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Forthcoming meetings:

London	15-16 April 1964 Civil Aviation Flying Staff Meeting
Stockholm	26 May 1964 Railwaymen's Section Committee
Stockholm	27-30 May 1964 Railwaymen's Section Conference
Vienna	8-10 June 1964 Executive Board

Comment

Anything to declare?

THE PERMANENT TECHNICAL COMMITTEE of the Customs Cooperation Council, is preparing an international instrument for easing the customs restrictions which hamper the free circulation of books, magazines, films and other welfare material supplied to ships by seafarers' welfare services. The Committee is expected to finish work on the instrument in September next, so that it can be formally adopted by the Council, ratified by governments and enter into force during 1965.

The object of the instrument is to abolish the customs duties and time-consuming admission procedures which in some areas are a serious obstacle to the proper functioning of welfare services. At the meeting in Brussels, an example was cited of a ship which could only obtain permission to land a film for a showing in a shore establishment by paying customs dues so exorbitant that they almost exceeded the costs of producing the film. Other evidence of how the provision of seafarers' welfare is impaired came from Sweden. There are some 250 Swedish ships with cinematographic equipment and a total stock of 1400 main films and 400 short films. Under existing conditions, however, these can only be utilized six times a year on an average.


The instrument will in the first place cover foreign ships engaged in international traffic and also include conditional provisions to aid the flow, by the so-called temporary admission procedure, to and from welfare establishment ashore. The ITF observer who attended to put the seafarers' case emphasized the special character of life on board ship. For a good deal of the time the seafarer is cut off from home life and social intercourse and from the ever-growing amenities of life ashore. Well developed and smoothly functioning welfare services are no more than a necessary compensation to fill this void in the seafarers' existence. This point was sympathetically received by the Committee.

This positive development follows a resolution calling for the easing of customs requirements which was adopted two and a half years ago by the Tripartite Subcommittee on Seafarers' Welfare of the ILO Joint Maritime Commission. It marks an important step towards attaining the welfare objectives of the ITF's International Seafarers' Charter.

Apartheid in the trade unions



Strikes of African workers are illegal. They have taken place however, to be met with fierce repression and victimization. Even when employers have been willing to be reasonable, the government has done its best to keep African standards at a minimum

 AFRICAN WORKERS in South Africa first began to organize in the 1920s, after strikes of mine-workers – both White and African – over an ‘equal pay for equal work’ dispute had led to further industrial unrest and the passage in 1924 of an Industrial Conciliation Act which excluded most Africans from the term ‘employees’. This deprived them of the right to participate in bargaining and conciliation machinery set up by the Act, and to belong to registered trade unions. Only in areas where no Native pass laws or regulations were in force could Africans engage in these activities, and in 1937 a further Industrial Conciliation Act was introduced which effectively put the vast majority of African wage earners outside the scope of statutory collective bargaining machinery or registered trade unions. However, as protection for the White wage standards, the 1937 Act did provide that African workers might be covered by Industrial Council agreements in cases where employers might otherwise employ Africans at lower rates of pay.

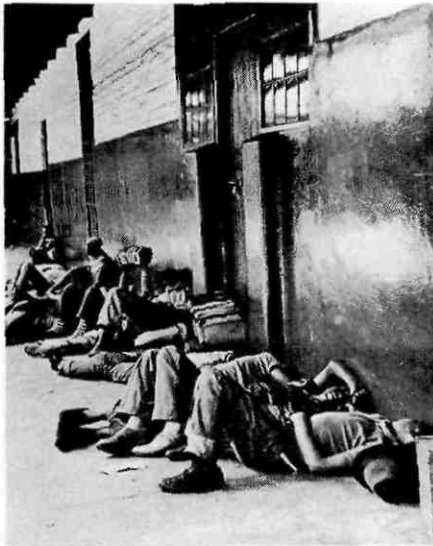
Wrapped in his blanket and with his thoughts far away, this young African mine worker sits in the cage-like barracks where he and his mates exist from day to day



By the 1950s, nearly thirty per cent of Africans were working in urban areas, and sixty-five per cent of these were settled urban dwellers. Today there are seven million African workers outside the reserves, employed in nearly every branch of the South African economy in jobs requiring various degrees of skill.

Africans are not in fact prohibited from belonging to their own trade unions, but these organizations cannot be registered, nor can Africans belong to unions which also count White or Coloured (mixed race and/or Asian) workers among their members. The number of African trade unions grew quite fast between 1939 and 1945, but declined thereafter as the obstacles to effective action became greater and the members discouraged as a consequence. And the difficulties are certainly overwhelming. Chief among them is the fact that because they cannot be registered, African trade

unions cannot participate in any of the statutory negotiating or conciliation machinery, and employers are seldom willing to deal with their representatives even on an informal basis. In addition their membership is composed in the main of workers who are frequently moving from one occupation or industry to another, which makes for instability. The collection of union dues is another problem, since employers will not readily give access to union organizers or collectors, and are prevented by law from operating the checkoff system. It is also extremely difficult for groups of African workers to meet. Gatherings at workplaces are nearly always prohibited, they can rarely obtain the hire of halls, and permission must be sought for gatherings of more than ten people in Native areas. Last, but by no means least, most of the potential leaders of African workers' organizations are prevented from holding office under



The South African government has deprived African workers of any right to participate in effective trade union activity. African unions, while not illegal, cannot register

the Suppression of Communism Act, which permits of a very broad definition of communism. ('You are a communist if the government says so'.) Offices of African organizations are frequently raided, and papers seized.

A certain degree of recognition and assistance has been received from some White trade union organizations, but these efforts always come up against the stumbling-block of non-registration and the government's apartheid policies. Recommendations that African trade unions be accorded registration, of however limited a nature, have always been turned down by the government.

The plight of coloured workers who wish to have the benefits of trade union membership is also worth mentioning. Whilst not so desperate as that of the Africans, their position is extremely difficult, caught as they are between two groups. By means of the Industrial Conciliation Act of 1956 the government has sought to deprive coloured workers of the industrial strength they might have borrowed from the White trade unions. No new union can now be granted registration which is open to both White and coloured members. Those which before the Act had mixed membership had either to form entirely separate branches for their White and Coloured members, or split into separate unions. In the former case, when the unions remain 'mixed' in theory, the executives have to be all White.

Of the national trade union groupings, there are the SA Confederation of La-

bour, pro-government and virtually all White in membership; the Trade Union Council of South Africa (ICFTU-affiliated) with registered White, mixed and Coloured unions (since 1963 open to unregistered African unions); the S.A. Congress of Trade Unions, with mixed, Coloured and African unions; and the Federation of African Trade Unions of South Africa (affiliated to the ICFTU). Several unions are outside these groupings.

In 1953 the Native Labour (Settlement of Disputes) Act completed the process of excluding all Africans from the term 'employee'. It set up separate Industrial Council machinery for Africans (excluding domestic and farm labour, government and education authority employees and gold and coal miners) consisting of Regional Native Labour Committees composed of African members appointed by the Ministry of Labour, under a European chairman — the Native Labour Officer for the region. There is also a Central Native Labour Board composed of Europeans, again appointed by the Ministry of Labour. These bodies are designed to settle labour disputes, but are not obliged in any way to recognize the legitimate claims of African trade unions to represent the interests of their members. Their domination by government-appointed Whites does not inspire the African workers to believe in their impartiality or real concern for the interests of those over whose

Africans cannot belong to the same trade unions as White or Coloured workers, and their economic conditions are laid down by White-dominated Native Labour Committees which do not have to consult the unions



economic and social destinies they preside. Strikes of African workers are illegal. They have occurred, however, and have been met with stern repressive measures, violence, victimization and intimidation of all kinds. One example was in 1957, when African workers, employed at the Port Elizabeth docks, refused to work overtime or at weekends unless they were granted higher wages and improved working conditions. Some of them, employed by private stevedoring companies, receive 11s. 6d. per day worked; but as there was not always a full week's work available their average daily pay worked out at the princely sum of 6s. 6d. Others who were casual workers employed by the Railways Administration were paid inclusive amounts of 9s. 7d. per day worked for married men, and 7s. 3d. for single men. The dockers demanded £1 5s. a day. The Divisional Inspector of Labour, together with the Native Commissioner and a member of the local Native Labour Committee, met the men, expressed the view that their demand was unreasonable, but promised an investigation if they returned to full working hours. They refused this offer.

The government then decided to break the 'work-to-rule' which, the Minister of Labour said, had occurred as a result of incitement by 'agitators'. Convicts were used for four days to do the work — this drew a strongly worded protest from the ITF — and were then replaced by African strikebreakers brought for the

The arbitrary powers of the South African police to detain for questioning or circumscribe the activities of anyone suspected of 'agitating' mean that African trade unions may be deprived of effective leadership






Besides being denied registration, African unions have to face difficulties such as being refused access to factories and worksites for the collection of union dues and the virtual impossibility of holding trade union meetings of any size. (Photos from the Movement for Colonial Freedom and Anti-Apartheid Headquarters, Great Britain)

purpose to Port Elizabeth from the Transkei. Meanwhile the private companies offered their employees an increase of 3s. a day. On hearing of this, the government strongly 'advised' them not to pay an increase of more than 1s. a day. (These companies required government permission to operate in the dock area.) Further protests from the South African and international trade union movements resulted in the withdrawal of the strikebreakers and the dockers returned to their jobs with a promise from the Minister of a Wage Board investigation. Early in 1959 – two years later – a minimum wage order for all ports was published giving dockers 15s. a day.

The latest piece of legislation contemplated by the South African government to keep the African workers in their place is the Bantu Laws (Amendment) Bill which would give the government complete control over the labour and movement of all African workers outside the Reserves. The Bill amounts to legalizing forced labour, and is of a piece with the job reservation provisions of the Industrial Conciliation Act 1956 (amended 1959). The latter effectively prevents African workers from being employed in any kind of skilled job – a device to protect White workers whose ability might otherwise be questioned.

South Africa has failed conspicuously to abide by the principles of the International Labour Organization. She is now no longer a member of that body. Nevertheless, under the ILO Constitution, she is still bound by those Conventions which she has ratified. Her belated withdrawal from the ILO was inevitable in face of the mounting flood of protest and indignation from other member states.

Faster rail travel

 SOME NATIONAL RAIL NETWORKS already operate high speed expresses between important centres. Examples of the fastest ones are: the Paris-Lyon express in France, which completes the 511 km journey in 4 hours 5 minutes at an average speed of 125.1 km per hour, and a Russian express, which covers the 650 km distance between Moscow and Leningrad in 5 hours 27 minutes at an average speed of 119.2 km per hour. An express linking Frankfurt, Western Germany, with Zürich in Switzerland covers its 337 km route in 3 hours 12 minutes at an average speed of 105.3 km per hour, and the London-Bristol express in Great Britain travels its 191 km journey in 1 hour 45 minutes at an average speed of 109.1 km per hour. Japan is preparing to introduce a new rail service between Tokyo and

Osaka (515 km), which will operate with electric rail cars running at maximum speeds of 250 km per hour.

The Inland Transport Committee of the UN Economic Commission for Europe has begun, through its Subcommittee on Rail Transport, to study problems connected with increasing the speeds of existing rail transport services. A preliminary study has already been prepared.

Speeds may be increased by considerable margins. But the problems involved are numerous and complex. They include, besides special technical features of the locomotives used, the use of suitable track, suitable rolling stock to make up the trains, suitable brakes, and the introduction of remote and automatic control devices which ensure safety and make it possible to increase the density of traffic on a given line.

Passenger traffic


Experience has shown that passenger trains can be operated at maximum speeds of 160 km per hour without any drastic modification of the track. But for trains running at such speeds, better brakes are needed, smoother running bogies, powerful locomotives, improved signalling, and centralized control and block systems. It is particularly important to eliminate such speed reducing factors as frequent passage over points and small radius curves, and to cut down the number of stops made by a train on its journey.

Running trains at speeds of 200 to 250 km per hour creates special problems. Modern track design makes possible speeds in the order of 300 km per hour, but wind resistance to the train would be so great that the extra locomotive horsepower needed would render travel at such a speed extremely uneconomical. At speeds of 200 to 250 km per hour 90 per cent of motor power is expended on overcoming wind resistance. If a 4000 kw electric locomotive is needed to pull a train at a speed of 160 km per hour, a 9000 kw locomotive would be needed for the train's speed to be increased to 250 km per hour. This represents an increase in power of 140 per cent. Other modifications would also be necessary to permit these speeds. The state of the permanent way would need to be improved, jointless rails would have to be laid and rolling stock would have to be streamlined and improved for better running on curves.

