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Forthcoming meetings:

Bordeaux	North Sea Ports Meeting 23 March 1965
Bordeaux	Dockers' Section Conference 24-26 March 1965
Frankfurt	Executive Board 24-26 May 1965
Copenhagen	XXVIIIth Congress 28 July — 6 August 1965

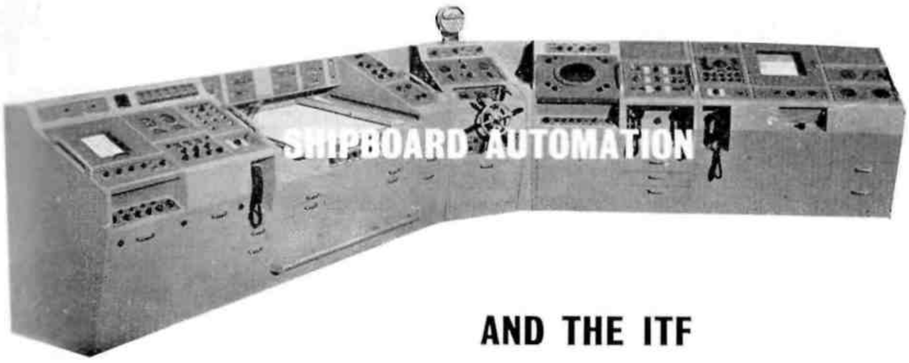
Comment

Task for the Dockers' Section

THE DOCKERS' REPRESENTATIVES who will be meeting in Bordeaux towards the end of this month have a lengthy agenda to get through. They have to discuss the Secretariat's reports on a number of issues which are of continuing interest to the Section; these include the ILO Code of Practice which embodies principles relating to the health and safety of dock work, together with the ILO's principles on the regulation of employment and the stabilization of earnings in the port industry, and the extent to which these have been put into practice, particularly in the developing countries; the promotion of vocational training schemes in the industry; regulation of the maximum permissable weight to be carried by one man; the transport of radio-active materials; and the mechanization of dock work.

The main discussion at the Conference will undoubtedly centre round the review of progress made towards achieving the objectives set out in the International Dockers' Programme which was first adopted in 1948 and revised at the Vienna Congress of 1956; the Secretariat has drawn up a detailed survey of pay and conditions in many countries, based on information received from affiliated unions. The survey covers wages, working hours, Saturday working, shift times, overtime and other supplements, paid annual leave, Sundays and public holidays, daily and weekly guarantees, accident and insurance benefits, retirement pensions and decasualization. Conference delegates will be able to judge from this report to what extent the Programme's objectives have been reached and whether it is now in need of revision.

The fact which immediately emerges from the survey is that the gap between conditions in the developed and less-developed countries, which was already considerable when previous reviews took place in 1959 and 1962, has widened even further. It seems clear that the ITF will therefore have to grasp any opportunities presented for progress in the port industries of the less-advanced countries. The idea of a programme of regional seminars, under ILO auspices, dealing with problems in the industry, will be considered; the review of conditions in different regions in relation to the ITF Programme should reveal the most urgent problems which would need to be dealt with in any such seminars.



SHIPBOARD AUTOMATION AND THE ITF

WHEN THE NINETEENTH SESSION of the ILO Joint Maritime Commission (Geneva, September-October, 1961) requested the ILO to follow technological developments in the shipping industry and to prepare proposals for mitigating any unfavourable effects these might have on seafarers' conditions, the ITF began collecting information to assist the ILO in its work. The Conference of the ITF Seafarers' Section (Copenhagen, November, 1963), after examining the question of automation and rationalization on board ship and its possible consequences on seafarers' employment, decided to set up a special committee to review developments in this sphere and to draw up a policy. The ITF Committee on Shipboard Automation and Rationalization held its first meeting in London last month.

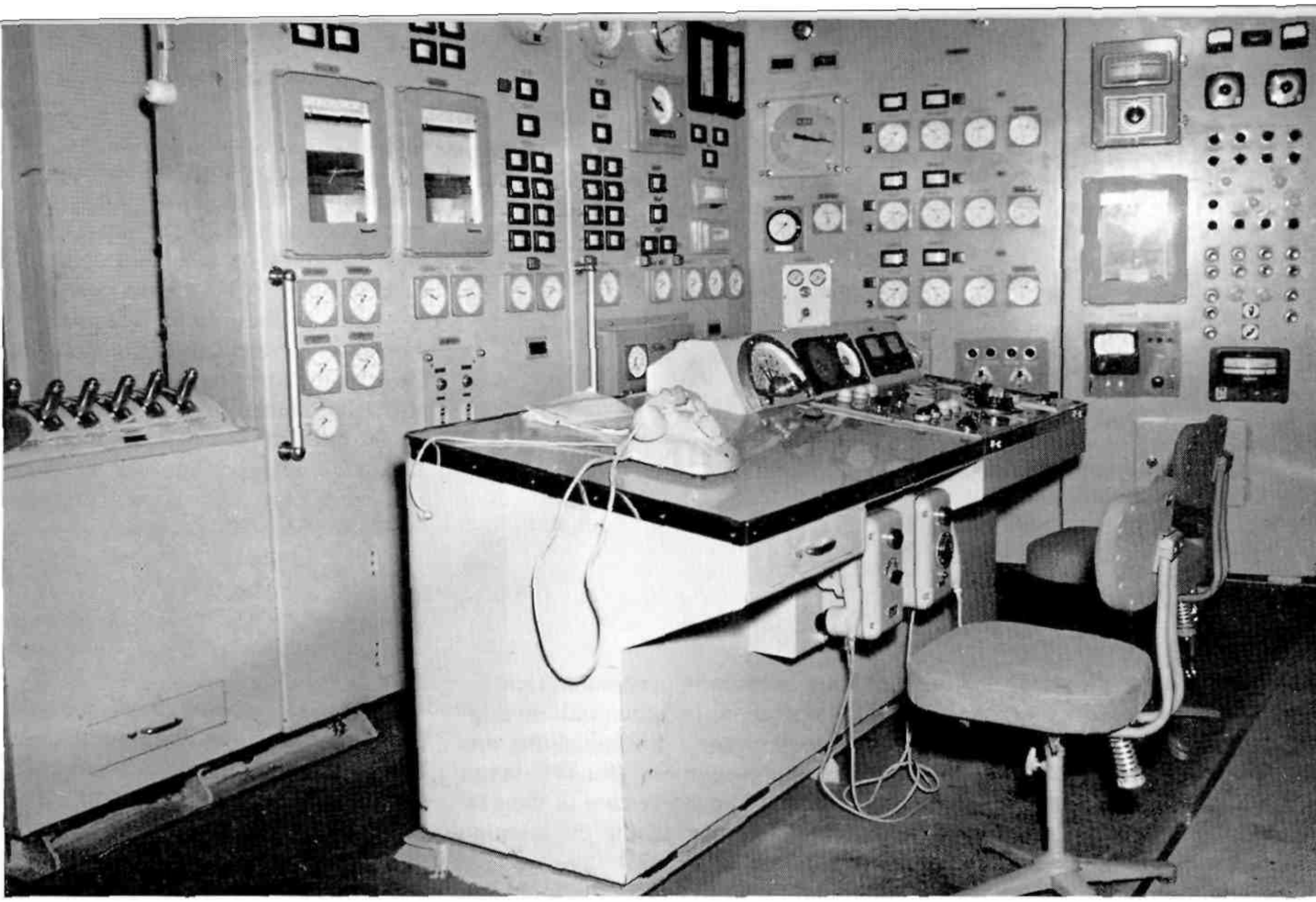
The main tasks of the meeting were to study the results of an enquiry carried out by the Secretariat into the extent to which rationalization measures had been effected and automated techniques and equipment introduced in different maritime nations, and to consider future lines of action. The questions of which the enquiry consisted were designed to establish the rate at which technological changes are taking place in the various shipping industries, the aspects of ship operation in which rationalization measures have been most extensively carried out, any reductions which have taken place in the number of seafarers employed, the implications for safety of reductions in crew size, means of overcoming redundancy resulting from technological change, and details of any discussions which may have taken place between seafarers', shipowners', and government representatives on the effects of such changes on seafarers' jobs.

Fair share of benefits

ITF-affiliated seafarers' organizations in Australia, Canada, Germany, Israel, Italy, Japan, the Netherlands, Norway, the United Kingdom and the USA replied to the questionnaire sent to them by the Secretariat. Their replies formed a basis for the Committee's first discussions. But the fundamental principles which will guide the seafarers' organizations in their approach to the question are already clear, having been laid down in resolution form by the Copenhagen Conference. This resolution stated that rationalization measures and technological innovations could, if properly planned, increase both productivity and profitability in the shipping industry, but pointed out that all parties interested — the men on board and the community as a whole, as well as the shipowners — should enjoy their rightful share of the benefits of the increased productivity. It declared the willingness of the seafarers' organizations to cooperate in promoting measures and policies designed to increase efficiency and prosperity in the shipping industry on condition that safety is always fully guaranteed and that the interests of their members be safeguarded in any such changes. This means not only protection in the form of adequate redundancy payments and in training facilities for those to be displaced, but also a fair share of the resulting benefits for those remaining in the industry. The additional benefits arising from rationalized or automated operation could be shared out amongst employees remaining in the form of earlier retirement on full pension, reductions in working hours, longer leave, better pay, and improved accommodation and amenities.

Shipowners should consult the seafarers' representatives whenever changes are under consideration which would affect the livelihood or working conditions of the men on board. Some of the social and safety aspects which should be included in any such consultations were outlined in the Copenhagen *resolution :*

1 The maintenance of crew strengths so as to ensure the safety of the ship during normal navigation and foreseeable emergencies;
2 The effective training of personnel for the performance of their duties on board, including the use of modern navigational aids, safety devices and other equipment;
3 Satisfactory vocational training and retraining schemes to meet the demand for personnel possessing new or more advanced skills;
4 The planning of recruitment and retirement programmes to ensure a balanced and even flow of entrants to and departures from the industry;
5 Guaranteed employment levels together with safeguards against redundancy, reduction in earnings, or other hardships of a social nature by measures such as:
6 The improvement of vocational training and leave schemes;
7 The reduction of normal working hours;
8 The maintenance or improvement of wage and income levels.



Norwegian experience

In a number of countries where technical innovations have made their effects felt in the shipping industry such consultations have already taken place. ITF-affiliated seafarers' unions in Israel, Italy, the Netherlands, Norway and the USA have had talks with shipowners and in some cases also with their governments on the social problems of automation. The United Kingdom unions are represented on investigation panels set up by the British Chamber of Shipping Research Committee to study certain aspects of ship operation in the light of recent technological developments.

The experience of the Norwegian unions is worth reporting in this connection. In February 1961 a study committee was set up to assess manning requirements on bulk carriers in the light of recent technological advances. The Committee consisted of shipowners' and seafarers' representatives. The latter were Einar Haugen (Norwegian Seamen's Union), Leif Lerstad (Engineer Officers' Union), N. Nilsen (Mates' Union), and Captain Finn Salvesen (Masters' Union).

The Committee found that the old manning regulations, based on gross registered tonnage and indicated horse power, were outdated and in need of revision. It set about the task of determining the minimum crew necessary for the safe operation of a ship built or equipped to modern technical standards and also to examine the feasibility of abolishing the traditional division of duties between deck and engine room (alternation) in so far as this was required for an effective rationalization of manning.

