International Transport Workers' Journal

7-8

in this issue

This is a special issue designed to give Congress delegates some information about Denmark, Copenhagen, and the Danish unions who are our hosts this year.

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Comment

Man and machines

WHEN WORKERS OF THE early nineteenth century rioted and smashed machines installed to take over their jobs, they were giving expression to deep feelings of insecurity conditioned by the social and economic climate of the time. They knew that the machines meant loss of bread and butter for them, whatever long term advantages they might hold for industry and society.

But the machines came to stay. Science and technology continued their advance, and through successive achievements on the social and economic plane the labour movement developed its philosophies. Workers realized that new developments in industry can be to the advantage of all concerned. But society as a whole and the worker himself, as well as the industrialist and the financier, have a right to their share of the proceeds from improvements in productivity. This right is more widely recognized now than it was a century ago.

Nevertheless fears and insecurity over the possible effects of technological change have not been dispelled entirely. Changes may be made too fast; redundancy provisions and retraining facilities may be lacking; occupational hazards, stresses, and dangers to workers' health may be increased, for example. It is the job of the trade unions to remain vigilant and to ensure that workers are adequately protected against such eventualities. Organized labour no longer stands in the way of industrial progress but welcomes it as a force for good. That it should *be* a force for good, however, is labour's condition. The machine must serve man; never the reverse.

It is therefore of the utmost importance that the unions follow closely all new developments in their industry, so that they may be able to keep members alert to the possible effects of specific technological innovations on their livelihood.

We in the transport industry are aware of this need and are responding to it. 'Changes in the structure of the transport industry: the resultant problems for transport workers' unions' figures prominently on the agenda for our 28th Congress and promises to make it one of the most significant ITF gatherings in the history of our International.

THE PREPARATIONS for our twenty-eighth Congress are now entering their final stages; and since Congress is an occasion for looking back as well as for looking forward—back to the past three years' activities and forward to policy for the coming three years—it is perhaps of interest to look also somewhat further back, to two previous Congresses in Copenhagen, which highlight the continuity of the ITF's work and give some idea of the progress the trade unions have been able to achieve.

The ITF's membership at the last Copenhagen Congress in 1935 was about 1,600,000 in 79 organizations; at the end of last year we had almost four times as many members in 321 organizations. Although thirty years ago the ITF could already claim members in five continents, today that membership is much more widely based, both geographically and in the trades covered.

That 1935 Congress, of course, was gravely concerned about the threat of war and the spread of fascism in Europe, and several resolutions were passed protesting against the Nazi and fascist oppression and seeking to make the international labour movement felt as a power for peace and justice in a world in which the black forces of violence and repression seemed to be gaining the upper hand.

A further sign of the dark times was a moving ceremony in which Edo Fimmen, then ITF General Secretary, received for safe keeping from the Austrian representative the ITF flag which Austrian railway trade unionists had managed to smuggle out of the country. This flag was handed back after the war when Austria had taken her place once more among the free nations. The Congress also urged the ITF to continue with the work it was doing to help underground workers' organizations to fight against the fascist oppression in Germany, Austria and Italy.

We are thankfully aware that the most dreadful of those terrors have been done away with; yet in many parts of the world today people still suffer the yoke of dictatorship and oppression and

Our Third Copenhagen Congress

by PIETER DE VRIES,
ITF General Secretary

The new Royal Hotel, Copenhagen, built by SAS in 1960; the column celebrates the abolition of villeinage in Denmark in 1788.

we cannot rest easy until all are free. Part of the ITF's task is still to do what it can to speed the process of liberation.

Despite the desperate urgency of such issues, which took up a good deal of the 1935 Congress proceedings, the ITF was still to a considerable extent concerned with bread-and-butter questions. The subjects debated at the Section Conferences find echoes even in today's discussions. The railwaymen were talking about the problems of staff reductions; today we have our Railwaymen's Social Charter, and the contraction of the industry is a much more burning issue than it was then. The tramwaymen were concerned about the issue of one-man operation; the ILO this year organized a meeting of experts on conditions of work in urban transport which recommended on this point that one-man operation of vehicles should be subject to consultation with the staff, to adequate training, to the adjustment of equipment and to granting of additional pay.