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British unions' views on vehicle licensing



 EVIDENCE has recently been submitted to a Committee on Carriers' Licensing by the British TUC in association with the unions chiefly concerned in organizing road haulage workers – the Transport & General Workers' Union, the United Road Transport Workers' Association, the Scottish Horse and Motormen's Association, the Union of Shop, Distributive and Allied Workers, the National Union of General and Municipal Workers and the National Union of Railwaymen. The present road haulage licensing provisions date from the Road and Rail Traffic Act of 1933, and the Committee's task is to investigate the problems which have arisen in present-day conditions. Below we summarize the TUC's recommendations to the committee and the reasons for them.

('A', or public carriers', licences grant the right to transport goods for other persons for hire or reward anywhere without restriction. 'A' contract licences are for vehicles which are hired out to one firm for a period of a year or more. 'B' licence operators are permitted to carry goods for others subject to limitations as to radius, type of goods, etc. and on their own account in connexion with any other business they may run. 'C' licences are available for transport on own account, and there is a 'C' Hiring licence where the vehicle is hired out for own account transport and maintained at the owner's cost, whilst drivers are provided by the hiring firm.)

The TUC feels that there should be only two types of licences, 'A' and 'C'. 'C' licence operators should have in future to supply proof that their carriage needs could not be met satisfactorily in any other way, and have to answer objections to their applications in the same manner as 'A' licence operators at present. All other types of licences should be abolished. The regulations, particularly those relating to drivers' hours, keeping of records and maintenance of vehicles, should be more strictly enforced, and breaches of the regulations should be more heavily punished.

The TUC finds that the growth in the numbers of 'A' licences granted since 1938 has risen by only 6.9 per cent whilst the number of operators has fallen by 39 per cent. This demonstrates that the 1933 Act has succeeded, by the strictness of its conditions and the difficulty which it placed in the way of obtaining new or additional 'A' licences, in keeping the growth of these licences in reasonable proportion.

The number of 'B' licences granted over the same period, however, has risen by 33 per cent. In the TUC's view the regulations governing the issue of these licences leave far too much room for entry into the general haulage field by operators who take the opportunity of supplementing their income from their normal business by taking work away from 'A' licence operators. In circumstances where the carriage of goods for hire or reward is only ancillary to the operator's main business, there is the obvious temptation to quote less than the recognized rates in order to obtain work. There is also difficulty in checking the driver's actual hours of driving when he is changing from his normal work to driving duties and back. There is evidence to suppose that in some cases 'B' licence operators overstep the limits attached to their licence.



The issue of 'A' Contract licences has proved to be a convenient means of entry into the general haulage field for operators who cannot obtain 'A' licences or for the re-entry of those who have had their licences withdrawn for failure to observe the regulations covering 'A' licences. Since 1938 the number of these licences has risen by over 200 per cent, and the TUC is convinced that the work done under these licences could without difficulty be carried by 'A' licence operators.

Between 1938 and 1962 vehicles operating with 'C' licences increased in number by 235 per cent. Such a rate of increase was never visualized when the 1933 Act was passed. That Act was based on the assumption that it would be impracticable and indeed unnecessary to prevent firms from carrying their own raw materials and manufactures in their own vehicles, or wholesale and retail distributors from carrying their own foodstuffs and similar goods. This type of operator was therefore virtually excluded from the Act, except as far as drivers' hours of work, keeping of records and vehicle maintenance were concerned, and 'C' licences can be obtained with ease.

The unions feel that the rapid growth of 'C' licensed vehicles has seriously undermined the intentions of the Act. They consider that such vehicles should be restricted to transport operations which are integral to the concern which owns them, and should not undertake work which could more effectively be performed by general hauliers. 'Proof of need' ought to be required on similar lines to that at present needed to obtain an 'A' licence. 'C' Hiring licences are merely expedients for firms which want the best of two worlds, i.e. direct control of the staff without the responsibility of buying and maintaining vehicles. The operator is responsible for the wages, observance of working hours' regulations and keeping records, whilst the owner is responsible for maintenance. The TUC can see no reason why these licences should be continued, since they mean that regulation enforcement officers have to deal with two parties instead of one.

The unions maintain there is extensive evidence that regulations governing hours of work, periods of rest and maintenance of vehicles are widely disregarded. This is mainly because of intense competition and rate cutting which is still going on, and which can only be stopped by substantially increasing the penalties for non-observance. More frequent use ought

to be made of the power to withdraw permanently the licence of an offending operator, with the same penalty attached to the driver's licence where it is proved that he is actively collaborating with the owner to ignore the regulations. (The unions themselves often refuse to take up grievances on behalf of drivers who have falsified records.)

The TUC statement also emphasizes that there would be little point in increasing penalties if the numbers of enforcement officers remained at the ridiculously low level of less than 150 to cover the whole country. This ought to be not less than 500 now and increase progressively as the industry develops. The system of keeping records should also be overhauled. Steps should also be taken to iron out regional variations in the manner in which the regulations are enforced, possibly by means of a National Licensing Authority to coordinate the work of the existing Regional Licensing Authorities and hear appeals from their decisions.

(Continued from page 75)

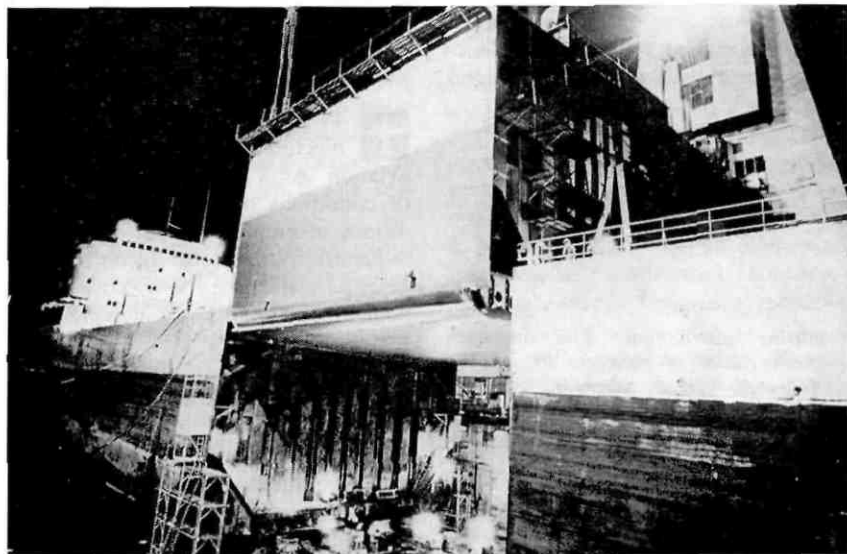
Goods traffic

Among the advantages to be gained by increasing the speed of goods trains are (1) a reduction in the loss of kinetic

energy, resulting in less power wastage and less wear and tear on the permanent way and rolling stock, (2) higher running speeds and a consequent reduction in train hours expended, (3) increased line capacity, and (4) possibility of increasing the tonnage carried as a result of the increase in kinetic energy.

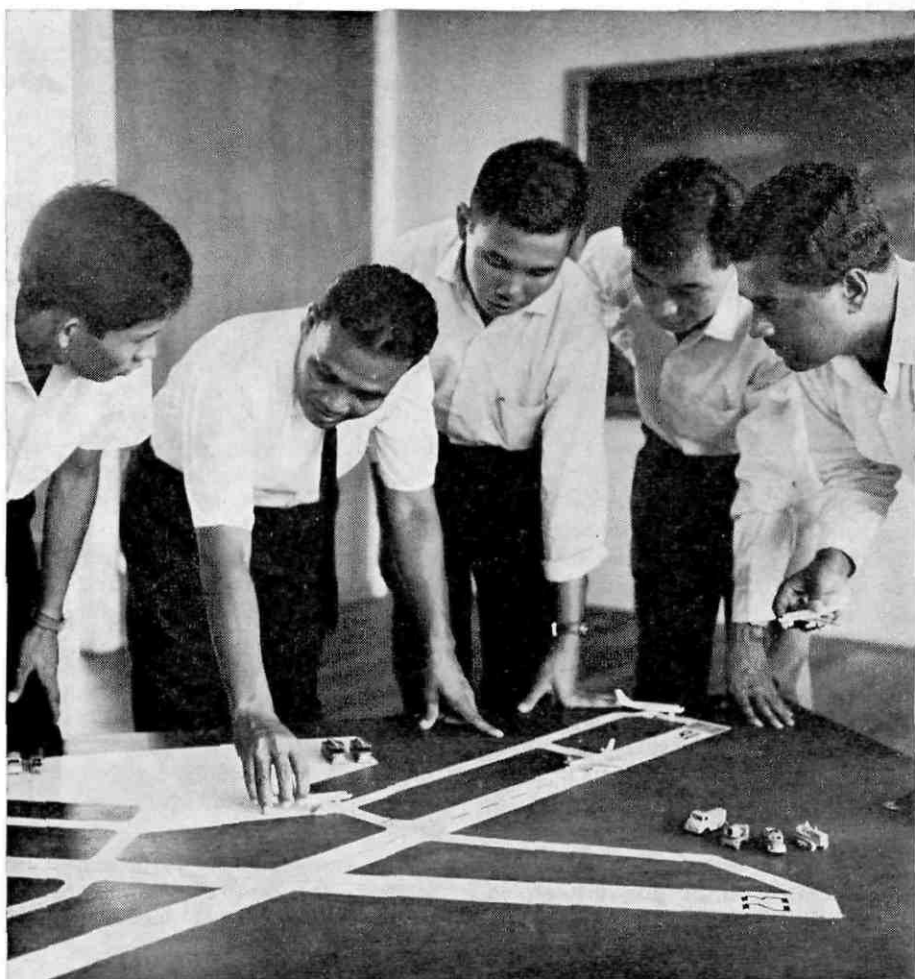
It has been shown that the maximum speed of goods trains can be increased to 100 km per hour with advantage, but locomotives and rolling stock would have to conform to certain technical standards. Rolling stock would need to be equipped with electro-pneumatic brakes. With older types of braking still in use speeds of freight trains are necessarily restricted — the braking distance for a train travelling at 90 km per hour is 1000 metres. But if modern braking equipment is fitted the braking distances may be reduced considerably. The maximum permissible speed for two-axle wagons is 70—80 km per hour and for four axle wagons 80—100 km per hour, but refrigerator wagons, built with passenger coach bogies, are capable of much faster speeds. Before the maximum speeds of goods trains can be increased, all rolling stock to be used should be equipped with bogies of modern design, and its running qualities should be improved.

(Continued on page 83)



A Danish shipyard (Burmeister & Wain, Copenhagen) specializes in lengthening ships. The picture shows one of these operations in progress. The 17,100 dwt. Vinland was parted into two halves and a new 25 yard long middle section, preconstructed and weighing 550 tons, was lowered into position and fitted. The Vinland was able to leave the shipyard two weeks after her 'operation' with a new deadweight tonnage of 19,200 and fit for the roughest seas.

Working conditions in air traffic control



At this ICAO assisted aviation school in Thailand training courses are also given in air traffic control. Such training is much needed to develop aviation in the less advanced areas

IN 1960 the International Labour Organization held an *ad-hoc* civil aviation meeting, which considered a report on conditions of employment in civil aviation. As a result of decisions taken at this meeting the ILO undertook a study of conditions of employment of ground personnel in air navigation services. Conditions of employment in air traffic control were the subject of a study made subsequently by Professor Jacob Schenkman, D.Sc., Director of Research, International Transport Institute, New York, and published in the *International Labour Review*, September 1963. The following consists mainly of extracts from Professor Schenkman's study.

Functions of air traffic control

Air traffic control is provided for the purpose of promoting the safe, orderly and expeditious flow of air traffic. Preventing collisions between aircraft is one of its major tasks.

Air traffic control facilities include the following types of units:

(a) Aerodrome control towers, established for the purpose of providing air traffic control service to aerodrome traffic on runways, taxiways, and the whole manoeuvring area of an aerodrome used for taking off, landing and terminal

movements of aircraft.