In order to obtain objective data for its report the Committee commissioned the Norwegian Rationalization Bureau (IRAS) to carry out work studies on board 20 ships, mostly bulk carriers, of between 9,500 dwt and 75,500 dwt and manned by crews of 25 to 32 men (excluding the catering department). The data obtained from the trials carried out with these vessels indicate that the average manning needed to ensure safe operation and operational maintenance was 20 men. But over short periods operational crew requirements rose to 23 men, chiefly during mooring when a variety of different jobs had to be done simultaneously. On occasions the operational crew requirement exceeded 23 men at such times, but this figure does not represent a true peak load, since the excess in crew requirement could have been avoided had the work been organized more rationally.

Notwithstanding the Rationalization Bureau's report, the union-shipowner committee could not accept without reservation the assessment of 23 men as the maximum operational crew requirement. It considered that a reserve margin should be carried in order that all safety contingencies might be covered and that a certain amount of

Above: *Control room in the engine room of the Japanese cargo liner, Kinkasan Maru. This 9,800 dwt vessel was the first of its kind in the world to have a main engine remote control console in the wheelhouse on the bridge* *(Photo: Fairplay)*

Opposite page: *The SS American Racer is the most fully automated ship launched in the US (25% crew reduction). She can be handled through full manoeuvres from the bridge without assistance from the engine room* *(US Lines photo)* maintenance work might be performed over and above that required for the safe operation of the ship, e.g. to ensure the comfort of the crew. The committee therefore agreed on the following manning proposals for bulk carriers:

1 For vessels of between 15,000 dwt and 35,000 dwt, 26 men, consisting of: master, 3 mates, radio officer, bosun, carpenter, 4 ABs, 1 OS, 2 junior seamen, 1 deck boy (trained), 3 engineers, 1 electrician, 1 assistant engineer, 1 repairman, 3 motor men, 2 greasers.

2 For vessels of between 35,000 dwt and 45,000 dwt, 27 men, as above with the addition of one man whose qualifications should be not less than those of AB or motorman.

3 For vessels of between 45,000 dwt and 60,000 dwt, 28 men, as (2) with the addition of one man with qualifications not less than those of OS or greaser.

Throughout the trials care was taken that the pressure of work should remain about the same as with the larger crews formerly carried, so that the safe manning requirements assessed should not be deceptive. The new manning scales which are now in force in the Norwegian merchant navy — are based on the alternation principle, and the Committee has been careful to point out that their application is conditional on the employment of a certain number of the operational crew in both deck and engine room departments. Also the new manning scales only apply to vessels built or equipped to certain minimum technical standards. It was found that the operational crew requirement varied little with the size of the vessel. The more important factors here were the particular constructional features of the individual vessels, although the Committee based itself for convenience on deadweight tonnages in its assessments of crew requirements. It is to be expected that constructional factors will have an increasing importance in the determination of crew requirements, since more extensive automation than that existing in most Norwegian ships at present would make possible further reductions in safety crews than those already agreed upon by Norwegian seafarers' and shipowners' organizations.

In their new foreign trades agreement, recently concluded (details given in ITF Newsletter No. 1, 1965), the Norwegian unions secured special provisions for crews serving on board the bulk carriers subject to the new manning scales. Officers and men on these ships get an extra 75 kr. (about £3 15s. or $11) per month on top of the general increases won in the agreement, except for those earning below the AB rate, who get 50 kr. per month

extra. If the number of deck or engine room ratings, who under the new agreement perform duties in both departments, falls short of the crew requirements stipulated in the new manning regulations, the wages of the missing crew members are divided equally between crew members in both departments.

Offsetting redundancy

The outcome of the Norwegian experiment is of interest to seafarers' organizations elsewhere who are faced with similar problems, arising from the progressive automation of their industry. Experiments and trials have been carried out in other countries, and some unions have secured substantial compensation provisions in their collective agreements. The ITF-affiliated National Maritime Union of America has reached an understanding with the American Marine Institute on the creation of a job security fund to provide compensation for displacement through automation. US shipping companies as from 1 January 1965 are to pay into this fund 25 cents per day for each man on ships' articles.

In other countries union plans for securing employment safeguards for their members are still in the development stage. The countries in which shipboard automation has made the most spectacular advances are probably the United States and Japan. In the US the trend has been towards larger but fewer ships, leading to higher manning requirements for the individual ships, but, with their increased size and degree of automation taken into consideration, to a reduction in the number of seafarers proportionate to the ship's performance. Japanese shipowners in their automation projects have been concerned with cutting costs rather than with improving efficiency. And these cuts in expenditure have been based largely on crew reductions. Japanese shipping circles have often maintained that Japanese ships are more heavily manned than comparable ships of other flags, and this has led them at times to exaggerate the extent to which crews could be reduced with safety and with no additional burden placed on the remainder of the crew. The Japanese Ministry of Transport has forecast reductions to be expected in new tonnage over the next five years. An 8,000 grt freighter built in 1968 will, says the Ministry, carry a complement of 19, excluding radio and catering.

The All-Japan Seamen's Union has discussed the social problems of the rapid technological advances made in the Japanese shipping industry with the government and the shipowners and has not found either ready to adopt a positive attitude, although a number of individual problems have been effectively settled by negotiations between management and labour. The union considers reduction of working hours, longer leave with pay, retraining for new jobs on board and control of new entries to seafaring employment to be effective ways of guarding against redundancy. The union has already succeeded in preventing redundancy and at the same time in relieving the labour shortage in some instances through the setting up of an employment coordinating committee.

Unions in all countries note a downward trend in the overall number of seafarers employed. In the United Kingdom merchant tonnage has risen by two million since 1949, but there has been a corresponding decrease of 237 in the number of vessels. Over the past seven years the number of ratings employed has fallen by 21,000. The British and American unions, like the All-Japan Seamen's Union, are in favour of reduced recruitment, shorter hours and longer leave as means of offsetting redundancy. They also advocate higher pensions and earlier retirement, severance payments and retraining facilities as means to be pursued in conjunction with the above. The German affiliate (Transport and Public Service Workers' Union) is already working for shorter hours and longer holidays as part of its general programme for seafarer members. Legal provisions already exist for redundancy compensation, but in view of the shortage of seafarers in Germany the Union rejects recruitment control. There is also a shortage of manpower in Norwegian, Dutch, Italian and Israeli shipping; thus there is no immediate problem of redundancy and the unions do not favour recruitment control.

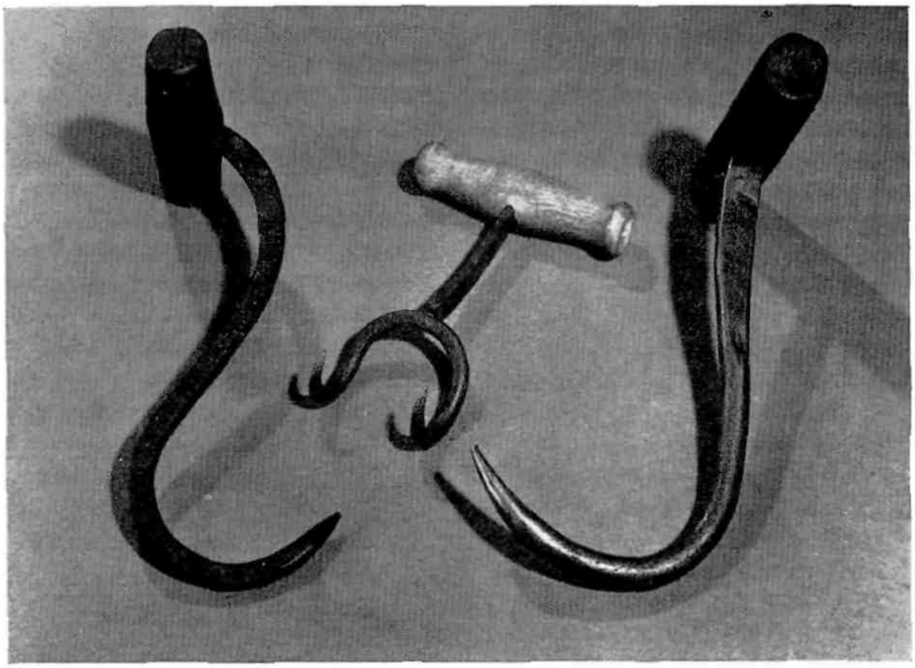
International work

An event arising from the last meeting of the ILO Joint Maritime Commission is the international seminar to be held in Copenhagen in September this year under the auspices of the International Institute for the Study of Labour Problems, which will deal with the implications of technological change in the shipping industry. The seminar will bring together representatives of management responsible for the formulation of labour policy in the maritime industry, representatives of seafarers' and shipowners' organizations and of governmental bodies connected with the shipping industry. The ITF has recommended names of participants who will prepare papers to be read at the seminar. Seafarers' organizations welcome developments which improve the efficiency and viability of the shipping industry, but insist that changes should not be made at the expense of the seafarers. On the contrary they have a right to share in the benefits arising from the introduction of modern equipment or from the rationalization of work on board. This principle has been stated before within the ITF and will be repeated wherever necessary. Conditions may vary from country to country, and the extent of modernization varies even within national merchant fleets, but the principles adopted by the ITF Seafarers' Conference at Copenhagen apply universally.

The ITF Automation Committee's first meeting represents a new departure. There is a need for an international instrument to offset the adverse social consequences of technological change in the shipping industry. The work of ITF Committee will assist the ILO in preparing the ground for such an instrument.

* * * *

The Commission of Inquiry headed by Lord Devlin set up to inquire into the recent pay dispute between British dockers and the port employers, and into decasualization and causes of dissension in the industry and other matters affecting efficiency of working, issued its first report — on the pay question — towards the end of last year. It recommended quite substantial increases in time and piece work rates, and is now almost ready to report on its findings under the remaining terms of reference. These are some of the Commission's comments on pay.



INQUIRY REPORTS ON DOCKERS' PAY

The minimum time-rate is a yardstick. It is not easy for a man to watch other yardsticks all around him lengthening while his remains the same size . . . He can be told that his earnings have increased, but he is apt to reply that if his rates have not increased also, that can only be because he has worked harder.

* * * *

The workpeople have emphasized strongly increased productivity in the docks. They have relied on figures which show that in 1948 the average dock worker was responsible for the movement of 723 tons of cargo while in 1963 he was responsible for 1,419 tons. Thus the output per man has approximately doubled. It is universally agreed that the workpeople are entitled to share in increased productivity . . . (But) the immense increase in productivity in the docks industry during the last 15 years has to be attributed in the main to mechanization which has been possible by investment in the industry by employers, and also to the increase in bulk cargoes which can be handled mechanically. There is evidence that in many cases the workpeople have cooperated satisfactorily in the use of new mechanical methods; but there is no positive evidence to show that the individual dock worker has directly contributed to productivity in any way that is not covered by overtime and piece-work.

* * * *

(Commenting on the employers' argument that reductions in the working week have brought financial gain to the dockers) . . . In our opinion, reductions in the working week cannot satisfactorily be turned into cash . . . Such reductions are, in our opinion, better regarded as changes that come progressively to all industries. At any given moment there will be some industries in the van and others in the rear. We think that the docks industry was late in introducing the 42-hour week. At the time of its introduction approximately 70 per cent of workpeople in industry were already enjoying it. Conversely, the docks industry was among the first to introduce the 40-hour week, being among the leading 10 per cent. But it is not likely long to remain in the minority . . . The credit that the port employers naturally claim for being among the pioneers to introduce the 40-hour week can be given to them only on the basis that they are keeping pace with the general minimum time-rate.