The motor drivers in 1935 were drawing up an international programme of demands and seeking restriction and supervision of working hours; today we are hopeful that international regulations concerning the working conditions of crews of vehicles engaged in international road transport will soon come into force, and the problem of keeping a proper check on working hours in road haulage has been solved in a number of countries by the use of the tachograph.

In 1935 the seamen were pressing for international action in favour of improving safety regulations at sea; this year we have seen the entry into force of the 1960 Safety of Life at Sea Convention of the Inter-governmental Maritime Consultative Organisation, a body which was itself created after years of ITF pressure. The 1960 Convention revised the previous 1948 regulations, and the history of International Safety of Life at Sea Conventions goes back as far as 1914 when the first regulations were drawn up after the *Titanic* disaster two years before.

At the 1935 Congress a memorandum was presented on the need for countries to establish coordinated transport systems, recommending among other things that the conditions of competition should be equalized; there is a proposal before this year's Congress that our own comprehensive study of Transport Policy Problems at National and International Level, which was published in 1958, should now be brought up to date.

Going back even further in time to the 1910 Copenhagen Congress demonstrates how really frightful things were in the 'bad old days'; delegates adopted a series of proposals put forward by the International Seamen's Union of America designed to release the seamen from the conditions approaching slavery to which they were at that time subjected. It called for the abolition of prison sentences for leaving a ship and for refusing to carry out orders in a safe port; for an end to the system of signing-off books which remained in the possession of the master, and for its replacement by a certificate of competency kept by the seaman himself; for the introduction of a certificate of competency for deck crew members after three years' sea service; and for manning scales to ensure that at least 75 per cent of the deckhands would be qualified seamen with a good knowledge of the language spoken by the ships' officers. The resolution's sponsor, Andrew Furuseth, said: 'The seaman is treated more and more like a pariah; it is said of him contemptuously that he has a wife in every port, apparently in an attempt to make him forget that he does not earn enough to keep a wife in even one port.'

A further resolution adopted by the 1910 Congress finds its echoes in today's

The Langebro (long bridge), Copenhagen, with some of the half-million or so cyclists who throng the roads during the weekday rush hours.

Copenhageners crowd the streets during a fair organized in support of Children's Aid.

work: it protested against the tendency to prevent workers in state-owned or other public enterprises from exercising the right to free association or withdrawal of labour. Today an ITF committee is engaged in preparing a major report on the trade union rights of railwaymen, and in recent years we have played an important part in the struggle for complete trade union freedom for public employees, notably in Japan.

In 1910, delegates were beginning to discuss the idea of having separate industrial sections within the ITF to deal with the different branches of transport which the Federation covered; today we have our seven Sections, each with its own structure and governing body and in some cases specialist groups within the Section, to ensure that each group within the ITF gets a proper service and an opportunity to discuss its own particular problems.