(b) Approach control offices, set up to provide air traffic control service to flights which are arriving at or departing from one or more aerodromes in a given terminal control zone. However, the functions of approach control are often fulfilled by an aerodrome control tower or an area control centre, and thus separate approach control offices are seldom established.

(c) Area control centres, which provide air traffic control service to flights taking place principally in specified control

Transmitting instructions. The approach controller's radius is between 30 and 40 miles from the airport where he operates



areas during the 'en route' phase of flight operations. The last of the air traffic control units to have been established, area control centres became necessary to provide continuity of control to aircraft while operating between aerodromes.

The air traffic controller

An efficient air traffic control service requires relatively expensive modern equipment and highly qualified personnel.

There are not many industrial occupations in which a sense of responsibility for the lives of others is so necessary and, in effect, so highly developed as in the work of the air traffic controller. Severe aptitude tests are widely employed in selecting men for the job, and in most countries there are clearly defined criteria (age, physical and psychological aptitude, educational level, experience) applying to candidates for training as air traffic controllers.

The International Civil Aviation Organization has adopted standards and recommended practices for the licensing of aviation personnel, including air traffic controllers. According to these, a contracting State shall require an applicant for an air traffic controller's licence to meet definite requirements in respect of age, knowledge, experience and medical fitness.

Some of the ICAO and national requirements for the medical fitness of air traffic controllers (for example visual and auditory capacity) are the same as for professional pilots. Certain types of controllers must undergo annual medical examinations throughout their entire period of employment in order to confirm their physical fitness. As a rule failure to meet the medical requirements results in the suspension of privileges pertaining to the controller's rating. Controllers who fail to obtain the renewal of their medical certificate by reason of physical disability are, in the United States for instance, 'subject to reassignment to a position not requiring such certificate if such position is available... If no such position is available they will be subject to retirement for disability, if eligible, or separation from the service'.

Candidates have also to meet certain psychological requirements and to pass psycho-technical tests, including various aptitude tests.

In order to promote the uniform application of ATC standards and recommended practices and to provide interest-

ed States with guidance, the ICAO has published manuals for the training of controllers.

Training curricula cover a wide range of technical subjects, such as air traffic control services, practices and procedures; communications; meteorology; air navigation; operating characteristics of aircraft and the Rules of the Air. In some countries the controller's training also includes familiarising flights and even flight training.

The basic technical objective of training is to ensure that the air traffic controllers have a thorough knowledge of standard procedures which must be adhered to generally, and to develop the judgment of the individual controller so that he can act independently of established procedures wherever such action is required in the interest of safety in air navigation. There is also an administrative objective, namely to ensure a constant supply of qualified controllers to fill vacancies occurring as a result of promotions, retirements and the expansion of air traffic control services.

Training is usually carried out in two ways - by courses of instruction at a centralised training establishment and by on-the-job training at an aerodrome or air traffic control centre similar to the one in which the controller is destined to work. It is an important part of the controller's training that he should gain experience in the actual working conditions of a control tower or centre. However, in 1961 the European Civil Aviation Conference stated that to use only 'on-the-job' training methods was undesirable. A system involving alternating periods of instruction and practical work was considered a necessity.

The practical training of air traffic controllers is, also, a continuous process and does not end when the air traffic controller's licence and rating are obtained. As new techniques and equipment are constantly being developed, controllers have to undergo various degrees of retraining or additional training on the job.

Unsatisfactory conditions

Commenting on the proposed ILO study into conditions of employment in air navigation services, decided upon at the 1960 civil aviation meeting, the President of the ICAO Council stressed that, unless satisfactory salaries and working conditions were given to personnel in charge of technical ground services for air navigation, these services would be hampered.

In 1962 the ICAO Assembly adopted

a resolution expressing dissatisfaction with the conditions prevailing in many countries for these employees. The resolution invited contracting states to examine the matter and to ensure for personnel in aviation ground services conditions commensurate with the qualifications required of them and the responsibilities they have to bear.

The International Air Transport Association at its Technical Conference in March 1960 pointed out that limitations in air traffic control services in certain areas are directly related to lack of trained and experienced personnel. In order that suitably qualified personnel should be engaged it was felt that particular attention should be given to improving the position of those employed in air traffic control. Concern that poor conditions of employment in air traffic control services are having a bad effect on ATC efficiency has also been expressed by such organizations as the International Federation of Airline Pilots' Associations, who have a vital interest in the efficiency of aviation ground services, and the International Federation of Air Traffic Controllers' Associations.

Various national air traffic controllers' associations also criticize the prevailing conditions of employment. Dissatisfaction with these conditions is being strongly demonstrated on the national level resulting in industrial friction which interferes with the normal provision of service. This situation has resulted in some cases in frequent strikes of controllers.

Hours of work

As staff is not available in unlimited numbers and even is scarce in many countries, controllers may be called upon to work longer hours than other workers, in particular in advanced countries. The present tendency towards a reduction of

When an aircraft is being vectored by radar, a pilot may have to rely entirely on the controller for adequate terrain clearance



weekly hours will in consequence be less felt in this trade and overtime may be more frequent. Moreover, the division of the 24 hours of service may entail long tours of duty, in particular in remote air traffic control facilities, when frequent changes of shifts would increase the inconvenience of long travelling times between workplace and home.

These facts may have adverse effects on both staff and public. Too long hours at all times of the day and night disrupt the social life of controllers, increase their fatigue and reduce their efficiency, thereby reducing also the safety of air navigation.

It is frequently asserted in controllers' circles that hours of work and schedules are too heavy, but practice varies from country to country and between various aerodrome traffic towers or centres in the same country.

Although the great variety of conditions makes it difficult to generalize, on the whole hours of work appear to range between 40 and 48 a week.

In many countries shifts are scheduled on the basis of monthly duty rosters. The weekly and daily shifts are in turn based on such rosters. There is, however, no uniformity in the details, and the methods in use vary greatly from country to country. Different shifts are applied at aerodromes with a low traffic density, where air traffic control is provided only during the day, and at major aerodromes where the service is maintained on a 24-hours basis. In some cases the single-shift method is used; in others the system of dual, triple or quadruple shifts per 24-hour period is practised. In some instances the same facilities may have different shifts for different teams and rotation is assured by interchanging of watch positions. In practically all cases watch systems are adapted to suit local requirements of a given facility. In the absence of prescribed rules, the rosters for controls are in many cases agreed to mutually by management and staff with a view to meeting operational requirements. The composition and size of different watches on different shifts are determined by the level of the workload foreseen.

By its very nature night work presents disadvantages. Sleep disturbance and irregular meals with their consequent health repercussions are among the major problems in this respect. Moreover, when controllers work on night shifts, their normal pattern of family and social life is disrupted.

Research carried out in various coun-



Training for air traffic controllers. A Canadian course provides for 3 months theory and 3 months practical experience in the control tower preparing men for an exacting job

tries on the effects of night work and the degree of fatigue of controllers working on night shifts indicate that the most critical period occurs approximately between 0200 and 0500 hours.

A much-discussed feature of the controller's work is the lack of scheduled rest periods, interruptions for meals and other relief breaks.

Practices in this respect vary greatly from country to country. Some require controllers to work continuously and others provide for short breaks (30 minutes, for example) or for meals to be taken at working positions.

Working environment

The environment in which air traffic controllers, whether at airport towers or at air traffic control centres, must perform their work frequently leaves room for considerable improvement. This remark is borne out by observations on the spot, field inquiries and replies to questionnaires from national and international sources. Although many factors contribute in varying degree to unfavourable comments from controllers, those cited most often include inadequate working space, poor arrangement of equipment, obsolete equipment, high noise levels, poor illumination and poor temperature and humidity control. The United States Air Traffic Control Association, for in-

stance, points to the fact that 'many facilities — overcrowded, poorly ventilated and inadequately lighted — continue to function with second-hand and make shift tools'.

The International Federation of Air Traffic Controllers' Associations in a recent communication to the ILO made the following general comment:

'The environmental factor will affect... efficiency on the job and consequently be of influence on the safety and regularity of air traffic. Although a lot of study has been made on these factors... the fact remains that, in Europe at least, most ATC centres, approach control and radar units and control towers do not come up to the requirements. In general one finds high noise-levels, insufficient air conditioning and ventilation, inadequate facilities for rest, poor lighting, etc. One or two show sites in some countries which suffer less of these shortcomings cannot blur this general impression.'

The United States Air Traffic Control Association in a communication to the ILO in 1963 indicated that: 'Often new terminals are built, runways are improved and the control tower remains a dilapidated structure with poor visibility, poor heating and ventilation and completely unsatisfactory. Even the facilities at our

largest and newest airports . . . are inadequate . . .'

In the United States, in order to remedy this situation, the Federal Aviation Agency adopted towards the end of 1962 a new standard design for air traffic control towers. It will provide greater visibility from the tower cab, improved space for the use of radio and radar equipment and a better environment for personnel. The design takes into consideration the range of requirements from the smallest to the largest aerodrome in the country.

Space allocation in control facilities is frequently inadequate, many centres being overcrowded. Controllers are often cramped together in close proximity.

The principle of working from a sitting position has been generally accepted, but there are still control towers where the equipment requires the controller to work from a standing position, so as to be able to have an unobstructed view of the runways and airport operating area.

Although the particular nature of the controller's work often requires sitting for long periods, more particularly if he is tied down by a headset, in some facilities simple office chairs are used, in others, ordinary arm-chairs, and only in a very few instances are specially designed comfortable chairs provided.

Control desks often have insufficient working space for the controller's comfort, and make it impossible for a person with average reach to operate all his equipment satisfactorily from a sitting position.

The positioning of control panels and

Radar is in increasing use in air traffic control. Controllers operating radar for long periods however may suffer eye fatigue



equipment is on the whole far from satisfactory. Various systems are being tried out and in some centres the radar controller and the operational controller's positions are now located side-by-side in order to facilitate coordination of operations.

In summary not enough attention is paid to human engineering when equipment is being positioned. In practice there is little consultation with the controllers themselves. Only in very few instances do they have a say in the matter and even then not a determining one. Controllers feel that their views should be taken into consideration even if only in the interests of the service.

Equipment

The application of the principles of ergonomics requires that the working area and equipment should be built around the operators rather than that the operators should be placed in a setting which makes no allowance for their requirements and capabilities. An analysis of these requirements would result in an improvement of the controller's work and the service rendered by an air traffic control facility.

The effective integration of the controller and his equipment is essential in the performance of control duties for safe operations. Equipment alone cannot give satisfactory service unless it is operated by the best competent personnel.

With respect to the equipment situation in general, it must be stressed that enormous differences exist in practice. There are only too many facilities where old and obsolete types of equipment are still being used, and in many countries locally designed, makeshift arrangements exist.

It is obvious that without the essential equipment controllers are forced to adopt such devices as increased separation standards. In doing so, they must inevitably restrict the availability of airspace, thus bringing on the attendant ills of delays, unavailability of preferred routes and flight levels, and so forth.

Poor lighting and noise

In the field of lighting and visual protection devices, there is also great variation in practice between the different countries and individual facilities. The persistent difficulty in this respect is that of providing adequate illumination for the incompatible visual tasks that the controller is faced with while performing, for instance, radar surveillance and rea-

ding data on a flight progress strip on his board. Often two or more controllers in adjacent work areas are performing visual control tasks that require different conditions for optimum viewing. This problem is not confined to the control towers but also arises in the control centres.

It must first be underlined that the need to operate radar in darkened rooms has in itself disturbing effects on the eyes and possibly the general health of controllers, but the tension and fatigue are further increased when the contradictory needs of the controllers in matters of lighting are not properly met.

Controllers indicate that great contrasts in lighting intensity increase visual fatigue. Medical research carried out on eye-fatigue in various countries generally confirm that this is the case.

Noise is one of the critical problems in the working environment of the air traffic controller. In this respect, a distinction is to be made between the external noise generated by the aircraft engines and the internal noise within the air traffic control facilities.

A high level of noise interferes with speech communications. Occasionally, in many control towers, noise makes loud talking and even shouting necessary. This in turn tends to raise the noise level still higher. Under such circumstances noise not only impairs the controllers' efficiency but gives rise to working errors which may have dangerous consequences.