* * * *

There are such wide fluctuations in dockers' earnings that it is difficult to make a satisfactory comparison with earnings in other industries. We accept the employers' statement that over the last eight years they have broadly kept pace, but we cannot accept the statement that they have accelerated over the period of the last two years . . . There is no evidence to show that the movement in dock workers' earnings over the last two years was any more rapid than in industry generally.

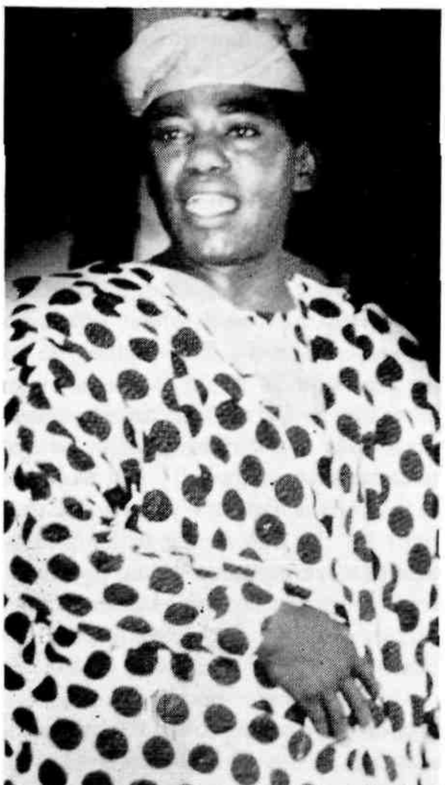
* * * *

A rise in earnings is not in itself an argument for keeping a minimum time-rate below the level which otherwise it ought to reach. To use the rise as an argument at all, it is necessary to ascertain so far as one can what were the causes of the rise. It might be due to faster piece-work . . . But we think that over the last two years some part of it is . . . due to the better utilization of working time. We do not therefore regard the fact that the movement of the dock workers' weekly earnings has broadly kept pace with that in industry generally as a satisfactory ground for denying to dock workers an increase in their time-rate similar to that given in industry generally.

Socialism and the New African States

In this article slightly abridged from *Analyst,* Lawrence Borha, General Secretary of the Nigerian trade union centre, examines the question of what is meant by socialism in present-day Africa. He comes to the conclusion that 'African socialism' does not as yet exist as a system, but that the socialist factor which is present in the policies of most African nations today is an expression of nationalism, a tool and a function of nationalism as well as of the desire for social justice.

by LAWRENCE L. BORHA,
General Secretary of the United Labour Congress of Nigeria.



MOST AFRICAN LEADERS call their governments socialist and say that socialism is the goal of their peoples. There are few exceptions to this: in Africa the present path and the future destination are both seemingly socialist. Yet there is great diversity in Africa. Our independent states vary in their experiences prior to colonialism as well as more recently. This point must be kept in mind. Africa is well into building its nations, and there is already great variety among them. In pan-African gatherings, such as the recent Cairo meeting of the Organization of African Unity, there are strong differences of opinion. Certainly differences are to be expected where a whole continent is involved, and in Africa they are almost always less significant than the wide areas of agreement.

Yet it is necessary to emphasize the varieties of experience in a discussion of socialism in Africa. Slogans tend to lead the other way. They tend to dwell only on the similarities, the identity of feeling among Africans. The areas of agreement, of similarity in outlook, are no less than astonishing for such a large continent. But repeating the slogans will not help us understand socialism in Africa. In the same way a discussion based strictly on theories would not be helpful.

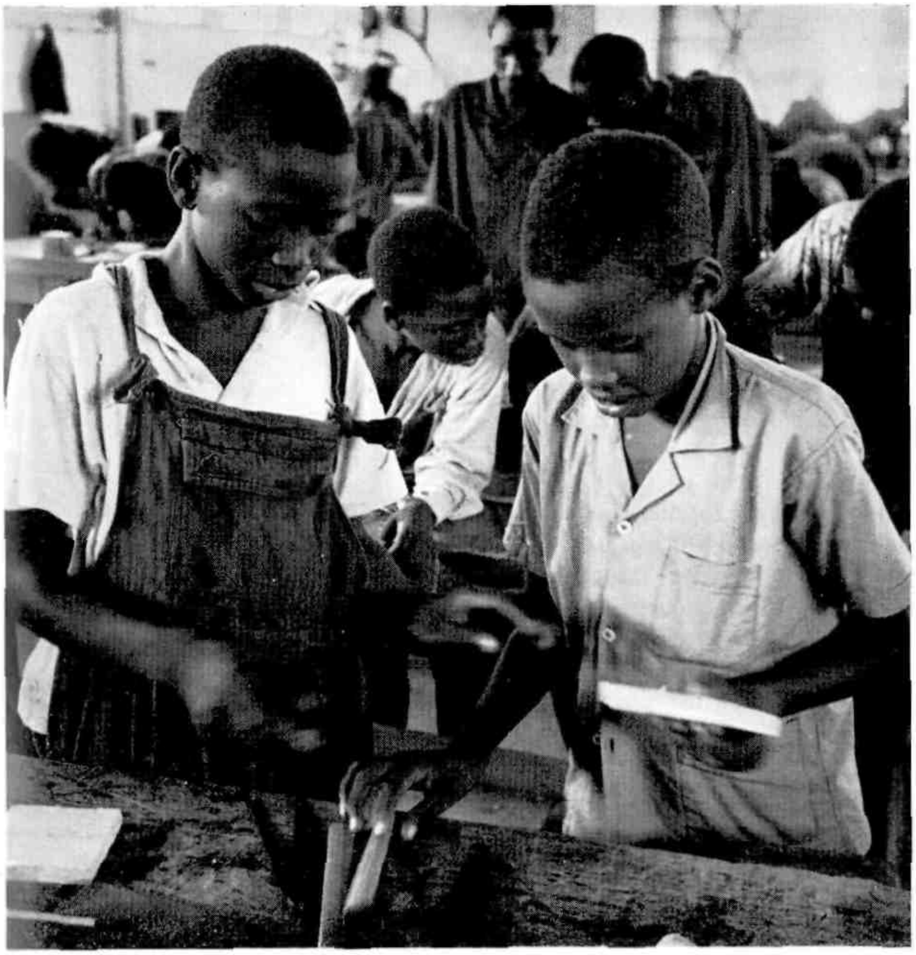
As we will find, grand and abstract theories play little part in African reality. There remains the fact, on the other hand, that although most African leaders claim socialism as the path for the present and the goal of the future, a consensus of what 'African socialism' means, even though general and non-theoretical, does not exist.

This is a healthy sign. It shows that Africa has become independent in more than a formal sense, that it has freed itself from more than just colonial administrators and colonialist exploiters. It shows that it has also freed itself from domination by outside ways of thought and is unwilling to accept a future that is not of its own making. It shows that Africa is dynamic, that it is questioning as it changes, as it discards and builds, as it creates. On the question of socialism in Africa there are many many voices.

In view of this, perhaps it would be best to begin with what socialism in Africa is not. On this there is general agreement and the answer is quite simple: it is not a system from outside Africa. That is, it is not a vestige of the colonialist past, nor is it to be imported wholesale, or copied slavishly, now that independence has been achieved.

Among the many spokesmen for socialism let me quote three leaders on this point. President Sekou Touré of Guinea has this to say:

'In Africa, we hear a lot about African socialism as if there existed a Chinese socialism, an American socialism, a Yugoslav socialism, a Bulgarian socialism, and so on. If one gives such an abstract definition to a political theory, nothing can stop one from referring in the future to a Nigerian or a Togolese road to African socialism, or to speak of Senegalese chemistry and Moroccan mathematics. To adopt socialism for the sake of socialism is to try to harvest with nothing but the handle



These young citizens of Guinea in West Africa are learning carpentry at Conakry Technical School (UNESCO photo)

of the sickle . . .

'Although completely engaged in national revolution, the Guinean people do not claim the right to become a model; neither do they desire to copy the example of any other revolutionary nation. Each revolution takes place according to the particular political, economic, social and psychological situation existing in the country. That is why one does not import a revolution or give it out as a gift. It is essentially a living reality which becomes manifest through the ideas, the conscious attitude, and the resolute action of those engaged in it and whom it gradually transforms qualitatively.'

Mr. T. J. Mboya, Minister of Justice in Kenya, explains the irrelevance of using non-African terms to describe Africa in this way:

'African socialism has an entirely different history from European socialism. European socialism was born of the agrarian and industrial revolutions, which divided society into the landed and the capitalist on one side and the landless and the industrial proletariat on the other. There is no division into such classes in Africa, where states came to nationhood through the pressure of mass movements and where governments consist of the leaders of the workers and the peasants, rather than the nobility who have ruled in Europe. So there is no need in Africa to argue over ideologies, or to define your actions in terms of doctrinaire theories. There is no need to quarrel, as the British Labour Party did over their famous Clause Four*, about basic doctrine.

'African socialism consists in practice, not in theory, and one cannot argue its merits in terms of Communism or British or Italian Socialism. For some years it was said in the West that Guinea was 'going Communist'. But all the time Sekou Touré was trying to interpret and implement African socialism in a form in which ideology is not important. He saw it as a question of getting his villages to work together and defining the self-help programmes, in the same way as clans cooperated on their common programme of hut-building, harvesting and so on.'

President Sedar Senghor of Senegal, in a discussion of economic planning, summarizes this attitude by rejecting all outside forms of socialism because they are — for Africa — 'prefabricated models' and therefore unacceptable:

'Here as elsewhere, we have prefabricated models. We have not allowed ourselves to be seduced by Russian, Chinese or Scandinavian models. After an objective examination, we have learned lessons from the successes and failures of the different "socialist experiments". Above all, we have observed that formulas like "priority for heavy industry" or "agrarian reform" have no magic power within themselves; applied dogmatically, they have produced partial failures.'

From these statements a second major tenet of socialism in Africa becomes immediately apparent: its devotion to practicality. It has nothing to do with theories or doctrines that pretend to be all-inclusive, universal or at least transportable, but that are in fact nothing more than justifications worked up to support the actions of a particular country at a particular time, working to solve its particular destiny.

A third major tenet of socialism in Africa is that it is not rigid. It is flexible rather than dogmatic. In matters of economic development this attitude

*Clause Four of the Labour Party Constitution calls for 'the common ownership of the means of production, distribution and exchange.'

allows a wide latitude of procedure. We have, for example, opinions such as these expressed by President Hubert Maga of Dahomey:

'(The inadequacy of domestic capital) slows down the development of economic activity in the country and makes it dependent to a large extent on foreign investment . . . (But) our choice of African socialism must not make us enemies of free enterprise. On condition that it fits into the framework of the plan and that it contributes to national betterment, free enterprise will always be welcome.'

and by Mr. Mboya:

'In other words, we will have practically every form of ownership, but all of them will work inside a development plan, with the direction set by Government through its set of priorities. Our nationalization is not an ideology; it is aimed at providing services and opportunities for the community, rather than at dictating who should own something and who should not.'

And in spiritual matters the general opinion is similar to that expressed by President Modibo Keita of Mali:

'What we desire is that all Malians become convinced of our policy and freely contribute to our achievements, . . . I am convinced that the republic and people of Mali will (prove) the socialist concept and also will remain good Moslems, Christians, and animists.'