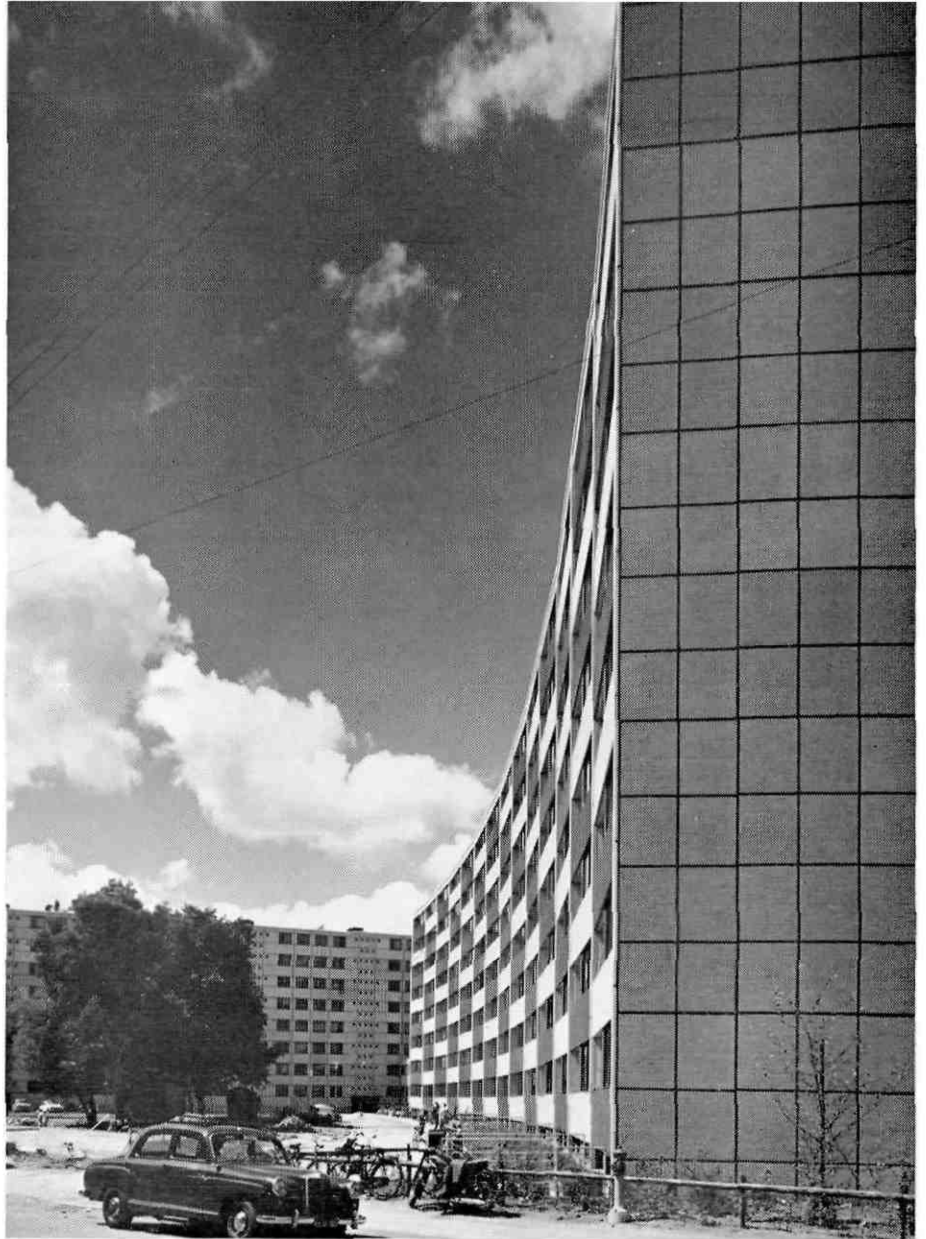
This year delegates to our Congress have a bigger task than ever; this is the first time that they will have to review three years of ITF work instead of the customary two years. In addition, a major agenda item will be a report on Changes in the Structure of the Transport Industry and the Resultant Problems for Transport Workers' Unions. The words 'rationalization', 'modernization', 'automation', etc., are frequently on our lips these days, and are giving our unions in all branches of transport quite a few headaches. We have not only to keep up with the rapid changes in our industry if our members are not to suffer from the possible adverse effects of technical developments, but we have to some extent also to anticipate them. Nor are technological advances the only ones we have to face up to; wholesale transformations of the social, economic and political structure are also taking place which are bound to have a profound effect upon our work.

This will be my last Congress as General Secretary of the ITF. In welcoming you to Copenhagen I shall also be taking my leave of you, and I want to take this opportunity of expressing my warmest thanks to all of you for the support and comradeship which you have given me during my five years in office. During that time I have been very sensible of the ITF's long traditions and have done my best to keep alive the torch lit in 1896 and handed on by my predecessors. Now the time has almost come for me to hand on the torch in my turn, and to wish my successor good fortune and fair weather on his journey.

I should like now to thank our Danish friends for all the hard work they have been putting in to help prepare for our Congress; it is no easy task, and when things go smoothly it is only too easy to forget the 'back room boys' who have made it all possible. The following pages of the Journal will tell you something about Denmark and our Danish trade union friends. Welcome to Copenhagen and, I hope, to a successful and enjoyable Congress.