Although individual controllers react to noise in different ways, it is now well recognized that prolonged and constant exposure to noise levels of above 65 to 70 decibels will eventually prove annoying to the majority of controllers and increase their fatigue.

Measures taken in various countries for reducing noise or eliminating it vary greatly. In some of the new facilities the control room floor, ceiling and walls are treated with materials having a high noise-reduction factor. On the other hand, in many facilities there is no noise control applied to reflecting surfaces, pipes, overhead ventilation ducts, teleprinters, pneumatic transmission tubes or sliding stripholders on flight progress boards; single windows, which provide insufficient protection from outside noise, still prevail in control towers.

On the whole it is recognized that in order to achieve a better working environment further measures to reduce the noise levels in control rooms are required.

Air conditioning

Air conditioning, ventilation and heating are also of great importance, not only because temperature and humidity can have adverse effects on the controllers, but also because they can interfere with optimum or accurate performance of the types of equipment which are sensitive to temperature changes.

Some states make it their policy to air condition all control towers and centres, many others do not. In the many towers where air conditioning and ventilation are not provided control rooms can be aired only by opening the windows, but this in turn increases the noise levels. In many countries only new facilities are air conditioned. One country in a tropical climate area indicates that only one tower out of eight is air conditioned, the rest having ceiling fans.

While it is difficult to assess in detail all the implications of unfavourable environmental factors for the efficiency and well-being of air traffic controllers, it is evident that an inadequate working environment does have an adverse effect on the controllers' work and the efficiency of the service, and greatly increases fatigue.

Radar

Recent high rates of traffic increases have given an impetus to the development of improved equipment for supplementing the controller's efforts in handling the volume safely. It must be stressed, however, that the primary reason for introducing new equipment is not to facilitate the controller's work but to improve the accuracy of air navigation and permit greater utilisation of the shrinking air space by applying reduced separation between aircraft. This development has, in fact, resulted in a more complex system of operation and has both favourable and adverse effects on the controller's work and environment.

Surveillance radar allows, for instance, for a reduction of the intervals between successive landings of aircraft regardless of visibility, thus reducing congestion in airports with a high density of traffic. This means, however, a faster pace of work for the controller and a reduction of the time at his disposal for the safe control of successive landings.

Moreover, the use of radar is now being extended to operations of longer range and broader scope, in order to provide a complete coverage of areas where traffic density along the airways is high

and where the need for reduced separation standards exists. This increased use of secondary radar in conjunction with primary radar will affect the work of the controllers by increasing the proportion of working time spent at the radar screen — precisely that part of the control function which is recognized to be the most fatiguing. Instances have occurred in some countries of controllers exposed to prolonged work in front of radar screens suffering serious eye-fatigue with symptoms of diminished visual capacity. For example the Danish Air Traffic Controllers' Association, in a communication to the ILO in 1963, indicated that 'one radar controller has been unable to pass the annual medical test due to indications of glaucoma, after having worked for two years as a radar controller'.

In view of the greater strain of radar control, problems such as the shortening of uninterrupted working time, and the provision of adequate rest periods, relief breaks and rest facilities, have acquired special urgency. In Belgium, for example, as is indicated by the Belgian Guild of Air Traffic Controllers, no agent may serve a radar screen for more than two consecutive hours in approach control, although such a limitation has not been extended to other control operations. In many countries the normal period of duty at a radar position is indeed two hours, after which a controller switches over to another control post. There are, however, instances where controllers work at a radar screen for periods far exceeding two hours, and in some cases they spend an entire day's tour of duty in front of a radar screen without interruption. The shortage of qualified radar controllers is the reason given for such extreme practices. Considerable concern has been expressed that, with the extension of radar control, the practice of prolonged work at radar screens, which is now exceptional, will become the rule, with adverse effects on the health of controllers and consequently on standards of safety in air navigation.

Automation

There is a growing awareness of the fact that, if the density of air traffic and the speed of aircraft continue to increase at an accelerated pace, it will no longer be possible to ensure the safety and regularity of air traffic without the aid of some form of automatic equipment.

In a number of States the development of equipment for the automatic processing of air traffic control data has been

vigorously pursued in the last few years. Some countries have already gained experience with the practical application of electronic computers and associated equipment for the automatic printing of flight progress strips, electronic recording of flight plan data in a form in which it can be fed directly to computers, and electronic methods of transfer of control from one centre to another. In 1961 the ICAO established a panel of experts to prepare recommendations on the development and application of automation in air traffic control. This panel has concluded that:

'... in determining the requirements for automatic process in ATC it was considered that the following criteria could be used as guidance: a machine should be used (a) if a particular ATC function cannot be carried out by a human operator, (b) if a machine can perform a particular ATC function more economically than a human operator, and (c) if a machine can perform a particular ATC function better (i.e. faster, more accurately and/or more reliably) than a human operator'.

The International Federation of Air Traffic Controllers' Associations stresses that there is not yet sufficient evidence available concerning the impact of automation on the actual work of controllers. The Federation points out that:

'... so far the automation equipment in very few countries, such as the Netherlands, only relieves the controller from his clerical work in order to help him concentrate his undivided attention on his main function of controlling air traffic. Future developments will have to be closely investigated to ensure that the controller will retain his capacity of controlling air traffic during periods of technical failure of automatic equipment, although part of his control work will normally be executed by semi-automatic technical devices.'

The United States Air Traffic Control Association, in a communication to the ILO in 1963, indicates that 'in those facilities having computers, there has been no noticeable decline in numbers of personnel. It seems unlikely, therefore, that in the foreseeable future automation will solve the problem of the shortage of controllers, as in the coming years the growth of traffic will presumably be substantially greater than the relief afforded to staff by new technical equipment and the demands on personnel may thus continue to increase.'

It has been suggested that in an area such as western Europe, which is virtually a collection of adjoining and overlapping terminal areas, it may well be that the 'computer' embedded by nature in the head of the controller will prove to be the most effective way of preventing collision in air navigation. It is obvious that 'automation will undoubtedly remove from the controller much of the routine work, computers will alleviate the burden and strain of unrelenting vigilance on the human eye and brain, but even when flight itself is fully automatic the need for the human air traffic control officer will remain'.

In view of the importance generally attached to air traffic control services, and considering the complexity of the many problems in this field and the urgency of their solution, it is to be hoped that action will be taken by the authorities in collaboration with representatives of the staff concerned to improve the general conditions of employment for air traffic controllers; this would be another step towards the achievement of optimum conditions in air navigation and would contribute, through the improvement of safety, to the continued orderly growth of aviation.

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Suburban passenger traffic

Conditions of life and work in urban areas have created a need for fast commuter communications. It is generally accepted that the fastest and most efficient means of providing speedy suburban travel is through the use of electric rail cars and rail car units. High rates of acceleration may be attained, and it is easy to make up trains of the required length with an appropriate proportion of driving cars and ordinary carriages.

Short distances between stops on suburban runs have the effect of reducing the trains' speed. Calculations have shown however that average running speeds of 70 km per hour may be maintained with stops placed at 3 km intervals. An important factor influencing speed is the tare weight of a train's carriages. If this is reduced the train may be driven at higher speeds without any increase in horsepower being required.

The frequent braking necessary on suburban runs because of the large number of stops can render a service very

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*Charles Luna,
President of the US Brotherhood
of Railroad Trainmen*



Profile of the month

THE 1960 convention of the US Brotherhood of Railroad Trainmen took a rather unusual step when it elected Brother Charles Luna to a newly-created post at the Brotherhood's headquarters. The post was that of Assistant to the President, but this meant more than it said; it was really Crown Prince. The delegates had in effect elected their organization's next President three years in advance. Brother Luna took over the Presidency at the beginning of 1964, on the retirement of Brother W. P. Kennedy, who had held the office for thirteen years.

An account of Charles Luna's career within the Brotherhood of Railroad Trainmen reveals a steady and classical progression up through the hierarchy over a period of thirty years during which he steadily grew in experience and judgment. He always seems to have known where he was going. Born in Celeste, Texas, in 1906, he started to work on the railways during four summer vacations from high school. He joined the bridge and building department of the Gulf, Colorado and Santa Fe railway for this casual work, and after finishing high school in 1928 he joined the same company as a switchman at its East Dallas yard.

The following year he joined the Brotherhood of Railroad Trainmen's Dallas Lodge 671, where he still holds membership. Then began his steady climb up the trade union ladder. His strong character, coupled with a friendly personality, soon gained him the respect and trust of his fellow workers, and in 1936 he was elected to serve as a member of the local grievance committee for the Dallas area of the railway company.

His positive and forthright manner and his obvious desire and determination to obtain the best possible deal for the Brotherhood's members marked him for a responsible position at the bargaining table, and in 1940 he was elected Chairman of the local Grievance Committee, a post he held until 1946. It was during this period and while he was still working as a switchman that he became known on a national level within the Brotherhood, working from 1943 to 1946 as

deputy president and organizer for the national headquarters (Grand Lodge).

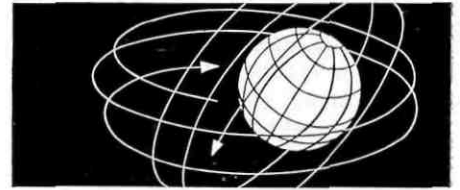
A turning point in his career came in 1947 when he went to work full-time for the Brotherhood after being appointed General Chairman of the Gulf, Colorado and Santa Fe. This post gave him a key role in the formation and implementation of Brotherhood policy for its members' pay and conditions of work in one of the country's most important railway companies. The experience enabled him to take a seat as an informed, practical and forceful member of the national committee to bargain on wages and conditions for all members in 1949 and again four years later.

In 1954 he finally achieved national office as a Vice-President, first responsible for the Brotherhood's affairs in Denver, Colorado, and later returning to his native Texas, to Dallas. By 1960 it was clear that he was destined by virtue of his personality and his record to serve the Brotherhood in an even more responsible and rewarding capacity. Delegates to the convention of that year had no hesitation in electing him as eventual successor to Brother Kennedy. He went to work in the Cleveland, Ohio, headquarters of the Brotherhood in 1961, and the following year took charge of the organization's top negotiating body, the committee on wages and conditions.


With this unique period of preparation for high office behind him,

(Continued on the next page)

Round the world of labour



Bad wages for Tokyo taxi drivers


 TOKYO TAXI DRIVERS claim that their earnings have decreased since their employers recently raised the fares. Their pay is based on a small fixed rate plus a percentage on fares collected. But many of the companies cut the driver's share by 15 per cent when the fares went up. They claimed that the taxi drivers' wage increase in the spring of 1963 justified them in doing this. The drivers have another story to tell. They are obliged to bring in 10,000 yen per day, and if they do not succeed in collecting this sum, which is often the case, they get into trouble with their employers. In some companies they are subject to deductions from their fixed pay and fringe allowances, if they are absent from work or if their takings are too small. The drivers claim that if they work strictly to the regulations they cannot possibly bring in the required 10,000 yen per day, and have to be choosy about accepting passengers. They are forced to work at night taking long distance fares, and have to put in an excessive number of hours on the job. Working in crowded traffic conditions during the day, they cannot earn enough. The taxi companies claim that these practices are the result of unprincipled taxi drivers trying to take money over and above the legal fares. They say that there is a shortage of taxi drivers, but the Tokyo Police maintain that poor wages are the cause of this shortage. If

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coupled with his practical experience gained during several decades of trade union activity, and the down-to-earth approach he has always maintained thanks to his strong ties with the area in which he grew up and worked most of his life, it is no wonder that the retiring President commended him to the members with the words: 'Your affairs are in good hands'.


a larger fixed wage were paid there would be no shortage. The Police advocate a changeover from the percentage system to payment of a fixed rate.

Rail automation in Canada

 TWO LARGE RAILWAY YARDS are being prepared for automated traffic handling in Toronto, Canada. One yard, belonging to Canadian National Railways, is expected to be open by April 1965; the other, belonging to Canadian Pacific is to be in full operation by mid-May this year. The CN yard covers 1,000 acres and is to have 156 miles of track, while the CP yard covers 430 acres and is to have 90 miles of track. The yards will use radar, computers and closed circuit television for controlling and coordinating operations. The CN yard will employ between 1,000 and 1,500 persons, while the CP yard will afford work for 500. Both railways are conducting extensive training programmes for the workers who will operate the two yards.