What then is socialism in Africa? We know that it is not imported or copied, not theoretical or dogmatic. It is not democratic socialism as that term is understood in Scandinavia or India, nor the revised authoritarian Marxism of Russia or China or Yugoslavia. Socialism in Africa in fact is a mixture of elements, many African and some not, some unique and many not. Probably more than anything else two things are involved: nationalism and the desire for social justice. But we must study it with several questions in mind: the one-party state, classes or the lack of classes, the development of an underdeveloped country, the mystiques and realities of nationhood. Because for Africa, and therefore for socialism in Africa, these are the vital questions.

Writing on socialism and the role of trade unions in Ghana, President Nkrumah says:

'In Ghana, the trade unions are openly associated with the Convention People's Party as one of its wings. They have no need to hide this association behind hypocritical sophistries . . .'

President Nkrumah emphasizes that the trade unions are a 'wing' that is under the control of the government. The same applies to the press of course, and more recently to the judiciary. In short, all the diverse expressions and groupings of a modern society are 'wings' of the government, of the ruling party. One party, one leader, is synonymous with the people in President Nkrumah's peculiar thinking. The party of course is the party in power: the leader of course is the ruler of the party in power — himself.

In explaining why Africans call their attitudes 'African socialism' rather than simply socialism, Mr. Mboya says that the motives are 'bound up with the African reaction against colonialism':

'The African is anxious that his attitude of mind, his approach to problems, should be identified as an African approach . . . Africa has her own history, her own philosophy. There is a positive desire, arising out of what may start as a negative reaction, that whatever is of value in Africa's own culture and her own social institutions should be brought out to contribute to the creation of the new African nation . . .

'Its main difference from the European structure which was of course the one officially favoured during the colonial era, is that it is communal by nature. Most African tribes have a communal approach to life. A person is an individual only to the extent that he is a member of a clan, a community or a family.'

Many Africans find this communality to be the specifically African aspect of 'African socialism'. President Senghor is said to have first used the term 'African socialism', and for him the African characteristic is negritude, 'the common denominator of all Negro Africans whatever their race, religion, or country'. Now a bond as wide as this, a bond based on race involves much that is mystical. Senghor is also emphatic that Africans, in facing the outside world, 'must assimilate, not be assimilated.' Senghor is a poet, and, as is apparent, the concept of negritude is in large part a cultural concept, racial in a poetical and mystical way, and is intended to sustain a distinctly African presence in any discussion of world cultures.

President Nkrumah's 'African personality' is also outwardlooking in the sense that it is a term for Africans to face the world with. It is not cultural but political, and its purpose is to sustain a distinctly African presence in any discussion of world politics. Nkrumah generally uses the term along those lines:

' . . . the stand we have taken on foreign policy will steadily add impetus to the role that Ghana has to play in the projection of the African personality in the international community.'

Senghor, for cultural reasons, and Nkrumah, for political reasons, show concern with the projection outside Africa of something distinctly African. President Julius Nyerere's theory of communality, however, is less concerned with projecting Africa abroad (with Africa in the eyes of others), than with explaining for Africans the distinctly African part of 'African socialism.' This is Nyerere's well-known concept of the extended family:

'The foundation, and the objective, of African socialism is the extended family. The true African socialist does not look on one class of men as his brethren and another as his natural enemies. He does not form an alliance with the "brethren" for the extermination of the "non-brethren". He regards all men as his brethren — as members of his ever extending family . . . Ujamaa, then, or "Familyhood" describes our social-

The theorists of African Socialism

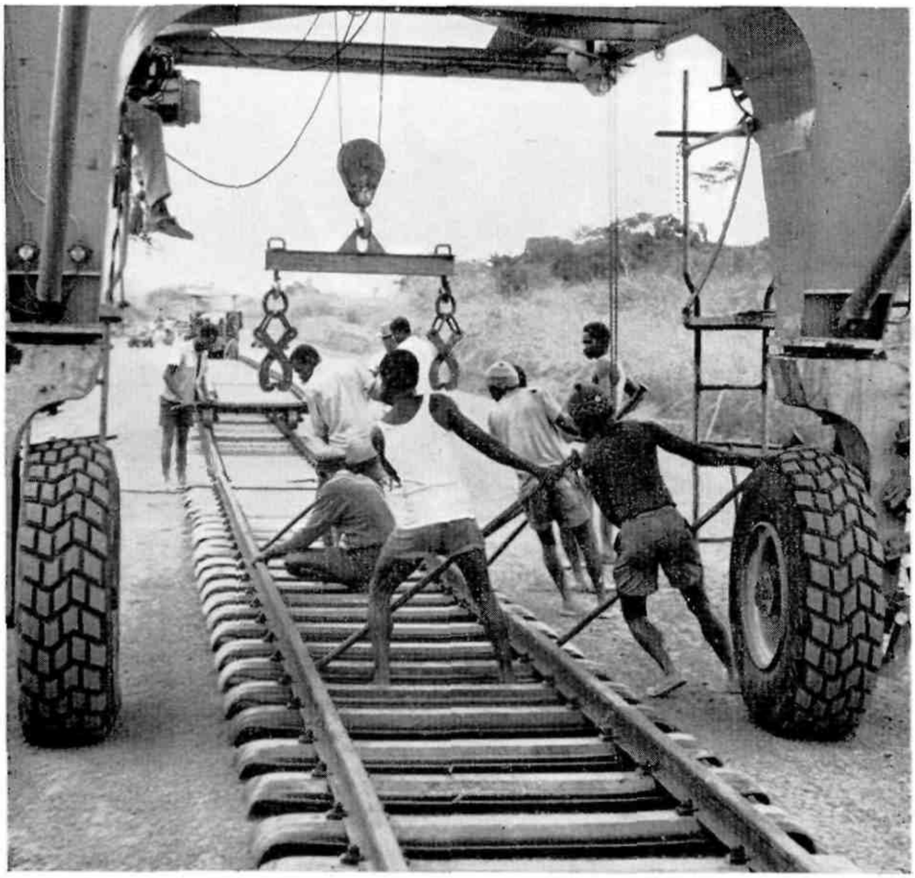
Above, left, Tom Mboya, Kenya Minister of Justice;

Above, right, President Kwame Nkrumah of Ghana;

Right, President Sekou Touré of Guinea

Below, left, President Julius Nyerere of Tanzania;

Below, right, President Senghor of Senegal.



Congolese workers laying railroad track. The new African nations are intensely aware of the world spotlight on their efforts to create new forms of government (UN photo)

ism. It is opposed to capitalism, which seeks to build a happy society on the basis of the exploitation of man by man; and it is equally opposed to doctrinaire socialism which seeks to build its happy society on a philosophy of inevitable conflict between man and man.

'We in Africa, have no more need of being "converted" to socialism than we have of being "taught" democracy. Both are rooted in our past — in the traditional society which produced us. Modern African socialism can draw from its traditional heritage the recognition of "society" as an extension of the basic family unit. But it can no longer confine the idea of the social family within the limits of the tribe, nor, indeed, of the nation.'

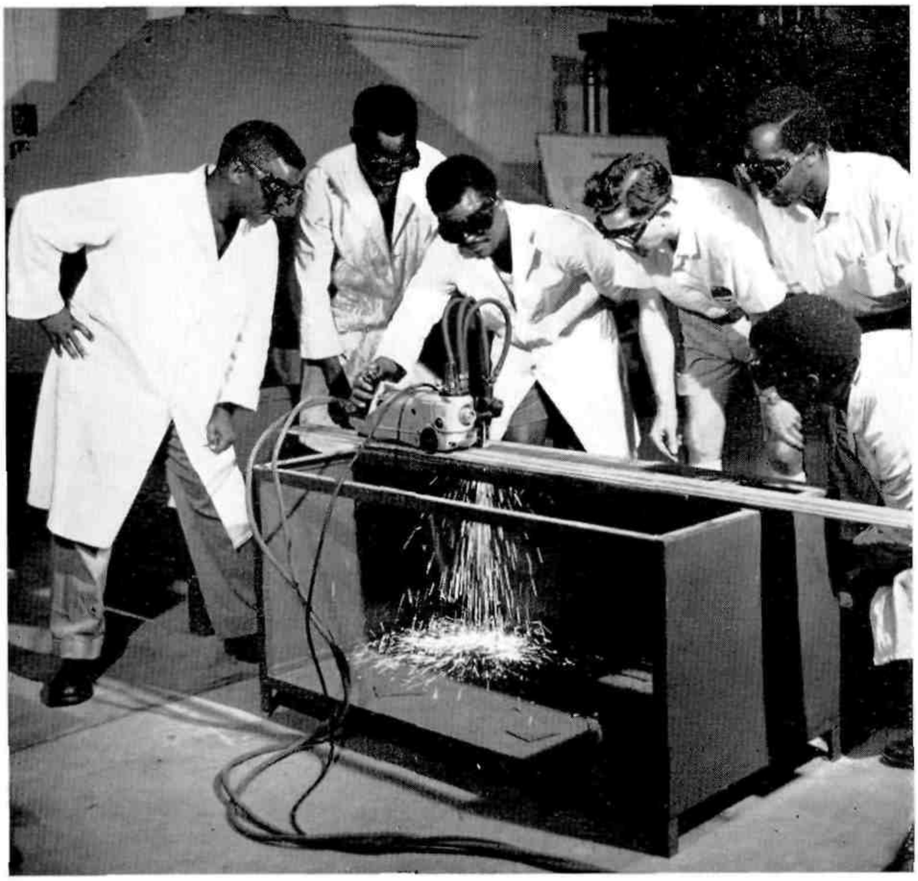
Nyerere's expression of the 'extended family' is perhaps the most effective description of what many Africans want to transfer — via socialism — from their past to their future. But it is a metaphor and one wonders how far the metaphor can be stretched and still be meaningful. African countries want to become modern industrialized states. Is it possible to use the basic (and simple) family unit, other than metaphorically, to describe the vast sociological complexities of a modern industrialized society? I think not and I think the mistake lies in assuming that a modern society can be anything but complex, that is to say, plural. All modern industrialized societies are plural; for that matter most primitive societies, once they have embraced more than one small clan or tribe, are already on the road to complexity.

Sometimes this is overlooked in references to traditional African society when 'our ancestral socialist traditions', as President Philibert Tsiranana of Malagasy calls them, are invoked. It is one thing, after all, to say that the African sense of community is significant and basic and that some sort of feeling such as this, in turn, is basic to the building of socialism. But it is another matter entirely to say that a modern society of many hundreds of people or many millions of people, can be built on the same sense of communality that allowed small, simple communities to get along in the past. In metaphorical or poetic language the description of a sense can be complete; the description can be valid and convey reality. But where political facts come into play more is required. To be aware of this we only have to bear in mind the sentimental or nostalgic or dogmatic socialists who come to Africa, selling their wares and trying to justify themselves at the expense of reality in Africa.

We are led, then, to the question of one-party states, for a state with only one party generally denies pluralism. Many African countries permit only one party, the ruling party, to exist; and the tendency is for more of them to adopt the system. It is justified as democratic — all countries of every persuasion in the world, save the one or two that are avowedly fascist, seem to call themselves democratic — because the ruling party is the nationalist movement that achieved independence from colonialism. The question, it seems to me, is what will happen as the nationalist movement (now the ruling party) becomes more and more removed from the battle that gave it its national character, the struggle for independence? Classes already exist in Africa — intellectuals, bureaucrats, business middlemen, all men of some power — and it is probable that more groups with special problems and special aspirations will appear as society becomes more modern, more complex. Certainly classes are as yet nowhere near as significant in Africa as they have been and are elsewhere; nonetheless they could become so. Militating against the possibility is the fact that Africans are aware of the danger and almost unanimously oppose it.