DENMARK and the DANISH WAY OF LIFE

by EINAR BERTHELSEN



New block of flats in Copenhagen, built by modern methods of industrial prefabrication.

OTHER COUNTRIES IN WHICH the International Transport Workers' Federation has held its Congress have been able to show their guests foaming rivers, cascading waterfalls, great forests, thousands of lakes and snow-capped mountain peaks towering high above deep valleys. Denmark is not like this. It is only a small country in area—approximately 44,300 sq. km.—but surrounded as it is by the North Sea, The Skagerak, Øresund (The Sound) and the Baltic, it nevertheless has a coast-line of about 7,630 km. in length, Europe's longest in comparison with the size of the country.

Denmark consists of a peninsula, Jutland, together with approximately 100 inhabited and 400 uninhabited islands. It is a land of vast waving meadows in between light-coloured birch woods, fields of grain with living hedges planted between the fields. That it is a flat country you understand well enough when you are told that the Danes call a little hill of 160 metres (480 ft. approx.) 'Heavenly Mountain'.

Denmark, which has 4½ million inhabitants—1¼ million of them live in the capital—is Europe's oldest constitutional monarchy, that is to say that the country's head is a king who does not however have any political influence.

In addition to Denmark proper there is also Greenland, which is Danish as well as being the world's largest island. In earlier times it was a colony, but it is now a normal Danish province enjoying equal rights with the other provinces in Denmark itself.

Another very special piece of Denmark are the Faroe Islands in the North Atlantic. The Faroes consist of 18 islands, seventeen of which are inhabited, together with a number of skerries. Their total population is about 35,000.

Although the Faroes are a Danish province, they enjoy as a matter of course a very wide measure of self-government. They have their own elected legislative assembly, known as the Lagting. Additionally, however, the Faroes are represented in the Danish Parliament, have their own flag, and education in the schools is mainly carried on in the Faroese people's own language.

The Faroese, however, receive their higher education in Denmark and a very large number remain there after completing it. They are very well liked for their industry and skill and therefore fit into Danish everyday life extremely easily, although naturally they retain contact with their native islands in the often storm-swept Atlantic through their own national associations.

For thousands of years, the main Danish industry has been agriculture, but as early as the tenth century Danish seafarers began undertaking voyages to far-off lands. Today Denmark, in addition to its large fishing fleet, also possesses a merchant marine which is extremely large in relation to the country's size. On 1 January 1965 it consisted of 796 cargo and passenger vessels totalling 2,428,700 gross registered tons.

Danish industry too has been extensively developed during the last few years and general industry, fishing and the merchant fleet must today be considered as enterprises of equal importance with agriculture.

Denmark's form of government is democratic. There is a Parliament, known as the Folketing, with a one-chamber system, to which every Danish citizen—man or woman—is eligible to be sent and which is elected by direct ballot. Representation in Parliament is by voting area and in proportion to that area's population. Elections are held every four years, but if a government suffers a defeat during a parliamentary vote, a supplementary election can, of course, be held during the period.

Although the Social Democrats have had Ministers in the various governments which have held office since 1916 and have succeeded in forming governments on many occasions, they have nevertheless never enjoyed a majority in Parliament. The governments which they have formed have always been minority ones, while on other occasions the Party has gone into coalition with one or more of the liberal parties.

Since the two wars fought by Denmark against Prussia during the 19th century, the majority of the country's population have been strongly antimilitarist and opposed to the maintenance of a military apparatus of any size. However, the German occupation of Denmark between 1940 and 1945 led to a change of attitude towards the question of defence policy. As a result of this, Denmark became a member of NATO and today the country maintains a defence force of considerable size in relation to its population.

In company with many other countries Denmark suffered for generations from a very high level of unemployment. However, now co-operation between the Social Democratic Labour Party and the trade union movement has achieved such an increase in productive capacity that unemployment has been reduced to 0.4 per cent.

The Danish standard of living is among the highest in Europe and perhaps the most characteristic symptom of this is the fact that participation in political and trade union meetings is now on the decrease, although in former days such participation reached a rather high level. It seems rather as if higher welfare standards dull the people's interest in political and trade union activity.