As elsewhere in the world Canada's railwaymen are anxious to secure themselves adequate protection against displacement by automation. The Canadian Labour Congress in its annual submission to the Federal Government, has made a plea that Canada's railways should face the problems created for their workers by technological changes. The CLC is supporting a private member's bill in the House of Commons which requires the railways to compensate workers who lose jobs through automation and abandonment of lines.

Swiss affiliate publishes its history

 The Swiss Transport and Commercial Workers' Federation (VHTL), affiliated to the ITF for its transport worker members, has recently published the third volume of its history. This 200 page book, entitled *VHTL im Aufstieg zu sozialen Ordnungsfunktionen* (roughly: 'VHTL in the Conquest of a New Social Order'), is the work of Joseph Müller, who before he began writing its history


was the editor of his Federation's newspaper. The first book, which appeared in 1951, related the beginnings of trade unionism in the industries organized by the VHTL. The second, which followed in 1954, took the history a stage further in its account of the VHTL's foundation in 1915 and its subsequent development up to 1940. This latest volume traces the activities and achievements of the VHTL over the twenty year period from 1940 to 1960.

British railway's deficit cut


 BRITISH RAILWAYS' operating deficit was cut by £ 17 million in 1963 to £87 million. The addition of £48 million interest charges brings the overall deficit to about £135 million as against £159 million in 1962. The Chairman of the British Railways Board, Dr. R. Beeching, stated that about £10 million of the total saving was due to the replacement of steam by diesel traction, and a further £12 million was saved by reducing the wagon fleet by 140,000, eliminating work-shops and spending less on maintenance. Staff was reduced by over 38,000 in 1963, more than 30,000 being covered by normal wastage from resignations, retirements and deaths.

Trade unionism - a Spanish Invention!

(From an article about trade unionism published in the Madrid newspaper Pueblo in January this year.)

 'THANKS TO GOD, Spanish trade unionism was invented thirty years ago... The Movement (the Falange) represented an opportunity for all Spaniards to satisfy their desire for a social revolution, and through it we have founded a system of democracy and representative authority... Franco, in his message for 1963, reiterates the importance of the Spanish form of trade unionism, which is the most democratic in the world and the envy of workers and employers of all other countries'.

Bargaining rights soon for Swedish public servants

 THE THIRD of September, 1963, was an important milestone in the history of the Swedish public service staff associations. This date is as significant to them as is 20 December, 1938, to employees in the private sector, because it was on that day that the government and the central organizations of public servants provisionally arrived at a basic agreement along the lines of the basic agreement reached between LO (the national centre) and SAF (the employers' federation) in Saltsjöbaden in 1938. The recent agreement between the State and its employees may be regarded as the first real foundation-stone in the structure of bargaining rights for civil servants.

Public servants have for a good many years been asking for equality of status with employees in the private sector. On the whole it may be said that they have been successful in achieving this as far as salaries and other conditions of employment are concerned. In the last few decades there has been an adjustment. There is, however, one important field where very little has been done, namely

in the field of industrial legislation on bargaining rights.

The first clause of the 1936 Law on the right of association and collective bargaining contains a provision that the law cannot be applied to established public servants engaged in the administration of the state — those with so-called 'official responsibility'. The 'bargaining rights' for that category are instead set down

Buffet car of Swedish State Railways. Whilst public servants have achieved equality of status with private employees as far as salaries and other conditions of employment are concerned, they have not up to now enjoyed equality in the matter of bargaining rights



in a regulation of 1937 covering state employees and in a law of 1940 in respect of municipal employees.

However, the bargaining rights that these provisions afford public servants with 'official responsibility' differ on some important points from those given to other employees by the law of 1936. Private employees actually have the *right of co-determination* as far as the laying down of working conditions is concerned and are regarded as ranking *equal* with the employer, while the organizations representing public servants are only entitled to *put their views and wishes forward*, leaving it to the employing authority to make the decision *alone*. Thus the salaries and conditions of employment are not laid down in any agreement but are incorporated in regulations and statutes, etc. issued by the Government and Parliament or by other public authorities. Another considerable difference between the respective situations in the private and the public sectors is the fact that it has been thought possible to accept industrial action as part of the relationship between public authorities and their employees. Pressure of this kind is not supposed to be in keeping with the special characteristics of public service employment e.g. security of employment, guaranteed salaries, official responsibility, etc.

Equal rights in practice

Apart from the right to take industrial

Gustav Kolare, President of the Swedish Railwaymen's Union and head of the Federation of Public Servants' Unions. Swedish railwaymen are among the public employees affected by new laws on bargaining rights



action, however, some progress has been made. During the 'forties and 'fifties there was a clear trend towards a different view on the question of the public servants' bargaining rights. The negotiations which take place at regular intervals between the State and its employees' organizations are undoubtedly parallel to those in the private sector. Public servants' organizations are in practice negotiating as equal parties and have a say in what is being decided, but unfortunately there is no legislative basis for this activity – either for the employers or for the employees. This has the effect that all decisions taken during the negotiations only become operative 'subject to the approval of the Government and of Parliament'. A similar condition is attached to negotiations at local level. The local employer alone has the right to make decisions, and he is to a large extent making use of the right.

This question has for a long time been subject to various inquiries by the public authorities. The Committee on Bargaining Rights of 1948 was the first inquiry that made a serious effort to tackle the vast complex of problems. The proposals put forward by this Committee, however, were too much of a compromise to find favour in the different camps, and they were strongly criticized on several points by the authorities as well by the employees' organizations. In 1956, a crown officer, Mr. O. Ekblom, was entrusted with continuing the inquiry, and in 1960 he submitted another report. This report did not contain any legislative proposals and was intended merely as a declaration of principles. It was mainly concerned with the question of whether the usual bargaining rights and the right to conclude collective agreements and to take industrial action in the private sector could be extended to public servants and be linked up with the special regulations attached to the civil service.

This proposal was also severely criticized, the Federation of Public Servants' Unions (Statsjänarkartellen) attacking primarily the one-man inquiry's suggestion that collective industrial action could only be allowed in the case of non-established staff. Such a limited right to strike would only become an illusion and have no real meaning. The number of employees who would be granted the right to take industrial action was too small for the effective use of this right. Mr. Ekblom also thought that the right to strike could only be granted at the expense of security of employment,

which in the view of the staff organizations would run counter to the efforts being made in the private sector – reflected in the negotiations between the LO and the SAF – to improve security of employment.

Bargaining rights in 1966

However, efforts to achieve bargaining rights continued to be made. During 1961 direct discussions were held between the State (Civil department; equivalent to the Treasury as the employing department in the British civil service) and the employees' central organizations (the Federation of Public Servants' Unions, the Civil Servants' Section of the TCO, SACO – the organization for employees with a university degree – and the National Union of Civil Servants) on this issue. These discussions resulted in the drawing up in January 1962 of the following guiding lines for continuing the work, which was to be entrusted to a working party made up of government officials and representatives of the employees' central organizations:

- The Law of 1936 should also apply to civil servants with official responsibility.
- All provisions on which a negotiated settlement has been reached should be included in collective agreements between the parties.
- Industrial action undertaken collectively either by the State or by its employees should be made lawful.
- Industrial action should not affect conditions of employment (the forms of employment to be retained).
- A basic agreement laying down the rules for preventing industrial disputes in essential services should be concluded.
- The basic regulations concerning the duties and rights of employees should be grouped together in a separate law.

The working party has now completed the work and the result was published in the form of a memorandum from the ministry. Some of the proposals put forward affect the national constitution and will therefore have to be accepted by two successive Parliaments with a general election in between. This means that the proposals cannot be finalized by Parliament until 1965, which in turn means that the bargaining rights law will only take effect from January, 1966.



Ticket check in a sleeping car. Until the present it has not been considered possible to permit industrial action by public employees, as this was thought to conflict with their official responsibility. Hitherto, they were only entitled to put their case forward

Industrial action to be sanctioned

The memorandum from the ministry contains proposals for new legislation as well as amendments to the existing laws. Among other things the memorandum contains proposals for new legislation such as so-called 'employees legislation', which includes the binding regulations that must be considered a part of the relationship existing between the State and its employees. This legislation will specify issues which cannot be settled by collective bargaining, i.e. matters on which

only the State may take a decision. In this respect the employees' organizations only have the right to be consulted. Employees will be entitled to collective bargaining on all other matters affecting the relationship between the state and its employees. The right to take industrial action, which is granted in the proposed legislation, is also limited to the sector covered by civil law, i.e. the sector in which collective agreements may be concluded.

Among the proposed amendments to existing labour legislation is a revision of the composition of the Industrial

Court. As collective agreements will be permitted in the public service sector and as disputes in connection with collective agreements are settled, in the final instance, by the Industrial Court, it was thought necessary and reasonable to increase the number of members in the court. In the same way as one of the members appointed by the LO at present agrees to give way to a member appointed by the TCO, when cases concerning so-called 'employees' come before the court, one of the members appointed by the employers will, according to the proposed amendment, give way to a representative of the public employees when cases concerning the public service sector come up. In order to enable other 'employees' organizations to participate in the court proceedings and to exercise some influence on the court's decisions it is intended to increase the number of deputy members.

Civil Service Board to be appointed

In the introduction to this article we mentioned that the parties had provisionally come to terms on a basic agreement. This agreement appears as an annex to the ministry's memorandum, the intention being that the committees to which the memorandum has been submitted, when examining the new or amended legislation, will know exactly how disputes in essential services will be dealt with (now that the right to take industrial action has been proposed) and the negotiating procedure that will apply in future dealings between the State as an employer and the employees' organizations.

According to the basic agreement a board of eight members will be appointed to be known as the Civil Service Board. It is equivalent to the Joint Industrial Council established under the Saltsjöbaden agreement. The State will appoint four members and each of the central organizations one member to this board, thus giving it a bipartite composition. The board will deal with the disputes which may be referred to it, e.g. if one party is of the opinion that a particular industrial action 'is unduly interfering with essential services'. The board will give its opinion on the action in question within two weeks (in certain cases within three weeks). During this period any proposed industrial action will be postponed. Provided that the dispute is such that it interferes with essential services the board will ask the parties to avoid, limit or settle the dispute. The board cannot



A new bargaining rights Act will come into force in 1966, which extends the field of subjects which may be dealt with by collective bargaining and provides for public authorities to be represented in the Industrial Court, which will have more members

force the parties to do this but its verdict must be considered to have such weight that they will respect the decision. It is, of course, possible for the members of the board to 'tie' (4 votes against 4) on a particular issue, and in that case the board will not advise the parties what to do. However, the Government has in a situation like this the same right to intervene as it has at present as far as the private sector is concerned.

Central organization to be bargaining agent

The negotiating procedure agreed on lays down the same rules in principle as those which at the moment apply to the

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uneconomical. Power wastage through this cause may be reduced considerably by installing rheostatic regenerative braking systems. The economic efficiency of these services may also be increased by reducing stopping time in stations to the minimum. Well designed carriages provided with an adequate number of doors, and station platforms raised to boarding level may help towards this end.

It is technically possible for suburban trains with design speeds of 130 km per hour, serving outlying areas, to achieve average running speeds of 90—100 km per hour.

private sector and to the present State collective bargaining system. The negotiating procedure embraces local negotiations between the parties directly involved and central negotiations between the contracting parties. There is, however, an important difference between this basic agreement and the Saltsjöbaden agreement, namely in the regulations which stipulate who shall conclude the collective agreement on the employees' side and who shall make decisions on industrial action. The basic rule is that the above-mentioned central organizations shall be the contracting party or parties. This rule differs from the equivalent rule in the Saltsjöbaden agreement in that the negotiating party in the latter rule is the individual union and not the central organization (LO). The proposed differences are based on the fact that the members of the various unions organizing state employees have only one employer — the State — while the members of the unions in the private sector have many different employers or opposite parties. The proposed negotiating procedure is also linked up with the present negotiating practices and is perhaps the only solution possible in view of the abundance of organizations (almost 200) in this sector.

From what has previously been said about this rule concerning the contracting

parties on the employers' side it is obvious that decisions on industrial action must be taken by the relevant central organization before they can become effective. Furthermore a greater measure of stability in this socially delicate sphere may be expected by virtue of this regulation.