But what, then, of socialism and the one-party state? It must be remembered that although self-rule in Africa

Trainee teachers being taken through a demonstration of oxy-acetylene cutting of steel plate at the Technical Institute, Dar-es-Salaam (COI photo)



is only a few years old, in some of the one-party states the universal panoply of dictatorship — from suppression of all opposition to official glorification of the ruler — has gone astonishingly far. The second and third revolutions have followed fast behind the first. And once the Marxist dogma of class warfare is rejected is it possible to call a dictatorship 'socialist', that, according to Marx, was only necessary in the first place in order to suppress 'other' classes?

The answer given in the one-party states is yes, and the reasons given are that socialism in Africa is national and that all aspects of society are incorporated within the national party. It is kind of 'socialism', a kind of one-party state, that is not unique to Africa.

The system we set out to discuss — 'African socialism' — does not exist. What we have are certain socialist tenets generally held in common among Africa's diverse nations, but which when taken together, show that socialism in Africa is as yet unformed. There is a belief everywhere in state planning and there are various degrees of nationalization, some more complete than others and some quite lax. The identifying characteristic is that all economic activity must contribute to the rational development of the state. The 'socialist' factor in this is that all society will improve its lot together. It is the only reasonable policy today for a developing country.

Other positive aspects are the lack of dogma, the rejection of class warfare, and the rejection of abstract theories which live at the expense of reality. Making use of the African sense of communality, in a realistic way, is essential to the task of nation-building in Africa.

On the other hand the working models, the experiments in socialism in Africa, have few institutions. It is the reverse side of rejecting dogmas and prefabricated systems from abroad. Yet modern societies need institutions; due to the advances of technology the potential concentration of power in a modern society is nearly unlimited. Rule by men is good when the weather is fair; but men cannot always be counted upon and institutions provide shelter when the wind is unfavourable. The only alternative to institutions is an uncertain succession of men, of dictators who pretend to rule with the mandate of history as kings used to pretend to rule with the mandate of heaven. Such myths are no longer acceptable.

Socialism in Africa helps our nations develop. It is also inextricably bound up with nationalism. It serves to free us from the colonialist past while at the same time it allows us to build from our own history. Initially it has grown out of two facts: the past colonial experience and the present state of underdevelopment. These facts characterize it, give it its goals and its substance. It is an expression of nationalism: a tool and a function of nationalism as well as of the desire for social justice.

African socialism does not exist as a system, but, inevitably, it will. We are moving through history quickly. Yet even though socialism in Africa is inextricably bound up with nationalism, one hopes that the present trend of the one-party states, their tendencies to a corporate structure of 'national' socialism, will not turn out to be the distinctly African mode of socialism. If it did prove to be, Africans would have won much less than they promised themselves in their long struggle for freedom.

* * * *

Housewives work as dockers

THE PORT AUTHORITY of Gothenburg, Sweden, has taken on 15 housewives as crane operators. The women dockers work from 4.30 to 7.30 p.m. Monday to Friday and from noon on Saturdays, when men are not available. The dockers raised no objection provided they received the same wages as men.

The work of bus loading reporters calls for quick and accurate observation. The two here are seen in Trafalgar Square, London.

COUNTING THE HEADS

THE JOB OF LOADING REPORTERS has been carried on under various names, from the early days of organized bus operation in London. The oldest record of this work dates back to the First World War when the London General Omnibus Company issued instructions to their 'omnibus traffic checkers'. They were also called 'loading observers' at that time.

The instructions state clearly how the traffic checker should carry out his duties. 'Particular care must be taken that the date; service numbers; omnibus letters; passengers arriving, set down and departing; destinations and weather are entered on the sheets'.

Today, fifty years later, loading reporters record these same items as they watch the buses at their stopping points. In simple terms, the job of loading reporter is to gather information about the passengers carried on buses at specified times and places. It is this information which is vital to the efficient planning of services.

London Transport employs about 120 loading reporters. A hundred of these work in central and suburban London as part of a special section controlled by the traffic officer. The remainder are based at garages throughout the country bus area. The country reporters work mainly on local routes. But when a particularly big traffic census is required in the country area the central men are called in to help.

The information gathered by the reporters is recorded in columns on a loading sheet, and the figures are totalled for specified periods. On average a loading reporter makes $1\frac{1}{4}$ million entries a year. The information on the sheets is summarised and later analysed in the traffic office, which deals with nearly 350,000 loading reports in the course of a year. A 'library' of loadings, covering the past five years, is available for use at London Transport headquarters.

A loading reporter can record about 30 buses an hour and, working alone, he can often deal with several routes at one stop. At very busy stops, however, more than one man is employed. The bus services in the central area are checked on a systematic basis. This ensures that the loading information about any route is reasonably up to date.

Much of the loading reporters' work today, however, is concerned with special traffic checks in particular areas where alterations are called for to meet changes in traffic. Where many routes are involved, the whole squad of a hundred men might be used in one area for a period of several weeks.

Another special task is a pedestrian census. This is carried out, for instance, when a request is received for a route to be diverted or a new service introduced. For this purpose, loading reporters are stationed in the area under review. They stand at points past which people are likely to walk on their way to an existing bus service or an Underground or British Railways station.

The census is carried out on a representative day when a fair average of traffic can be expected. The reporters count the people passing during separate 15-minute periods. From the figures which they obtain — plus the estimated factor of the proportion of people likely to use a bus service — the operating department can decide whether or not a new route or diversion would be justified.

Passenger counts are also taken before and after the introduction of any one-way road traffic scheme which involves buses. The object is to find out what effect the changes have on our passenger business.

A big annual task for the loading reporters is the census of private cars entering the central London area. This census is taken every July. The count is made at strategic points where traffic converges on the centre of London. All cars, and their occupants, are counted. This census enables London Transport to keep a yearly check on the growth of private car traffic and to see how that growth compares with changes in the number of passengers they are carrying.

The biggest annual job for the loading reporters, however, is the peak census of passengers travelling into and out of central London by bus, Underground and main line and suburban railways. This task is carried out over a period of several weeks in the autumn. For the morning peak, loading reporters count passengers as they leave Underground and main line stations and as they alight from buses at points on the perimeter of the central area. In the evening peak, passengers are counted as they leave London on the homeward journey.

The census provides valuable information for the planning of both bus and Underground services and for encouraging the staggering of working hours. The resulting figures give a comparative picture from year to year of passenger traffic into and out of London in 15-minute periods.

This, then, is the job; but what of the men who carry it out? The majority of loading reporters are former drivers and conductors who have had to take other employment for health reasons. It is remarkable how quickly they settle down to their new task — not always an easy transition for a man who has, perhaps, driven a bus for 20 years.

But the job has its compensations. Even if it does mean being out in all weathers, many of the men enjoy the open-air life. Only thick fog or a heavy blizzard puts a stop to their activities. They like, too, the variety and interest of the busy London scene.

Each man works in his own way, finding the particular vantage point which suits him best for the counting of heads. It has been suggested that it is not possible to count the passengers correctly when buses are arriving at a stop in quick succession. But it has been shown that the loading reporters do, in fact, record the number of passengers with remarkable accuracy.

In carrying out their work, the loading reporters try to remain unobtrusive as possible. But this is not always easy, particularly on crowded, and often narrow, pavements at City and West End stops.

A completely plain uniform, without distinctive badges, is issued to them by London Transport. This helps them remain anonymous and carry on their work for the most part without interruptions. But even so they still find themselves answering a number of travel queries. This they are well able to do, for their job takes them all over London and soon gives them a good knowledge of the capital and its public transport services.

To most members of the public, however, the loading reporters of London Transport are 'mystery men'. The speculations voiced about their job have covered a wide range of legal — and illegal — activities. They have been mistaken for plain-clothes policemen or private detectives and, conversely, for shady characters 'casing' a building for a break-in!

Several of the older hands have experienced the arrival of police in a squad car and the subsequent inspection of their credentials. Usually the call has been made because the loading reporter has himself been 'under observation'. The staff of a bank or other business premises have had their suspicions aroused by 'the man waiting such a long time at the bus stop'.

On one occasion, during a loading check opposite Chelsea barracks, the men in navy blue were suspected by the military authorities of being Irish Republican Army men contemplating a raid. Once again the police were called to sort out this misunderstanding.

These are but a few of the many incidents which, through the years, have added a further touch of variety to the everyday life of the loading reporters of London Transport.

(Source: LT Magazine, December 1964)

William Gardner, second from right, is in charge of the hundred loading reporters in the London bus area who systematically note down the number of passengers using the buses.

Round the world of labour

Safety on the permanent way

THE RAILWAY IS NOT IN ITSELF a safe place to work. It must be made so by measures specially devised to ensure safety — proper design of tools and equipment, sensible working methods, proper protective clothing, adequate warning of danger, etc. — and by constant vigilance. Some railway authorities have adopted an attitude of responsibility in this question. They have realized that their staff have the right to work in conditions of maximum safety, and have taken steps to reduce the rate of accidents suffered by their workers. Over ten years London Transport, which operates a 700 mile underground railway network in and around Britain's capital city, has reduced the average of accidents to permanent way staff from 95 every three months to 35. Accident prevention committees keep a constant watch on conditions in the workshop and on the permanent way, ensuring that the highest standards of safety are maintained.

Similar committees function on the railways of Holland, where impressive arrangements have been made for ensuring the safety of personnel. Each depot or station has its own safety committee, presided over by the chief officer. Each committee consists of representatives of all departments and of the trade unions organizing railwaymen. There are also full-time accident prevention officers, who are responsible for investigating all accidents, collating the results and reporting the details to the staff.

Various forms of propaganda are used to promote safety. Films and posters are circulated, calendars are printed with safety warnings, and even the sugar sachets used in the station canteen carry safety slogans.

Each member of the staff is issued with a whistle with which to attract the attention of workers who are in imminent danger without realizing it. A bright yellow jacket is supplied to all permanent way staff, and train crews' bags are fitted with shoulder straps so that both their hands are left free when boarding a train. Strong, lightweight helmets are issued to guard against head injuries, and experiments are being carried out in the use of a light alloy grip on the heels of footwear which will make for greater safety in slippery ground conditions.

All the hazards of the job are fully explained to new employees, and awards are made for outstanding contributions in the field of accident prevention. Constant research and preparation of statistical data have made it possible in Holland to pinpoint the most prevalent types of railway accidents, the most vulnerable grades, most dangerous situations and peak times for the occurrence of accidents.

In 1953 industrial accidents on the London underground railway system totalled 17,633. In 1963 the figure was 7,736. Even allowing for staff reductions over those ten years, this represents a substantial decline in the accident rate. It is significant that during those ten years London Transport has been actively concerned with increasing safety for its railway workers.

Ten years ago, following a survey of all accidents resulting in absence from work, two committees were set up to cover workshops and the permanent way respectively. The survey had established that a large number of accidents repeat themselves and that the majority are due to a relatively small number of causes. It showed also that most individual accidents could have been prevented. A number of factors are responsible: bad design of equipment, wrong methods of handling materials and tools, failure to follow correct working procedures or safety precautions all contribute, but by far the most common cause of accidents is carelessness. With these things in mind the safety committees were able to find ways of making the London Underground a safer place to work in.

Every new recruit to the permanent way staff now has a fortnight's training course before he goes on to the job. Safety is one of the main elements of this course. The men are taught the right way to use tools and equipment, correct working methods and how to move around and work in safety while the railway is in operation. All recruits receive a copy of London Transport's pamphlet *Safety on the Track*, which uses cartoons to demonstrate the right and wrong ways of doing each task.

