Greece ● Grenada ● Hong Kong ● Iceland
India ● Israel ● Italy ● Jamaica
Japan ● Kenya ● Lebanon ● Luxembourg
Mexico ● The Netherlands
New Zealand ● Nigeria ● Norway
Nyasaland ● Pakistan ● Poland (Exile)
Republic of Ireland ● Rhodesia
Saar ● St. Lucia ● South Africa
Spain (Illegal Underground Movement)
Surinam ● Sweden ● Switzerland
Syria ● Trieste ● Trinidad ● Tunisia ● Uruguay
United States of America



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