During the period preceding the Second World War it was generally considered that the average Dane spent one quarter of his wages on rent or house purchase, one quarter went in taxes, one quarter was spent on food, whilst the remaining quarter covered all other necessities.

The increasing expenditure by Danish society on education, social projects and defence has however led to an increase in prices and it is now estimated that a young working-class family has to spend 40 per cent of their income on house rent, 35 per cent in taxes and then maintain themselves on the remaining 25 per cent. Only the very low cost of food and clothing together with the fact that a large number of married women work outside the home, makes it possible to maintain the excellent standard of living which is enjoyed by the greater part of the population.

Despite the decline in political and trade union activity, Danes are generally organization-minded. All kinds of groups—however tiny they be—create their own associations or clubs, and for the typical Dane it is quite natural to belong to ten or a dozen organizations of a professional, political, cultural, religious or sporting character.

The bronze cyclist statue in Copenhagen.

The Danish Lutheran National Church is the official State church, and approximately 90 per cent of the population belong to it. Despite this, however, large numbers of small sects spring up like mushrooms after the rain, whilst on the other hand unofficial estimates have it that less than 15 per cent of the Danish people actually attend church on a regular basis.

The German occupation of 1940–45

provided a good outlet for the Danes' talent for organizing. Despite Denmark's small size—you can travel by car or train from one end to the other in eight hours—it was nevertheless possible for the Resistance Movement's underground propaganda, combat and sabotage groups to carry on extensive activity in the joint allied struggle for freedom. On the Jutland Peninsula there were no fewer than 300 areas where resistance groups took delivery of military equipment dropped by British aircraft, and the railwaymen's groups in collaboration with others repeatedly cut the main railway arteries, seriously disrupting and slowing down the movement of occupation troops. In industrial areas, groups carried out hundreds of sabotage actions against those industries which were working directly for the Germans. Despite censorship and road blocks, it was still possible for hundreds of propaganda groups to distribute huge quantities of illegal literature.

The strong desire for enlightenment and education has long been a characteristic feature of daily life in Denmark. During the 19th century the first folk high schools were established more or less contemporaneously with cooperative stores and dairies. The folk high school tradition has been carried on by the Labour Movement's own high schools, while a number of municipalities have also established evening schools for the further education of Denmark's young people. A common feature of the folk high schools, those operated by the Labour Movement and the public evening schools, is that the education provided by them comprises not only general subjects but also those of a more cultural nature.

The compulsory education system—Denmark has both municipal and State elementary schools, secondary schools and universities—in combination with voluntary educational activities has resulted in the average Dane being rather well equipped from an educational point of view.