* * * *

Danish group offers 'First Aid' at sea

NORTH SEA FISHERMEN who fish within a radius of about 250 km (approx. 156 miles) from Tyboron on the west coast of Denmark will now be able to subscribe to a private rescue service, First Aid at Sea. A 25-foot cruiser is being constructed for this purpose which will have a speed of 20 knots, with radio and direction-finding equipment, and a complete frogman's outfit. The company will offer medical assistance for sick and injured fishermen and will also undertake to carry out minor repairs at sea, including the provision of spare parts for machinery.

* * * *

30 years of radio-medical assistance

THE INTERNATIONAL RADIO-MEDICAL CENTRE (CIRM) has been in existence for thirty years. During this time the centre has helped to bring medical assistance to tens of thousands of seamen dangerously ill in remote parts of the world's oceans. As examples of the CIRM's services, it may, on receiving a distress call from a vessel with a sick crew member, either enlist the aid of the nearest air-sea rescue services to get the man brought to a hospital or consult immediately with a panel of eminent Italian doctors, whose services are always at the disposal of the CIRM, as to the treatment appropriate to the particular case.

In 1964 the CIRM received and transmitted 7,226 medical messages, treated 1,009 sick or injured seamen and with Navy and Air Force help, carried out 46 air-sea rescue missions. And the CIRM is constantly extending its fields of operation. It has recently published a study of the illnesses and diseases from which seamen die.

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Causes of death in British shipping

FIGURES HAVE BEEN ISSUED by the British Ministry of Transport listing the causes of death to merchant seafarers during 1963. The total number of deaths from all causes was 359; of these, only eight were caused by accidents to vessels, such as collisions, fires, etc. Accidents to seafarers accounted for 148 deaths; there were 3 fatal accidents in engineroom and stokehold, and 7 on deck; 9 men were killed in falls down hatchways, and 22 in falls overboard. Ashore, 20 were drowned in docks and 12 killed or missing ashore. Suicide or supposed suicides accounted for the largest single number of deaths under the heading of accidents: 32.

Deaths from disease totalled 203. Of these, by far the largest number, 84, were from coronary thrombosis. Diseases of the digestive system taken together caused 19 deaths, heart disease caused 15 and cancer and cerebral haemorrhage caused 11 deaths each.

* * * *

Profile of American ship's officers

THE AVERAGE SHIP'S OFFICER in today's American merchant marine is 47, speaks one or more foreign languages, probably holds a Master's licence and has spent more than half of his life at sea, 15 years of which have been spent in an officer's capacity on a wide range of ocean-going vessels. A family man with two children under 20, he is likely to have attended college.

This is the broad profile of today's professional mariner derived from a Report on a Survey of the International Organization of Masters, Mates and Pilots membership prepared for the National Academy of Sciences — National Research Council by its Maritime Cargo Transportation Conference.

Moreover, 'the capability of deck officers is also reflected in the qualifications, beyond the basic licence requirements, held by the deck officers,' the Report stated. The Survey data also shows that 'at least 88 per cent of the deck officers are radar qualified.' Additional licence qualifications include Loran, Gyro, Damage Control, Atomic, Biological and Chemical Training; Firefighting and Radio-Telephone/Telegraph.

A number of respondents to the MCTC Survey questionnaire of the IOMM & P membership stated that in addition to their full-time professional sea career, they also were qualified as lawyers, doctors, nuclear physicists, engineers or aircraft pilots and even a professional golfer.

The Survey of the IOMM & P is an important phase of the Shipboard Mechanization and Manpower Study now being performed by MCTC. The objective of the study is 'to evaluate the effects of proposed systems changes in shipboard equipment and manpower upon the effectiveness of the US-flag merchant marine and upon labor, management and public interests.' The Survey questionnaire was developed jointly by the MCTC, the union, the Maritime Administration and the Department of Labor.

Nearly 20 per cent of the deck officers attended a maritime academy, Survey responses showed, with the

Officers on board US Coast Guard cutter

United States Merchant Marine Academy at Kings Point, New York State, being the primary source, followed by foreign academies. The foreign maritime schools contributed predominantly in the case of officers at present holding Master's licences and who obtained their licences during World War II. However, in the other licensed grades — Chief Mate, Second Mate and Third Mate — American maritime colleges contributed the greatest number of officers.

Approximately forty per cent of the IOMM & P membership of 12,000 responded the year-long Survey. Of these, 91.5 per cent were replies from present seagoing officers.

* * * *

211,000 fewer jobs for railwaymen in Britain

OVER THE PAST FIFTEEN YEARS, over 211,000 jobs have been eliminated on Britain's railways. According to figures prepared by the British National Union of Railwaymen the total personnel employed by the railways at the beginning of 1949 was 624,528. By September 1964 this total had been whittled down to 412,988, with a reduction in the first nine months of 1964 of over 26,000.

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AN ENTERPRISE MUST BE PRODUCTIVE. By this we mean as a rule that all those concerned in it — the owner, the customer and the worker — must derive sufficient benefit from the contributions they make to it. The owner needs a satisfactory yield from his capital, the customer requires goods or services in return for his money, and the worker demands a reasonable reward for his labour. But what does the worker's contribution consist of exactly, and what do we mean by productivity ?

There are as many answers to those questions as there are readers for this article. That work — measured in working hours and units of work — is a contribution and that wages are a return are obvious facts. But beyond that? Are an aching back, a hearing defect caused by noise, or a shift worker's upset stomach to be counted as contributions requiring some reward? If this is true the satisfaction at performing a worthwhile task, the stimulus provided by good company at work or opportunities for self advancement could be regarded as rewards. In that case their opposites should also be included in the productivity formula: dissatisfaction with tasks imposed, discontent or absence of opportunity for advancement.

If we hold fast to the theory that the productivity of an enterprise is expressed in the relationship between contribution and return, an affirmative answer to these questions presents us with difficulties. It becomes impossible to measure productivity, because on the one hand we have no yardstick for these factors and on the other variations appear in individual demands and capacities for self-adaptation. It is easy to assert that a man who has left work feeling tired and dissatisfied has made a more substantial contribution than a man whose day's work has left him fit for further activities during his time off. It is equally easy to extend this supposition maintaining that, if the same wages are paid to both workers, the latter in fact receives a greater reward. How are we to make compari-

WORKING ENVIRONMENT

A field for trade union activity?

by INGE JANERUS

Since 1946 an agreement has been in force between the Swedish trade union centre, LO, and the employers' national centre providing for works councils. These are advisory bodies composed of representatives for labour and management within an individual enterprise. Their function is, amongst other things, to maintain constant contact and cooperation between management and labour, to promote security of employment for workers, their safety, and satisfaction with work, and in general to promote good production and good working conditions. The author of this article is LO's Secretary for Works Councils. He has studied the various ways in which environment can influence the worker's happiness at work and can in turn affect his productive capacity. In his article he goes into the possibilities of trade union action in this field, highlighting some of the problems of a trade union environment policy.

sons if we take productivity to mean 'the sum of human needs which are satisfied in and through the enterprise in question'? But we do not have to take the debate on environment to such lengths right at the beginning. We shall advance a fair bit of the way if we keep within the bounds of what can be tackled on the trade union and political front.

Collective and individual aspects

No two individuals are exactly alike, not even identical twins, and all our different personal characteristics colour the relationships in which we stand to our work and to our employers. This renders difficult any discussion on a trade union 'environment policy', and many will want to restrict trade union action to concrete conditions which apply generally. Personal and subjective experience of the work environment should on this reasoning be left alone, so that the basis for action may be kept on a firm foundation. A substantial programme of reform can still be worked out even with this restriction. All the external factors — light, temperature, dampness, noise, dust, tools, machines, places for working and resting, hygiene, working equipment, etc. — can all be examined and evaluated more or less objectively, and we can formulate demands in respect of them. Perhaps we can also approach certain factors of a psychological nature, such as organization and management practices at a place of employment and its personnel policy, without departing from what may be objectively determined.

We must of course begin to tackle the problem from this angle. It is relatively easy to define the aim: to adapt the physical environment more effectively to suit our natural dispositions; and it should be easy to agree on that. Similarly, perhaps our next step should be to demand a better balance between the capacities of an individual and the demands the job makes on him — correct selection of personnel, better training at and away from the place of employment and more information.

But having dealt with these we must tackle the subjective problems of environment. Research into the social psychology of work has brought to light frequent instances of discontent and dissatisfaction in enterprises which are ambitious in their efforts to provide good working environment, while on the other hand a positively happy atmosphere is sometimes found under manifestly bad conditions.

Is work a necessary evil?

If one assumes that financial and technical considerations alone determine the way an enterprise is run, the conclusion can easily be drawn that inactivity is the normal state of most workers. If they are not stimulated to work by means of piece rate systems or forced to by supervision, they will slow down their work tempo and reduce their contribution. Many workers say that they accept work as a necessary evil. They are forced to endure it in order to maintain themselves and to indulge in worth-while leisure activities. The Lord's curse on Adam and his sons continues in effect!

Strangely enough the curse seems to apply only to the manual workers in industry. In 'intellectual' jobs, the services and skilled trades, workers are expected to attach a positive value to their work. This generalization is grossly exaggerated. There are many indications that work in industry can and does bring satisfaction to many — why otherwise should a pools winner, in spite of his new found wealth, return to his machine, as often happens; a housewife take a part time job which does not provide her with much, once she has paid for her children to be looked after; or a man continue looking for a job even though he can draw unemployment benefit? Many indeed look upon work as a cross they have to bear, but they would find life even more difficult with no occupation at all.

Labour experts, in whose thinking the financial and technical aspects of labour come second to the human element, have devoted much effort to the study of this double-sided attitude to work. Their point of departure has been that we as human beings have certain basic needs — psychological as well as physical — and that some of these can be satisfied at work. Behind this we can see the idea that dissatisfaction and discontent arise from the failure of the job to meet these needs satisfactorily. We do not know yet whether this idea is correct. Individual differences make generalizations impossible and create difficulties in assessing the results of observations. But they loom large in the debate on environment, since knowledge of them can point in which direction the solutions to a number of problems are to be found.

Striving for self-fulfilment

The striving for self-fulfilment is said to be common to all living creatures. Every man has a considerable number of potential talents, and all strive to develop and exploit their own. Having attained one objective, a man automatically aims at a new one and is glad to be able always to 'grow another inch'. Work should on this reasoning be organized so that every employee may continually meet and overcome fresh difficulties. In an office this much is obvious, at least for those who are employed to solve problems. For other jobs on the other hand the exact opposite is considered to be of most advantage: jobs are organized on a routine basis, the best work methods are established through studies, and special staff are designated to do what work cannot be accommodated in the routine.

Evidence of a worker's desire to be in on the solution of problems affecting his own workplace is often found. If the management of an enterprise effects changes without consulting those who are going to be most directly affected by them, the changes will be met with passive resistance. If something goes wrong — which often happens under such circumstances — it is not long before one hears 'I told you so!' or 'I could have warned you about that beforehand if you'd only asked' and so on. Those who react in this way are not giving voice to ill-will and malice so much as to annoyance that they were not consulted in the preparatory stages and that their knowledge and experience had been taken lightly.