Constitutional changes needed

The proposal that the central organizations should conclude agreements and decide on or give their permission to industrial action requires in turn that these organizations have the necessary constitutional basis. The Federation of Public Servants' Unions has not got that kind of a constitution at the moment, as it is only an association of all individual unions also affiliated to the LO. As such they all have constitutional provisions underlining the fact that it is the executive of the union in question that decides on matters concerning the members' salaries and working conditions. Changes in the constitution of the Federation of Public Servants' Unions are being investigated and the result of this investigation must be obtained before the bargaining rights of the organization's members become operative.

Another question which will, of course, arise is the question of who is going to negotiate for whom. The abundance of organizations in the public service sector is emphasized by the fact that employees in the same branch, who are performing the same kind of duties and who enjoy the same professional status, are often organized in different unions and central organizations. The new bargaining arrangements make it essential that clearly defined jurisdictional boundaries should be agreed. It should be possible to arrive at such demarcation lines through voluntary agreements between the various organizations. Discussions are being held between the Federation of Public Servants' Unions and the Civil Servants' Section of the TCO on how to achieve this.


The proposed legislation and the provisional acceptance of a basic agreement together make an important step towards giving public servants a professional and industrial status equal to that of other employees in Sweden. It is the result of many days of investigations and negotiations. Apart from the remaining work in committees and in Parliament the civil department is working on the shaping of the future State negotiating body.

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News from the Regions



Forced labour in Portuguese Africa

 THE ICFTU submitted a memorandum on the situation of workers in Portuguese colonies to the 18th Session of the United Nations General Assembly, held at the end of last year. We reproduce below extracts from the section entitled:

Exploitation of African Manpower. Analysis of laws, and information gathered in the course of the last ten years, lead to the conclusion that at least until very recently forced labour was practised in the Portuguese colonies (Angola, Mozambique, Portuguese Guinea, Cape Verde, Sao Tome and Principe). Though the 1953 report of the Ad Hoc Committee on Forced Labour set up by the United Nations and the International Labour Organization is very restrained, it is sufficiently clear on this point. It shows that, in spite of certain restrictive provisions in the texts in force at the time, especially in the Native Labour Code and in the Organic Charter of the Portuguese Colonial Empire, which theoretically were supposed to protect the natives from the most glaring abuses, pressure could be, and in fact was, exerted by the officials of the Portuguese administration in order to facilitate the recruitment of workers; that in Mozambique large numbers of indigenous workers were literally 'exported' for the benefit of the mining companies of South Africa; and that the situation of workers recruited for the island of Sao Tome appeared to be similar to that of workers under a system of forced labour for economic purposes.

After the abolition of slavery in the territories in 1875 there was still a 'moral and legal' obligation on all natives to work for their living and the authorities could compel them to fulfil this obligation. The Native Labour Code of 1928, still in force, no longer spoke of 'moral obligation', but it provided that (a) obligatory work 'for public purposes' was authorized in certain cases; (b) acts tending to recruit workers by 'legal ways'

and 'fair means' of persuasion do not constitute an imposition of compulsory labour. These provisions were applicable to men of *ten* to sixty years.

In spite of the theoretical improvement brought about by the code of 1928 and in spite of the efforts of certain governors professing liberalism, the situation after the Second World War remained practically unchanged. Mr. Henrique Galvao, then member of the Portuguese National Assembly and one of the keenest supporters of the Salazar regime, on his return from a tour of inspection of the Portuguese territories in Africa, drew up a report in 1947 which was never officially published. In it he denounced the methods of colonization and the abject poverty of the natives.

As concerns the position of the workers, Galvao said that in certain respects the situation was worse than simple slavery. Under the system of slavery, the native is bought like an animal; his owner prefers to keep him in as good health as a horse or an ox. Under the forced labour system, the native is not bought, he is hired from the state. His employer does not much care if he falls ill or dies once he has worked, because in that case all the employer has to do is to apply for another. At the same period a correspondent of the New York Herald Tribune wrote: 'when an Angola plantation owner requires labour, he notifies the government of his needs. The demand is passed down to village chiefs, who are ordered to supply fixed quotas of labourers from their communities. If the required number is not forthcoming, police are sent to round them up.'

Another investigator, the British journalist and author Basil Davidson, an expert on African questions who visited these countries in 1954, confirmed that coercion still existed in the Portuguese colonies at that time. He wrote*) that forced labour was being practised under three principal forms: (a) The construc-

tion and upkeep of country roads are always carried out by the compulsory and unpaid work of the inhabitants of the region. They must supply not only the work but also their own food and very often their own tools. Since many men have gone away for a period of forced labour, women and very young children (i.e. less than ten years old) have to be mobilized. The main roads are constructed in the same way.

(b) Forced labour is also practised in the sugar-cane, coffee, sisal and other plantations belonging to the Europeans. An official of the Department of Native Affairs told Basil Davidson that the government granted an average quota of 33 recruited workers for every hundred hectares of plantation.

(c) The Diamond Company of Angola holds the monopoly for recruiting the labour force in most of Luanda province, which is half the size of England. At the Company head-office in Luanda, Basil Davidson noted that in 1954 the company was employing about 11,000 'free' workers and 4,000 recruited workers, provided by the authorities. As Davidson points out, this had happened in spite of the laws which make it illegal to supply a forced-labour force 'under any pretext whatever' to private employers.

Basil Davidson also noted that European-owned fishing enterprises make extensive use of forced labour; that the port of Lobito, which is a vital bridgehead for the Anglo-American export of minerals from the Congo, is kept going by six hundred or so workers recruited for one year.

A convention between the governments of Portugal and South Africa provides the legal basis for the recruitment of up to 100,000 workers a year in Mozambique for the mines of the Transvaal. This trade constitutes an important source of income for the Portuguese administration. Fees are charged for the issue and renewal of passports and the registration of contracts, and it is provided that the Transvaal mines

(Continued on page 96)


*) In *The African Awakening*.

Aden trade union movement in fight for survival

(Source: ICFTU)



The seven children on the steps (centre) await the return of their father, deported to the Yemen along with other trade unionists in December 1963. Their mother is expecting another child. The ICFTU gave them assistance from the International Solidarity Fund

 A BOMB EXPLOSION takes place on 10 December 1963 at Aden airport, where an official party plans to board a plane bound for London to finalise a constitution for the South Arabian Federation. A state of emergency is declared and the full weight of the authorities' anger falls on the Aden trade union movement. Hundreds of workers are deported and more than 50 trade unionists, leading officials of the Aden Trades Union Congress and its affiliates, are arrested. Meetings of more than five persons are banned. Four Aden TUC leaders meet the High Commissioner, Sir Kennedy Trevaskis, to protest against the deportations and arrests of workers for no given reason and to express the trade union movement's condemnation of the bomb incident. Three of these men are arrested immediately after the meeting. The Aden TUC headquarters are ransacked by police who confiscate typewriters, duplicating machines and some files.

A trade union detainee in the South Arabian Federation talking across barbed wire to a colleague who has recently been released. All trade unionists arrested following the bomb explosion in December have now been released, but full trade union freedoms have not been restored in the Federation



Thus begins another chapter in the troubled history of the Aden trade union movement, yet another move by the authorities to suppress trade union rights and aspirations. What is the story behind this continued violation of trade union rights by the Aden authorities? What is the international free trade union movement doing to help the Adenese workers in their struggle? To get a clearer view we must go back to 1960 and trace events in Aden since then. Two major events have aroused the trade union's opposition: the introduction of the Aden Industrial Relations Ordinance in August 1960 and the British Government's plans to federate Aden Colony with some states of the Aden Protectorate, thus forming the South Arabian Federation.

When the Industrial Relations Ordinance was first proposed, the Aden TUC – an affiliate of the International Confederation of Free Trade Unions – called

a number of one-hour protest strikes against the legislation, which would mean compulsory arbitration and the banning of strikes. On 15 August 1960 a general strike took place. An ICFTU mission, at the Aden TUC's request, visited Aden shortly afterwards: however, by the time of its arrival the Bill had been adopted by the Aden Legislative Council. The mission complained to the Governor that the Ordinance was against the principles of Conventions 87 and 98 of the International Labour Organization and the industrial relations policies in all other British territories. It called for the reinstatement of public service workers dismissed from their jobs for taking part in the general strike, and for the restoration of a licence for the ATUC's journal, which had been withdrawn. Money was provided by the international trade union movement to assist the families of the discharged workers.

Furthermore, in a complaint to the ILO Governing Body, the ICFTU urged the repeal by the British Government of the Industrial Relations Ordinance. The British Trades Union Congress made a protest to the British Colonial Office in July 1961. The ITF Congress of 1962 passed a strongly-worded resolution condemning the Ordinance and supporting the trade unions, particularly its own affiliate, the General & Port Workers' Union.

Because of the restrictive character of the Ordinance, innocent industrial disputes rapidly became political conflicts. As a result of a strike in the building industry in October 1961 the general secretary of the Aden building workers' union was sentenced to 27 months' rigorous imprisonment, later reduced by six months. Early in January 1962 the president of the refinery workers' union and ten executive committee members were sentenced to four months' and six weeks' imprisonment respectively on a charge of calling a meeting during working hours. A five-member emergency committee set up to discuss strike action by the Forces Local Employees' Union was arrested even before a strike took place. When a 24-hour strike finally took place on 11 April 1962, the union's president was arrested and imprisoned for four months, and 30 workers were arrested after a second strike staged on 9 and 10 May. Eighty-six workers were deported for participating in a strike for better general working conditions declared by the same union in October 1962, and in November 1963 fifty workers were arrested and forty deported during a strike involving 7,000 workers at the British military base in Aden. More recently, four members of the union were fined 200 shillings each

This seven-year old boy, whose father was deported to the Yemen, signs a receipt on collecting money for his family out of the ICTU's International Solidarity Fund



ICFTU representative, Ivar Noren (left), discussing with members of the acting executive of the Aden TUC plans for distributing relief provided by the International Solidarity Fund

on 7 January 1964.

Thus the grim story of trade union suppression and persecution under the Ordinance continued. The Aden TUC suggested in January 1963 that a joint industrial council be set up to revise the Industrial Relations Ordinance. It also drafted an industrial relations charter for the settlement of grievances and disputes through bipartite machinery. The ICFTU representative appointed to assist the unions in negotiating on the Aden TUC Industrial Relations Charter, as well as to help obtain repeal of the Industrial Relations Ordinance, was refused a residence permit by the authorities. On several occasions visiting ICFTU representatives attempted to moderate the victimisation of trade unionists and workers by negotiating on their behalf.

Meanwhile, discussions were being held on the proposed accession of Aden Colony to the Federation of South Arabia. The Aden TUC viewed this move with hostility, fearing that to link the socially and politically developed Aden Colony with the more backward Protectorate states would constitute a threat to elementary human and trade union rights and to general progress. However, the trade union movement was given no opportunity to express its views on the matter. Two protest strikes were sponsored by the Aden TUC, the first on the day final talks on accession took place in London between representatives of the Aden and British Governments

and that of the Federation of South Arabia: 23 July 1962. A. Alasnag, Aden TUC general secretary, was sentenced to two weeks' imprisonment for his part in this strike, and circulars were issued by the Aden Government threatening workers with deportation if they supported opposition to constitutional proposals. The second strike was planned for 24 September 1962, the day on which the Legislative Council of Aden was to debate the merger. This demonstration resulted in three deaths and many other casualties. Two hundred people were arrested. The ICFTU immediately reaffirmed its opposition to plans for the merger and appealed to the British Government to halt the implementation of this proposal. On 26 September changes in the Aden constitution and the ratification by the Legislative Council of the proposal for joining the Federation were adopted.

Who actually decided Aden's fate? On the one hand, the British Government and, on the other, an unrepresentative Aden Legislative Council. Its elections had been boycotted by 76 per cent of the electorate on instructions of the Aden TUC because it considered the narrowly limited franchise incompatible with democracy and justice.

The ICFTU, throughout negotiations, had made appeals to the British Colonial Office in support of the Aden people's efforts to obtain genuine self-determination and for the people of the Protectorate.