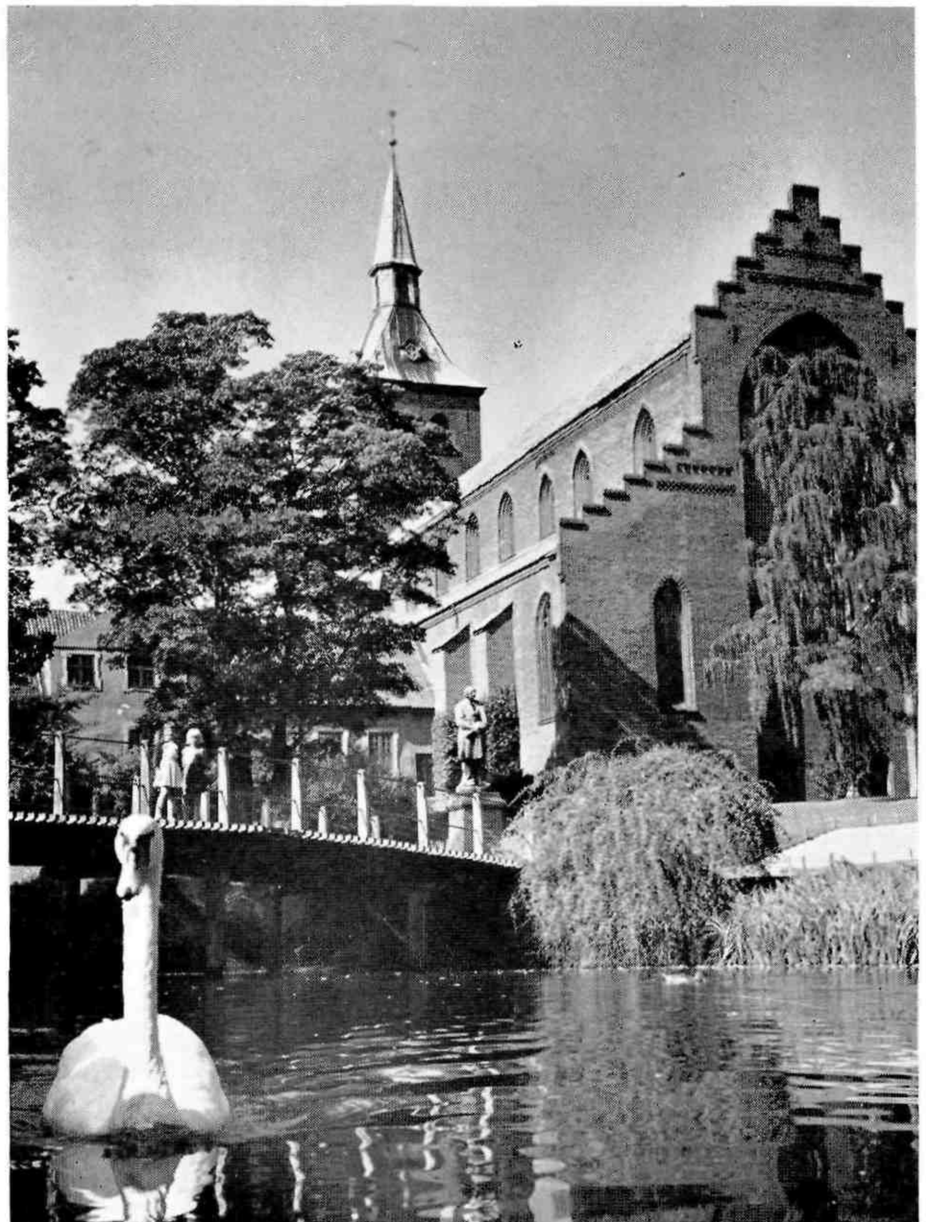
In spite of war and occupation, the Danes have not lost their natural sense of humour and their liking for social contacts with their fellow human beings.

During recent years Denmark has also become something of a tourist centre. Visitors from all over the world now come to Denmark, and in holiday resorts and places of amusement Danes can now meet both friends and former enemies in peace and friendship and have a good time together.

It is of course only natural that Denmark and its people should above all have a close relationship with the other Scandinavian countries and their fellow Scandinavians. However, in the same way that foreign tourists visit Denmark so the Danes themselves flock abroad every year to see at first hand how people live in other countries.

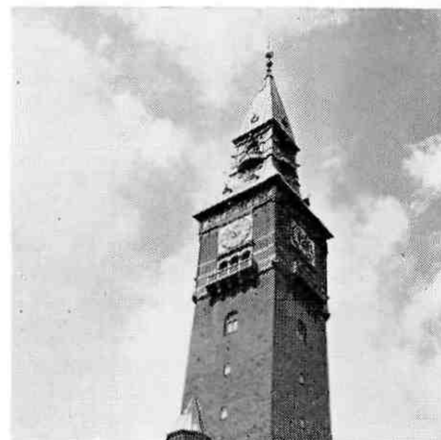
It is therefore by no means accidental that Danish organizations play a very active part in international work. The growing understanding in Denmark of international conditions and other peoples' way of life make it very natural that the transport workers' International should hold its Congress in Denmark and discuss future problems in a country where everyone takes it for granted that 'Discussion is the spice of life'.

Church of Saint Knud with statue of Hans Christian Andersen at Odense, his home town.



Copenhagen—and the Copenhagener

by EINAR BERTHELSEN



Picturesque Tuborg drays, the horses in red and green straw hats, are a favourite sight in Copenhagen streets. Right: *Town Hall clock tower, overlooking the city's main square.*

THE FIRST TIME that we meet any historical mention of Copenhagen (in Latin: Hafnia, the Danish name—København—means Merchants' Port) is in the year 1043. At that time it was a tiny fishing settlement, which benefited from a natural harbour situated between the islands of Amager and Sjaelland.