This in turn is bound up with our desire to be of *use* and to have our efforts *appreciated*. Nobody would choose to do work which has no purpose. On the other hand a man engaged on an important task can be encouraged to put in a considerable amount of effort. It makes no difference whether everybody at our place of work thinks we are performing a useful function or we are alone in that estimation. The rest have perhaps 'not realized the value' of the work we do — 'wait until . . .' and so on. We can observe this in our own unions. There is usually somebody who is glad to take on a task which nobody else wants, simply to show that he is of use.

The man who carries out an essential function and accomplishes it acording to his own capabilities and with a certain amount of freedom bears a responsibility which serves his own and his employer's purpose at the same time. Many studies show that a man finds it stimulating to be given responsibility. Responsibility is after all an expression of trust, and he likes to prove himself worthy of it. The common notion that capacity to bear responsibility is limited to those specially gifted with a sense of responsibility probably does not stand up to closer examination. Irresponsibility, which some consider to be in evidence among certain categories of workers, results rather from lack of opportunity to take on responsibility.

Status and prestige are also things we get from work, an important fact in this connection. Both formal hierarchy and informal groupings at work go to determine the status of a single worker or groups of workers. A restaurant cook has a higher status if he fries steak than if he fries fish, even if both have the official rank of head cook. Often these rulings are quite illogical. A man who changes from a nice clean routine job to dirty but more varied work might consider it a step forward, if he happens to value diversified work. But if he sets greater store by keeping his hands clean he would consider a change in the opposite direction to be a rise in status.

As a group we strive for status, but as individuals we strive for prestige. We would rather be competent skilled workers than mediocre supervisors, even though the latter means higher status. The choice between the two is determined by our need of security. Formal titles and bestowed priviliges cannot give the same feeling of security and well-being as respect and recognition from members of the group we ourselves belong to.

Many studies show a clear connection between status and prestige on the one hand and contentment on the other. Individuals enjoying great prestige in high status groups are happier with their situation than others. This is well worth knowing when it comes to redeploying personnel, carrying out job evaluation studies, or in any other way changing informal groupings at the place of work.

Group-determined attitudes

Most of us also need to be in *contact with other human beings*. The needs described above can of course only be satisfied in a social context. Certainly this is one of the factors which induce married women to go out to work. For many others the most important aspect of work, apart from wages, is contact with work mates.

But one cannot share the security and solidarity of a group at work unless one conforms to its rules and laws. These are to be found in any group and they influence our behaviour and attitudes for as long as we are part of it. It is not only a question of conventions and manifestations of group solidarity, but also of standards of procedure which lay down how a workmate should be treated or a supervisor approached, what attitude should be adopted towards the work and the place of employment, and even how much work should be done in a day. These rules regulating work performance are quite common, except in the case of piece work. Sometimes they are motivated by practical considerations, for example nobody must work harder than the weakest member of the group, but just as often they are merely a reflection of the attitude towards the employer.

The work group has, like most other groups, its own mythology. Ulrich Herz has shown in his adaptation of J. A. C. Brown's book 'Social Psychology of Industry' how significant these myths can be in our evaluation of events at work. A myth is after all a 'truth' which can be applied without any demand on logic. There are always grounds for distrusting management's intentions; work is a necessary evil and it is inconceivable that it should be done voluntarily; there is always a cause for dissatisfaction with wages; time and motion means less to eat, and so forth: these are all examples of such 'truths'. We only give expression to them to prove that we are one of the group. Take people to one side and you find out what they really think.

This is true enough but in the work environment mythology is a psychological reality. An individual will not be contented if all the others say they are not; he forces himself — in order not to be different — to join in the chorus. And the individual who does not accept the 'truths' of the mythology or outspokenly contradicts them is not accepted as a member of the group. Hence we often express views which are not our own, and which in the context of the group are not individual opinions at all.

Anyone wishing to introduce changes in a working environment cannot ignore these phenomena. And there is no way of bypassing them. It is impossible to get anywhere with a group which has negative attitudes towards its work and its employer by breaking it up or by isolating the person who seems to be making the rules. Such methods will only make the myths cling more firmly. Neither is it any use applying logic and proving that these notions are false. They are after all not founded on fact, and such arguments will only drive the members of the group further into the comfortable 'truth' of their myths. Neither will it do to attack the members individually. It is more important to be in harmony with one's group than to have a conviction of one's own.

Instead the group phenomenon must be directed towards definite purposes. Many an experiment described in the literature of the subject shows how attitudes have completely changed when management has accepted the justification for group formations and has consulted them for the purpose of regulating working conditions. If the employees are given influence and responsibility through their working groups, the instinct to band together works in a positive direction.

Trade union environment policy

The objective environment factors should be changed, and the work should be organized so as to give individuals the opportunity to express their different strivings and to explode a host of industry's social myths. But the problems, in so far as they affect the individual employee, are very similar to those which works councils come up against. For the very reasons which prompted the establishment of works councils were to give more consideration to the human aspects of labour, to free workers from conditions regulated on a purely technical and financial basis, to give work greater value and the worker greater dignity.

* * * *

We wish to be of use and to have our efforts appreciated. These are facts to be borne in mind when changes are to be effected in the place of work. Workers like to be consulted.

WHAT'S NEW IN TRANSPORT?

Airline messages by computer

A computer for handling messages has been brought into operation at Heathrow House near London Airport. It will be able to provide a service to all airlines using London Airport, but initially it will serve the British Overseas Airways Corporation, acting as a relaying and distribution point for all the company's message traffic between London and their world network of stations.

As traffic grows it will be able to handle five times the existing demand, now running at 45,000 messages a day. Signals passing through London to and from any part of the world are read automatically and passed to the correct destination in a fraction of the time it took to do manually. The message is 'written' on a large metal disc, similar to a gramophone record, and then sent on in a matter of milli-seconds. If the line is engaged the computer stores the message on the disc until it can be sent. If the signal is urgent, other routine messages are held up automatically. A unique feature is that if the route is very busy the computer is instructed to send via an alternative route through other stations.

BOAC have at present fifty circuits in and fifty out, through the computer, linking overseas stations with reservations, flight operations and other departments at London headquarters.

Computers are coming into their own in the air transport industry. The Scandinavian Airlines System has installed a central data processing system to handle bookings. The system, which has taken four years to develop, will enable reservations to be made anywhere in Europe in a fraction of a second. The SAS installation can store 56,000,000 characters and can maintain a booking list for 300 days in advance.

* * * *

Computers in road traffic control

Munich, Germany's southern metropolis, will be the first city in Europe to use computers to synchronize its traffic signals, so that the best possible use is made of road capacity. The computer system, which will be installed at the busy Stachus Square in the city centre, will automatically monitor the situation at various points, calulate the signals settings required to obtain optimum traffic flow and make appropriate adjustments to the traffic lights — all within fractions of a second. The system — to be in operation by next year — will eventually be extended to control all major traffic routes in Munich.

The British Ministry of Transport has also been experimenting with computers for possible use in controlling traffic in various parts of London. An electronic computer system installed at the Ministry's headquarters in London can monitor the traffic flow across Vauxhall Bridge two miles away. In the experiment two 1-inch tubes have been placed 13 inches apart at eleven different points on the main roads leading to and from the approach to the bridge. As traffic passes over the tubes impulses are transmitted by telephone lines to the computer at the Ministry. The computer can then indicate the number of vehicles passing per hour and their speed.

The information is shown by coloured lights on a wallmap representing a square half-mile of streets around the junction at the approach to the bridge. Traffic moving at 10 mph or more is shown by green arrows, but when its speed drops below 10 mph the arrows light up in amber and in red if the traffic stops for more than thirty seconds.

A system such as this enables police to keep a better check on traffic.

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Slow-speed locomotive control

Remarkable locomotive speed indicating equipment, reading accurately at less than 0.1 m.p.h. (0.16 km.p.h.) has been developed by two British firms. This equipment is now being fitted to diesel-electric locomotives for use in coal delivery trains which involve automatic unloading and weighing of wagons on the move at such installations as power stations for which operation conventional indicating equipment does not provide the degree of control required.

This revolutionary equipment replaces the conventional system. A multi-toothed wheel with a fixed magnetic pick-up is attached to an axle and gives a signal, the frequency of which is proportional to locomotive speed. The signal is then fed into an electronic converter which in turn feeds the indicator dials. Accuracy of this system is a great improvement over previous systems being steady down to 0.5 m.p.h. (0.8 km.p.h.) on the normal 100 m.p.h. (160 km.p.h.) indicator and 0.1 m.p.h. (0.16 km.p.h.) on the special 3 m.p.h. (4.8 km.p.h.) indicator which is brought into operation when the locomotive is being used for slow speed operation.

Operation is simple, the driver controlling the speed of the locomotive by a small variable resistor fitted in front of the main controller. This gives fine control of speed up to 3 m.p.h. (4.8 km.p.h.). Further development of the equipment provides automatic slow speed control to a speed pre-determined by the driver. This automatic system has been successfully demonstrated and will be fitted on locomotives for British Railways.

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Japan develops new buoys

Two self-powered whistle buoys have been developed to ensure maritime safety off the coast of Enoshima Island, Japan. They serve to warn shipping of the dangerous reefs in local waters by means of lights and sirens. The power is derived from the action of the waves motivating a pendulum set in the body of the buoy.

* * * *

Above: Grand President of the Brotherhood of Railway Clerks, C. L. Dennis (left), takes delivery of the 15 minibuses before they are dispersed to various parts of the United States for use in organizational work. His union is one of the three taking part in the campaign.

Below: Brotherhood of Railway Clerks officials discuss the joint CRC-ALDA-ALEA organization drive in one of the new mobile offices before going out on the job.

US air unions work together

THREE UNIONS ORGANIZING the American white-collar airline workers have decided to merge their efforts in tackling problems facing these workers. The three unions are the ITF-affiliated Brotherhood of Railway Clerks, Airline Dispatchers' Association and the Airline Employees' Association. The unions' chief aims in joining forces in this vital sphere of trade union activity are 'to keep undesirable elements from gaining a foothold in the airline industry, to help organize the great group of unorganized white collar employees in air transport and to defend them against the Mutual Aid Pact of the Airlines.' A joint statement put out by the three unions declared that the airline clerical workers had been neglected too long and that it was the intention to secure them a just place in the air transport family as regards job security, wages and working conditions.

For the purpose of carrying out the planned organizing drive the unions bought a set of fifteen minibuses which would serve as mobile offices for the joint organizing staff. These mobile units are equipped with desks, filing cabinets and all the usual office furnishings. They will enable officials to visit plenty of airports and will provide altogether better contacts with union members and non members alike.

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Publications received

Indian Railwaymen, first issue of the new magazine published by the All India Railwaymen's Federation; contains news about union activities and general articles on economic and political subjects.

The United Nations 1964, a short pamphlet summarizing the broad activities in the political, economic and social fields of the UN during the past year.

Annual Bulletin of Transport Statistics for Europe, published in French and English by the UN Economic Commission for Europe at $US 1.50 (or equivalent in other currencies); gives detailed statistics concerning operations in road, rail and inland water transport for the year 1963 in the ECE countries.

The Cost of Social Security, 1958-1960, published in English, French and Spanish by the International Labour Office; gives breakdowns of the amounts spent on various forms of social security by member governments during the years 1958 to 1960, and comparative tables showing the changes in social security incomes and expenditures since 1949.

Guide to European Sources of Technical Information, a Directory published by the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, which gives details of organizations in Europe specializing in the provision of information on technical subjects including railways, road transport, shipbuilding and aeronautics.

Course for Apprentice Fishermen, edited and compiled by the staff of *World Fishing*, published by Grampian Press, price 8s. 6d. Twenty-three chapters gives instruction in all aspects of fishing, from the way a trawl works to gutting, stowing and icing fish and handling a ship at sea.