The Asqualani mosque in Aden, where wives and mothers of detained trade unionists locked themselves up, fasting and praying for the release of their husbands and sons

rate – comprising a number of sultanates and sheikdoms – to achieve constitutional progress. It also urged the Aden authorities to end repressive measures against trade unionists, and to revoke the Industrial Relations Ordinance. All these points were underlined in a resolution made at the ICFTU's Seventh World Congress in Berlin in July 1962.

Following the declaration of the South Arabian Federation on 14 November 1962 the Aden TUC staged a one-day strike. This resulted in mass arrests and deportations. One trade union official was sentenced to four months' imprisonment. The ICFTU once again provided financial assistance to the families of the arrested and deported workers in their hardship.

On 8 November 1962 Alasnag and two colleagues, I. Hamballah, general secretary of the Miscellaneous Industries Workers' Union and A. Obaid, distributor of Aden TUC publications, were arrested on charges of sedition allegedly committed by publishing a pamphlet describing the events in the demonstration on 24 September against the Legislative Council debate on the Federation. In cooperation with the Socialist International, the British TUC and the British Labour Party, the ICFTU secured the services of a British barrister to defend the three accused in court. In December 1962 Alasnag was sentenced to twelve months' imprisonment, Hamballah to nine and Obaid to three. These sentences were first reduced by the Aden Supreme Court and then finally quashed by the East African Court of Appeals in Nairobi, Kenya.

After the accession of Aden to the

South Arabian Federation in January 1963 the ICFTU and British TUC still called for franchise to be established after consultation with all elements in Aden, to enable the permanent population of Aden to voice its opinion and decide on immediate problems and their ultimate future.

Finally we come back to the bomb incident. The mass deportations and arrests which followed expose the fact that the Government fears the trade union movement's opposition to its policy as well as to the non-representative character of the Legislative Council. The Government knows that the trade unions object strongly to the unjustified deportation of workers, who, though they may not have been born in Aden, have been established long enough there to merit full citizens' rights.

The International Confederation of Free Trade Unions did all it could to help the Aden trade union movement which has been virtually paralysed by the recent measures taken by the Government: it dispatched a representative, Ivar Noren, to work on the spot and he had talks with the High Commissioner on behalf of the persecuted trade unionists; it has requested the League of Red Cross Societies in Geneva to send a mission to Aden to visit detainees and investigate their conditions; it provided financial assistance to be distributed by the ICFTU representative to persecuted workers' families and undertook to provide top rate legal assistance for the trade unionists should any charges be levelled against them – an eminent British lawyer, Mr. Christopher French, Q.C., agreed to perform this task. Trade union leaders have now been released from detention and although this has lightened the worst aspects of the situation in Aden, grave restrictions are still in force which seriously hinder the normal functioning of the trade unions. The state of emergency has still not been lifted, meetings of more than five persons are still banned.

For its part, the ITF has done what it can in support of the Aden General & Port Workers' Union. The most recent action has been to send a protest in December 1963 to the British Colonial Secretary on the deportation of two port workers. This is 'receiving attention'.

The time has come when this state of affairs can no longer be tolerated. In a world where freedom and respect of human rights are recognized, the aspirations of the Aden people cannot be frustrated indefinitely. Despite efforts on

the part of the British TUC and the international free trade union movement there has still been no granting of franchise rights to the whole of the Aden population; the Industrial Relations Ordinance under which the trade unions are prevented from almost all effective action is still in force; trade union leaders have been detained in prison for their beliefs with no charges having been made against them. It is certain that Aden will not progress, economically or socially until trade union rights are fully respected and until the people of Aden and the Protectorate have obtained the right of self-determination. Until that time we can expect tension to reign throughout the South Arabian Federation.

CIRM in 1963



THE ANNUAL REPORT FOR 1963 of the International Radio-Medical Centre (CIRM) has recently been submitted to the Italian government. In it the founder and President of the Centre, Professor Guido Guida, states that during the year the CIRM received and transmitted 8,161 medical messages; it treated 1,018 patients and in collaboration with the Navy, Air Force and Customs and Excise vessels carried out forty air-sea rescue missions on behalf of seamen and of inhabitants of small Mediterranean islands.


The Centre is becoming increasingly well known internationally, as evidenced by the numbers of requests for assistance received from ships of all nationalities. Professor Guida recently visited the United States to help strengthen radio-medical assistance and rescue services in the Atlantic. The CIRM's Research Section has also done valuable work during the year, issuing a report on diseases of the digestive system among seamen, with a supplement on diets. This covers gastric and duodenal ulcers, colitis, enteritis and food poisoning, and relates their incidence to conditions of life at sea.

The ITF Seafarers' Welfare Fund, which is administered by the ITF Fair Practices Committee, has regularly made contributions to the ITF International Radio-Medical Centre in appreciation of the valuable services it performs in aiding seafarers of all nations.

Book reviews

Transport economics

The Transport Problem, by C. D. Foster
(Published by Blackie & Son Ltd.; 40s.)

 THIS IS ONE OF THE BEST BOOKS ever published in English about transport problems. The young author, now Senior Research fellow in Economics and Organization of Transport at Oxford, has the rare gift of looking at economic problems in a very practical-minded way; his proposals are directly applicable on the administrative level. Strangely enough his book 'contains very little about organization, on which so much has been written.' This remark in the introduction is revealing: here we have an experimenter who likes to delve into matters he does not deal with in his everyday lecturing.

First the author examines the different approaches to a solution of transport problems hitherto applied, for road and rail transport; the 'arbitrary' methods, solutions based on international comparisons, and those based on internal predictions, which he favours (i.e. the formula that total transport expenditure should remain a constant percentage of total national income). Among the arbitrary solutions, he mentions the idea that what road users pay in taxes should be spent on roads, and says bluntly: 'Road users have no right to these sums.' Further, he shows how difficult it is to calculate the actual cost of roads. Normally, expenditure in Britain is estimated at £220 million a year; the author shows that another £70 million should be added for various ancillary costs (street-lighting, administration, etc.) and possibly £220 million for road accidents as well as £620 million for the cost of congestion! This would add up to £1,140 millions, whilst in 1962 £650 million was paid by road users and roughly £100 million by rate payers. Even in a country with such inadequate expenditure on roads as Britain, the deficit under the above system would still be around £400 million or 35 per cent.

Motorists would hardly like the scheme in these circumstances, implying as it would an increase in taxes of about 50 per cent. (This is not the author's opinion, but a logical conclusion).

In Part II of the book he deals with the price policy of a public enterprise, specifically the railways. He examines in several very technical chapters concepts such as 'marginal cost pricing', 'consumer's surplus maximization' and 'profit maximization' and the 'social cost criterion'. The decisive question is for him: in whose interest should an enterprise be run – in the entrepreneur's, in the employee's or in the consumer's interest?

He then proceeds to an analysis of the rail problem. Surprisingly enough, he defends old railway costing methods although he thinks they were inadequate. As long as the railways had a monopoly 'it would not pay to do better... (they) did not have to be more efficient to survive...' Here, one is tempted to disagree with him; some of the nineteenth century costing methods seem to the reviewer better than some modern attempts.

Anyway, the author describes how the motor revolution provoked modern costing methods in the railways, and how the first modernization plans based on these new methods were nevertheless inadequate. This is small wonder: for instance, even in 1955 data were only available in detail for 28 out of 6,000 shunting stations, with a week's data for 2,000; terminal haulage data existed in only 153 cases (out of many thousands); marshalling costs were based on a sample survey of 16 yards out of a total of 900. Besides, there was considerable variation in costs for every item; e.g. marshalling costs varied from under 2s. to over 6s. per wagon detached from one year to another.

The author says 'It is inevitable to wonder whether this costing is sufficiently detailed... It is regrettable that the 1963 proposals for the Reshaping of British Railways – the 'Beeching Plan' – do not make it clear what improvements there have been in the railways'

knowledge of their own costs... It is probable that the cost estimates given in the report are still based on considerable averaging...' The author's own proposals concern chiefly a new presentation of joint costs. The great practical question for him is how far certain costs can be avoided, chiefly some maintenance and replacement costs. There is then a whole chapter concerning Regulation and Subsidy, for both of which a thorough overhaul is needed.

In Part III he takes up the road problem once more, examines the many conflicts of interest and the various cost elements in detail, as well as the taxation methods. It is impossible even briefly to describe this thoroughgoing analysis in a few lines. The gist of the matter is that he puts forward many new ideas. He does not favour tyre taxes and tolls, but recommends taxi meters for parking and a reform of petrol taxes and vehicle licence fees (for heavy vehicles). In fact he would like to consider licence fees as the 'centre-piece of a new system', replacing petrol taxes as such: they might be varied according to the use the owner of a vehicle is making of the roads, his driving in congested areas, etc.


In general he recommends an application of the consumers' surplus criterion for road investment as well as for the railways; but it would be wrong to increase investment indefinitely and ignore the additional traffic generated by an improved road network. This had been the great mistake made in California, for instance, where bigger and better roads outside the cities just got the cars more quickly into them, leaving urban congestion worse than it had been before.

In the last chapter he discusses 'competition and coordination' under modern conditions, especially with regard to coordination of investments and avoidance of waste. Among the Appendices, those on marginal pricing and railway costing deserve special attention. This is a very stimulating book. One can only hope the author will continue his great work, especially with regard to track costs.

Dr. Karl Kühne, Brussels

Seafaring history

The Merchant Navy – A Social History, by Captain A. G. Course, Muller, Price 36s.

 CAPTAIN A. G. COURSE has written a three hundred page book on the history of the British Merchant Navy, tracing it from the earliest records



Uniforms worn by the captain and first officer on board ships of the British East India Company early in the 19th century

through to the present. The enormity of the subject would warrant a good deal more than 300 pages if it were to be treated as a faithful chronicle of the development of this branch of transport in Britain through the ages. But Captain Course has spared us a long drawn out academic study of this nature. Instead he has offered us an absorbing story telling what it was like at different times through history for a man to earn his living on board British trading vessels.

It has rarely been an easy living. The seafarer the world over has always been at the mercy of the elements in all their changing moods. Even today with modern navigational aids and advanced techniques of ship construction, vessels are vulnerable to adverse weather conditions. But there have been times when seafarers have had much worse to contend with. British seafaring history does not always make edifying reading. The slave trade between West Africa and America, and the shipping of convicts to Australia in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries are two big blots on the past record of the British Merchant Navy. Shipowners made fortunes in these trades, but seamen derived little but suffering from them, quite apart from what miseries the human cargoes themselves had to bear. Living conditions and food provisions were abominable and seamen were treated with extreme cruelty in many ships. Fever and pestilence were common hazards on voyages at that time, particularly aboard vessels carrying slaves and convicts. During the worst

periods voyages were rare when a ship arrived in port with all on board still alive. Ships often sailed with incompetent seamen — recruited in haste or by force ashore — or with masters and officers who were ill-experienced at sea, so that wrecks and large scale loss of life were common.

Seamen seem always to have been the victims of exploitation in one form or another. The practice of taking merchant seamen against their will for service in the fighting navy was common at times in history. This was carried out by so-called press gangs, working for the Royal Navy, who arrested merchant seamen — sometimes even landsmen totally ignorant of seafaring — to provide the Navy with extra men in time of war. Seamen, who would be paid much less in the Royal Navy, had to go into hiding or disguise themselves as labourers in order to avoid the gangs. When press gangs boarded their ships they had to submit, pretend they were foreign nationals or defend themselves by violence.

Crimps were another menace to seafarers in times gone by. They were agents who got men on board ships for remuneration, partly in the form of a large slice out of the seamen's wages. About the middle of the nineteenth century they had almost a monopoly of the supply of seamen in Great Britain. They were generally seamen's boarding house keepers or their agents who obtained custom from seafarers arriving in port. They did this in the most unscrupulous ways. Crimps used to board ships as soon as they reached port and ply the crews with cheap spirits and promises of good times ashore. But the unfortunate seamen would have to surrender their pay to the crimps and would find themselves in no time at all on a fresh ship outward bound, having lost all their advance pay. Seamen were often carried off to sea drugged or completely drunk. Crimps were paid a large sum of money for each man supplied to a ship and ships' masters did little to stop these practices. If they did they would find themselves without crew to sail out of port again.

Crimps carried on their disgraceful activities in Britain until the end of the nineteenth century, in spite of legislation designed to curb them.

Trade union activity amongst British seafarers did not begin in earnest until Havelock Wilson founded the National Amalgamated Sailors' and Firemen's Union, but there had been previous attempts at collective action on the part of

seafarers. One of the notable trade union events of the last century was the formation of the 'Penny Union' in 1851. This was created by seamen in the English north east coast ports, mainly as a protest against the long list of disciplinary clauses in the Mercantile Marine Act of Parliament passed the previous year. Wage demands also formed part of their grievances. Seamen in the north eastern ports went on strike and they formed branches of their union in other parts of the country. Their action had some success in that the 22 regulations to which they had objected in the 1850 Act were suspended.

However the 'Penny Union' did not survive long. Seamen were still subject to bad conditions at this time. Crimping was still rife, and shipowners were not fussy about the seaworthiness of their vessels. The insurance often made it worth while to lose a vessel at sea. Overloading accounted for large losses of lives and ships at sea. Several men at this time, appalled at such a situation, were campaigning to stop overloading and the use of unseaworthy ships. Legislation was passed in 1876 making it compulsory for owners to mark load lines on their ships. But it was not until 1890 that the Plimsoll Line — named after one of the foremost campaigners for more stringent supervision of safe loading and construction — became compulsory for all British merchant ships.

The National Amalgamated Sailors and Firemen's Union was founded in 1887 with the aims of improving wages, hours and working conditions for seafarers,

Seafarers in all ages have had to endure hardships, but in this century they no longer have to reckon with scurvy and the deadly fevers prevalent on board in times gone by



establishing homes in ports — partly as a protection against crimps, providing legal assistance, sickness relief and burial funds and to provide funds for men on strike. In 1869 the Union had a membership of 40,000 and a good measure of success was recorded in a strike organized that year. But the drain on union funds over the years following and a disastrous reduction in membership proved crippling. Havelock Wilson's Union went into voluntary liquidation in 1894, but was soon replaced by the National Sailors' and Firemen's Union with Wilson again as its leader. At this time British seamen's wages were appallingly low, due mainly to an unending supply of foreign seamen. To check this Wilson realized that international action was necessary, and he affiliated his union with the ITF as soon as it was organized.

In 1911 the Union went out on strike demanding a national minimum wage for seamen and fixed hours of work, amongst other things. Dockers also came out in sympathy in some ports and most of the shipping companies gave way to the seamen's demands after a fortnight.

The history of the British seamen's trade union movement and that of their officer counterparts is a subject for another book, but Captain Course sketches successfully the main developments in the closing chapters of his work. Altogether it is a faithful narration of how social conditions have developed in the British Merchant Navy over the centuries and makes enjoyable reading.

Dutch port industry's manpower problem

Havenarbeiders van Amsterdam en Rotterdam

(Port Workers of Amsterdam and Rotterdam), a Sociological Analysis of a Labour Market, by Dr. P. J. A. Ter Hoeven. Publishers: H. E. Stenfort Kroese NV, Leyden, Holland.

THE PORT INDUSTRY of Holland has since the war, and particularly since about 1950, been faced with a growing scarcity of labour. Though the steady drift of labour was offset by a heavy influx of commuters from neighbouring rural districts, total labour shortages by the middle of 1962 at the port of Rotterdam, with a total labour force of 15,000, were estimated to average around 1,000 men a day; at Amsterdam with a port labour force of 6,000, estimates varied between 600 and 1,000.

With a view to finding out the causes



Workers rejected dock labour as an alternative occupation mainly because of the nature of the work, the hours or the working environment (ILO Photo)

of and curing the decline in the size of the port labour force, the employers' and workers' organizations of the industry jointly decided to commission a special research body to make a scientific study of the problem. The results of this study, which extended over a period of three years, 1959-62, and which was in the nature of a completely independent sociological investigation, have been given in a 450-page volume, *Port Workers of Amsterdam and Rotterdam*, embodying the report of the head of the research body and published under the auspices of the Sociological Institute of the University of Leyden.

The starting point of the investigation was the behaviour of a labour market under varying degrees of manpower supply. The Dutch economy has since the post-war period been characterized by a general shortage of labour and this is reflected in the labour market of the port industry. Under full employment it is possible to observe the free response of workers to the various factors, economic and social, technical and psychological, objective and subjective, which play a part in the choice of occupation. Dr. Ter Hoeve and his associates have done this in minute detail for the port industry. During the investigation they not only examined and analysed facts and figures bearing on every aspect of the port industry, but also conducted personal interviews of employers and workers as well as authorities and business interests connected with it.



Most dockers considered that they had to work harder for their wages than other workers, and many felt they were underpaid (ILO Photo)

The report has extensive chapters on the place of dock labour within the labour market as a whole. It deals with matters such as the nature and organization of dock work, the mobility of labour, the methods of recruiting labour, the role of industrial relations, the attitudes of managements and supervisors, etc., all profusely supported by statistical material, graphs and diagrams.

The greater and most interesting part of the report is concerned with the attitudes of the workers towards their jobs and the factors influencing them in this connection. For this the study considered separately dockers, ex-dockers and non-dockers, and the factors taken into

Labour shortages in the port of Amsterdam varied in mid-1962 between 600 and 1,000 men a day, on a total labour force of 6,000



account included wages and earnings, hours of work, social security benefits and other working conditions, such as Saturday afternoon working, night work, intensity of work, the safety of work, job security, vocational training, as well as such matters as the nature of the work and of the work environment, relations with managements and supervisors, relations with fellow workers, and so on.

Port work in Holland was found to be one of the best paid manual occupations. Though the basic wage was on the low side — the gross fixed wage of the docker in October 1961 (including rent supplement) stood at f 92.17 per week*), as compared with an average of f 101.00 for all manual occupations — average total gross earnings of dockers were high on the scale of earnings of manual workers generally. Dockers' total earnings at Amsterdam in 1961 averaged f 122-130 (according to whether employed through a pool or by individual firms), at Rotterdam the figures were f 116-137. Of manual workers 30% had total earnings between f 111 and 130 (i.e. the range comprising dockers), whereas 50% had total earnings of f 110 or less and only 20% earnings of f 131 or over.

In spite of the comparatively well-paid nature of dock work, when dockers were asked to name three factors in need of improvement, 83% named wages in Amsterdam, 84% in Rotterdam. Second on the list of priorities came social security benefits (Amsterdam 34%, Rotterdam 31%), third — working hours (33%, 43%), fourth — safety (23%, 19%). Wages were also the principal concern among the 24% who leave the industry each year once stability of labour mobility has been reached, followed by nature of the work, length and irregularity of working hours, and safety of work, in that order.

Of non-dockers interviewed about 90% rejected dock work as an alternative occupation. Of these 43% in Amsterdam and 45% in Rotterdam were not contemplating any change of job, but of those who were, only 8% in Amsterdam and 5% in Rotterdam mentioned wages as their reason for rejecting dock work. Higher on the list were the nature of the work (Amsterdam 28%, Rotterdam 28%), working hours (15%, 11%), working environment (11%, 6%); lowest on the list was safety of work (Amsterdam 4%, Rotterdam 5%).

The above picture of the assessment of dock work by dockers and non-dockers was confirmed by a direct enquiry as

to job satisfaction. In the case of dock workers, 64% in Amsterdam and 65% in Rotterdam considered that they had to work harder for their wages than in other jobs. The same enquiry among non-dockers showed in Amsterdam 48% and in Rotterdam 43% felt themselves to be under-paid in relation to other workers.

The object of the investigation was to show the causes of the steady drift of labour — 24% in Amsterdam in 1961, 27% in Rotterdam, — from dock work to other occupations and the industry's inability to recruit enough men to make good the drain. In doing so it has indicated very clearly on what points greater incentives must be offered to attract sufficient labour into the industry and to keep it there.


R. Santley

*) The present exchange rate for the Dutch Guilder is f. 10.13 to the £ and f. 3.6 to the \$.

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It is using the proposals made by the Sandler constitutional investigation as a basis. The Sandler committee proposed that the immediate right of decision by Parliament be transferred to a special delegation, which would act as some kind of executive committee within the State negotiating body and which would conclude — on behalf of Parliament — binding agreements with the central organizations concerning the salaries and working conditions of public servants.

European conference of young trade unionists


 THE ICFTU's European Regional Organization is to hold a conference of young trade unionists next month. It will be held at Amersfoort, Netherlands, between 26 and 29 May 1964, at the invitation of the Dutch trade union centre, NVV. The NVV has placed its Trade Union College in Amersfoort at the ICFTU's disposal for the occasion.

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shall pay 2s. 9d. per man per month. According to the most recent statistics, nearly 70,000 workers officially left Mozambique to work in South Africa in 1959. There is also still extensive recruitment of workers from Angola for South West Africa — nearly 13,000 in 1961.

Sometimes the recruitment is carried out by rather rough-and-ready methods. In Angola Basil Davidson was told that every evening the individual passbooks of the African employees had to be signed by a European employee, so that the next morning the African could prove that he was in fact employed; if he could not do so, the police arrested the man, who would then be assigned to forced labour.

Automation study course in New York

 AN EXPERIMENTAL STUDY course on the impact of automation was recently conducted by Cornell University (New York State School of Industrial and Labor Relations) and the New York City Central Labor Council AFL-CIO Shorter Work Week and Automation Committee. The participants were drawn from amongst active trade unions in the New York area and the course took the form of six sessions meeting one night a week. Prior to the start of the course a survey had been conducted into the attitude towards automation of workers liable to be affected by technological change.

It was found that workers considered automation would make work less fatiguing and safer, and bring more leisure at home, but that job opportunities and promotion prospects would decrease and less individual pleasure and satisfaction would be gained from doing a job involving automated equipment. In general they thought that re-training at the employer's expense was a good way of combating unemployment. The survey also found that those workers who were better educated, had fewer family responsibilities or had no direct experience of unemployment caused by automation tended to have the more favourable general attitudes towards the prospect of spreading automation and its eventual impact on their earning capacity and advancement prospects.

The effect of automation on wages, working conditions, retirement age, collective bargaining and employer-worker relationships generally did not appear to concern the workers unduly. This survey was studied by the course participants, who also gave reports on the existing and prospective degree of automation in their own industries and discussed ways in which its adverse effects on the workers could be minimised. They afterwards commented very favourably on the value of the study course on a subject assuming increasing significance.

International Transport Workers' Federation

General Secretary: P. DE VRIES

President: FRANK COUSINS

7 industrial sections catering for

RAILWAYMEN
ROAD TRANSPORT WORKERS
INLAND WATERWAY WORKERS
PORT WORKERS
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
- 311 affiliated organizations in 83 countries
- Total membership: 6,500,000

The aims of the ITF are

to support national and international action of workers in the struggle against economic exploitation and political oppression and to make international trade union solidarity effective;

to cooperate in the establishment of a world order based on the association of all people 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

Aden * Argentina * Australia * Austria * Barbados * Belgium
Bolivia * Brazil * British Guiana * British Honduras * Burma
Canada * Ceylon * Chile * Columbia * Costa Rica
Curaçao * Cyprus * Denmark * Ecuador * Egypt * Estonia (Exi
Faroe Islands * Finland * France * Gambia * Germany * Gr
Britain * Greece * Grenada * Honduras * Hong Kong * Iceland
India * Indonesia * Israel * Italy * Jamaica * Japan * Jordan
Kenya * Lebanon * Liberia * Lybia * Luxembourg * Madagas
Malaya * Malta * Mauritius * Mexico * The Netherlands * N
Zealand * Nicaragua * Nigeria * Norway * Nyasaland * Pakist
Panama * Paraguay * Peru * Philippines * Poland(Exile) * Repub
of Ireland * Rhodesia * El Salvador * St Lucia * Sierra Leone
South Africa * South Korea * Spain (Illegal Underground
Movement) * Sudan * Sweden * Switzerland * Tanganyika
Trinidad * Tunisia * Turkey * Uganda * United States of
America * Uruguay * Venezuela * Zanzibar

Publications for the world's transport workers



Editions of Journal

International Transport Workers' Journal

Internationale Transportarbeiter-Zeitung

ITF Journal (Tokyo)

Transporte

ITF-aren

Editions of Press Report

Pressebericht

Pressmeddelanden

Communications de Presse

Boletín de Noticias (Lima) Three separate editions in Spanish Portuguese and English

Press Report Two separate editions in English issued in London and Singapore