The Japan Institute of Labor, a booklet surveying the work of the Institute and listing its publications.

Introduction to the Merchant Navy, by Ronald Hope, published by the British Seafarers' Education Service, price 3s. 6d.

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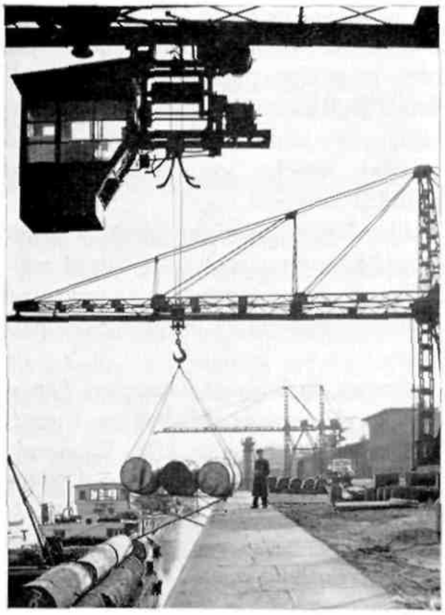

Dockside scene on the Danube in Vienna

FIVE YEARS OF EFTA*

THE EUROPEAN FREE TRADE ASSOCIATION is an arrangement between eight countries (the original seven members: Austria, Denmark, Norway, Portugal, Sweden, Switzerland, and the United Kingdom; and the associated member, Finland) to create a single market by the abolition of tariffs and all other restrictions on the flow of trade between the members, while leaving them free to maintain their own tariffs and to follow their own commercial policies vis-à-vis third countries. To understand EFTA it is useful to have a quick look back to the mid-1950s, when six countries — Belgium, France, Western Germany, Luxembourg, Italy and the Netherlands — decided to form the European Economic Community, having as one of its aims the ultimate establishment of a common market with free trade between Members and Common tariffs on imports from outside the Six.

The next development was the proposal to create a free trade area in Europe comprising the Six countries of the Community plus other European countries, but these negotiations broke down in 1958. At that point the necessity arose for two market groupings in Europe — the EEC and EFTA.

The EFTA Convention was formally signed by the seven EFTA countries in January 1960. The seven countries chose the technique of a free trade area because they believed that it was workable and advantageous to them as world trading nations with substantial interests outside Europe. In broad terms, the Stockholm Convention set out timetables for the removal of tariffs and quotas in respect of industrial goods; measures to promote trade in agricultural goods and fish; rules of origin to prevent deflection of trade resulting from the differences of their external tariffs towards the outside world; measures for ensuring fair competition and the necessary economic cooperation among Member States; and recourse to a complaints procedure.

The first years of EFTA's existence were primarily devoted to finding ways and means of reopening the negotiations for an enlarged trading area embracing the Seven as well as the Six. However, these 'bridge-building' attempts in 1960 and 1961 were not successful. As a result, the British government, after consultations with its EFTA partners, decided in July 1961 to apply for membership of the EEC. Similar although not identical applications for full or associate membership were presented to the Six by other EFTA countries in 1961 and 1962.

The final breakdown of the negotiations in Brussels came in January 1963, with the refusal of France to accept British membership of the Community. This was the main turning point in the development of EFTA. The abrupt check to the immediate prospects for a broad European market solution prompted a searching reappraisal of EFTA itself by its Members. EFTA now had to look forward to an existence of its own. By May 1963, at a meeting in Lisbon, they had agreed to bring forward the date for the complete establishment of the Free Trade Area. Industrial tariffs were to be abolished by the end of 1966.

The central feature of EFTA is the elimination by stages of import duties on a wide range of goods produced in and exported from other Member States. On 31 December 1963 these duties were reduced to 40 per cent of their level in 1960. They were further reduced to 30 per cent of that level by the end of 1964†, will be reduced to 20 per cent by the end of 1965 and will be finally eliminated completely on 31 December 1966. There are certain exceptions, particularly for imports into Portugal and Finland, for which a slower timetable of duty reductions applies for certain products. Nor do EFTA tariff reductions apply to most agricultural products or fish, nor to revenue duties such as excise taxes, purchase taxes, sales and turnover taxes.

EFTA is a free trade area, with each Member country maintaining its own external tariff against imports from third countries. The free trade area arrangement can, therefore, apply only to goods which are *produced* in Member States. If they applied to reexports of goods imported from outside the area, such goods would often be imported via the country with the lowest duty so as to by-pass the higher duty of some other Member country. It is therefore essential to have a set of rules which indicate clearly the goods which can be regarded as having been produced in Member countries and so are entitled to the reduced EFTA rates of duty. The EFTA Convention therefore contains a set of Origin Rules.

*The information in this article is based on a booklet by Torben Jantzen of EFTA: The Operation of a Free Trade Area.

†The British government imposed a temporary 15 per cent import duty recently to help solve balance of payments problems.

The basic Origin Rule is the '50 per cent rule'. Under this, goods are regarded as of EFTA origin if the import value of any materials imported from outside the area is less than 50 per cent of the export price of the goods. For example, a motor car produced in an EFTA country from components and materials imported from a non-EFTA country will be regarded as of EFTA origin provided that the import value of the components and materials (less any materials on the Basic Materials List (see below), such as sheet steel) is less than 50 per cent of the export value of the finished car. The Basic Materials List covers almost all the basic raw materials which are regarded as EFTA materials even if imported from outside the area. They need not be taken into account in determining whether the 50 per cent of non-EFTA materials referred to above has been exceeded.

An alternative to the 50 per cent rule is the Process Criterion. Lists of goods have been established and against each item is described the processes of production which, if performed in the EFTA area, entitle the goods to be regarded as of EFTA origin without the necessity of establishing any values or prices.

EFTA is designed to interfere as little as possible with such key areas of its members' sovereignty as fiscal arrangements, and the Convention therefore does not require removal of those tariffs or similar charges on industrial imports which the members have identified as being primarily for the purpose of raising revenue. But Member States have agreed to eliminate any effective *protective* element in these levies.

To the question of whether some degree of harmonization of national tax systems is necesary to ensure fair and effective competition within a free market, EFTA and the EEC have given different answers. EFTA is not aimed at creating the close political and economic union which is the objective of the EEC. The Stockholm Convention therefore confines its attention to internal taxes to one essential point: as with revenue duties, internal taxes and other internal charges on industrial goods must not contain any element of protection. In other words, there must not be any difference between the effective burden on products imported from EFTA and that on similar domestic products.

The Stockholm Convention requires that all remaining quantitative import restrictions in EFTA on industrial goods must be abolished by the end of the transitional period, i.e. by the end of 1966. This goal is being reached through the liberalization of restricted imports and through the progressive expansion of import quotas (minimum 20 per cent increase per year). The liberalization is in almost all cases being carried out on a global basis, so that the EFTA countries will in 1966 have no import restrictions vis-à-vis each other or non-EFTA countries.

Like the Rome (EEC) Treaty, the Stockholm Convention contains a set of rules of competition, laying down a series of principles and procedures for dealing with problems of distorted competition. The rules of competition in the Convention are focussed on government measures and private practices which have a protective or discriminatory effect in favour of local nationals, for example, government aids to domestic producers, protective practices of public undertakings, restrictive business practices, rights of establishment, differences of standards,

Finland, an associate member of EFTA is implementing the Convention recommendations at a slower pace than the rest

Street in Lenzburg, Switzerland

etc. The phrase used throughout the Convention is that such practices must not 'frustrate the benefits expected from the removal or absence of duties and quantitative restrictions on trade between Member States.'

The institutional machinery through which EFTA operates is very simple. It consists of only one body, the Council, plus such subordinate organs as it may create to assist it. The Council is the forum in which the Member governments consult and act together. Its functions are to carry out specific tasks assigned to it in the Convention, to supervise the general operation of the system, and to consider whether further action (including amendment of the Convention) should be taken to promote EFTA's objectives, facilitate the creation of a wider European market and promote the liberalization of trade on a world-wide scale.

There is no fixed limit to the scope of the Council's powers, and its decisions are binding on Member States. Decisions must be by unanimous vote when they involve increased obligations for Member States, while majority rule governs in cases of complaints or the relaxation of obligations.

The Council is composed of representatives of all Member States, each Member having one vote. In practice it works at two levels: at the level of officials, i.e. the heads of members' permanent delegations in Geneva who generally meet once a week to discuss and deal with problems on a continuing basis; and at the level of Ministers of Member governments, who meet every few months, in Geneva or in an EFTA capital, to discuss policy matters. The level at which the Council is functioning does not affect its powers; all decisions can be and the majority of decisions are taken by the Council at official level.

One of the key elements in the Stockholm Convention is the general consultations and complaints procedure. The procedure is at once the mechanism for resolving differences between governments and the avenue by which a firm which feels that its EFTA rights are being infringed in any way can bring its case before the Council, through representation by its own government.

Thus if a Member State considers that any benefit conferred upon it or, by implication on any of its nationals, by the Convention, or any objective of the Association, is being or may be frustrated, it may first raise the matter with the other Member or Members concerned. If no satisfactory settlement can be reached through bilateral or collective consultations, the issue may then be formally referred to the Council, as a complaint.

When a formal complaint is received, the Council is obliged to act promptly and to arrange for examination of the matter, if necessary by setting up an ad hoc committee for this purpose. Member States are required to cooperate fully with the investigators.

On the basis of the evidence brought before the Council it may then make appropriate, but non-binding recommendations. If compliance is not obtained, the Council may authorize any Member State to suspend certain Convention obligations to the Member which has not carried out the recommendations. All Council decisions in this respect are taken by majority vote. In practice, the few complaints EFTA has had up till now have been solved during the consultations in the ad hoc examining committees which were set up.

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CONTENTS

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
- 335 affiliated organizations in 81 countries
- Total membership: 6,500,000

The aims of the ITF are

to support the 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 peoples in freedom and equality for the promotion of their welfare by the common use of the world's resources;

to seek universal recognition and enforcement of the right to organize in trade unions;

to defend and promote, internationally, the economic, social and occupational interests of all transport workers;

to represent 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 Bermuda * Bolivia * Brazil * British Guiana * British Honduras Burma * Canada * Chile * Colombia * Costa Rica * Curaçao Cyprus * Denmark * Dominican Republic * Ecuador * Egypt Estonia (Exile) * Faroe Islands * Finland * France * Gambia Germany * Great Britain * Greece * Grenada * Guatemala Honduras * Hong Kong * Iceland * India * Indonesia * Israel Italy * Jamaica * Japan * Kenya * Lebanon * Liberia * Libya Luxembourg * Madagascar * Malawi * Malaya * Malta Mauritius * Mexico * The Netherlands * New Zealand Nicaragua * Nigeria * Norway * Pakistan * Panama * Paraguay Peru * Philippines * Poland (Exile) * Republic of Ireland Rhodesia * El Savador * St. Lucia * Sierra Leone * South Africa * Republic of Korea * Spain (Illegal Underground Movement) * Sweden * Switzerland * Trinidad * Tunisia Turkey * Uganda * United States of America * Uruguay Venezuela * Zambia

editions of journal

International Transport Workers' Journal

Internationale Transportarbeiter-Zeitung

ITF Journal (Tokyo - Japanese version)

Transporte

ITF-aren

publications for the world's transport workers

editions of newsletter

Informationsblad

Informationen

Informations

Boletin de Noticias (Lima)

Newsletter