This tiny settlement soon became a meeting place for fishermen from the coastal regions on either side of the Øresund (The Sound). Here they could sell their catch to buyers from other parts of the country and they themselves could in turn buy both the wares which the farmers of the region brought to market and those carried by merchants from much farther afield. Most of the merchants were canny folk from the old German Hansa cities of Lubeck and Hamburg as well as from other towns situated around that part of the North-West European coast.

The stalls from which all these goods were sold were originally situated around the site of the present-day Gammeltorv (the Old Market) and it was here also that the little town grew up which has now developed into modern Copenhagen with its more than

a million inhabitants.

As in those days, contemporary Copenhagen is a bustling city which accounts for a tremendous volume of trade.

Copenhagen has the most heavily trafficked port in the whole of Scandinavia. There are shipyards and engineering works, which produce among other things the world-famous Burmeister and Wain diesel engines. It was one of these B & W engines which powered the world's first ocean-going motor vessel — the 8,000 ton d.w. *Selandia*—which undertook its maiden voyage in 1912.

The city carries on industrial activity of every kind and is at the same time the national centre for vocational and academic training.

Copenhagen is not only Denmark's largest city, it is also the country's administrative centre. Both the Parliament (the Folketing), which is elected by universal suffrage, and the country's royal ruler, the King, carry out their work of government from the city. In addition, the country's national trade union centre (the Landsorganisation or, more popularly, LO) as well as the individual national unions have their headquarters there.

The city is administered by a council elected by its citizens, which is known as 'Borgerrepresentationen' (literally 'the citizens' representatives'). A smaller body, known as the Magistrat, is elected from among the membership of the City Council. It is made up of a Lord Mayor, five Mayors together with five aldermen.

Throughout two generations Copenhagen's administration has been carried on by a Labour majority and this has meant that the city is better supplied with schools, hospitals, housing for elderly citizens, kindergartens, youth centres, meeting halls, sports facilities, parks, playgrounds and centres of entertainment than is true of the majority of cities of the same size. The city also administers a very large-scale programme of further educational facilities through the medium of evening schools and similar institutions.

And what about the inhabitants of the Danish capital? Well, the average Copenhagener has his good and bad sides—just like the majority of his fellow human beings. It is nevertheless characteristic of the Copenhagener born and bred that he is generally a lively fellow with a strong sense of humour and a very healthy appetite for life and all its good things. On the whole, too, our Copenhagener is not a man (or a woman, for that matter!) who is easily satisfied with empty phrases or empty promises. The Copenhagener wants to be given facts and he also wants to have a say in how his life is run.

A typical expression of the Copenhagener's love of freedom—his urgent need and desire to decide his own destiny—occurred during the Second World War when Denmark was occupied by the Nazi invader. Time and time again, curfews and other prohibitions were imposed on the population by the occupation troops, but the Copenhagener defied them or got round them in every conceivable way. When breaking-point was finally reached, it was in the working-class areas of Copenhagen that open resistance flared up and brought about the final showdown with the occupation authorities. Mementoes of those years can be found, for example, in the Freedom Museum (Frihedsmuseet) in Churchill Park close to Langelinie.

Copenhagen is also the city in which both official and unofficial strikes can break out like a bolt from the blue, when workers in the big enterprises think that their unions' negotiations with the employers have not brought acceptable results or when individual groups of workers consider that they are being put upon.

The typical Copenhagener is also very much the family man, who loves to take a stroll with his wife and children along the broad city streets or in its beautiful parks, not forgetting of course those times when the entire family sets off on an outing to the world-famous and incomparable Tivoli Pleasure Gardens. The city's many football grounds, sports arenas and racetracks too are always packed with extremely knowledgeable spectators.

On Saturdays and Sundays, thousands of Copenhageners pour out to the football grounds and in summer they also make their way out to the cycle track at Ordrup or to the trotting and racing tracks at Amager or Charlottenlund, where a good time is had by all.

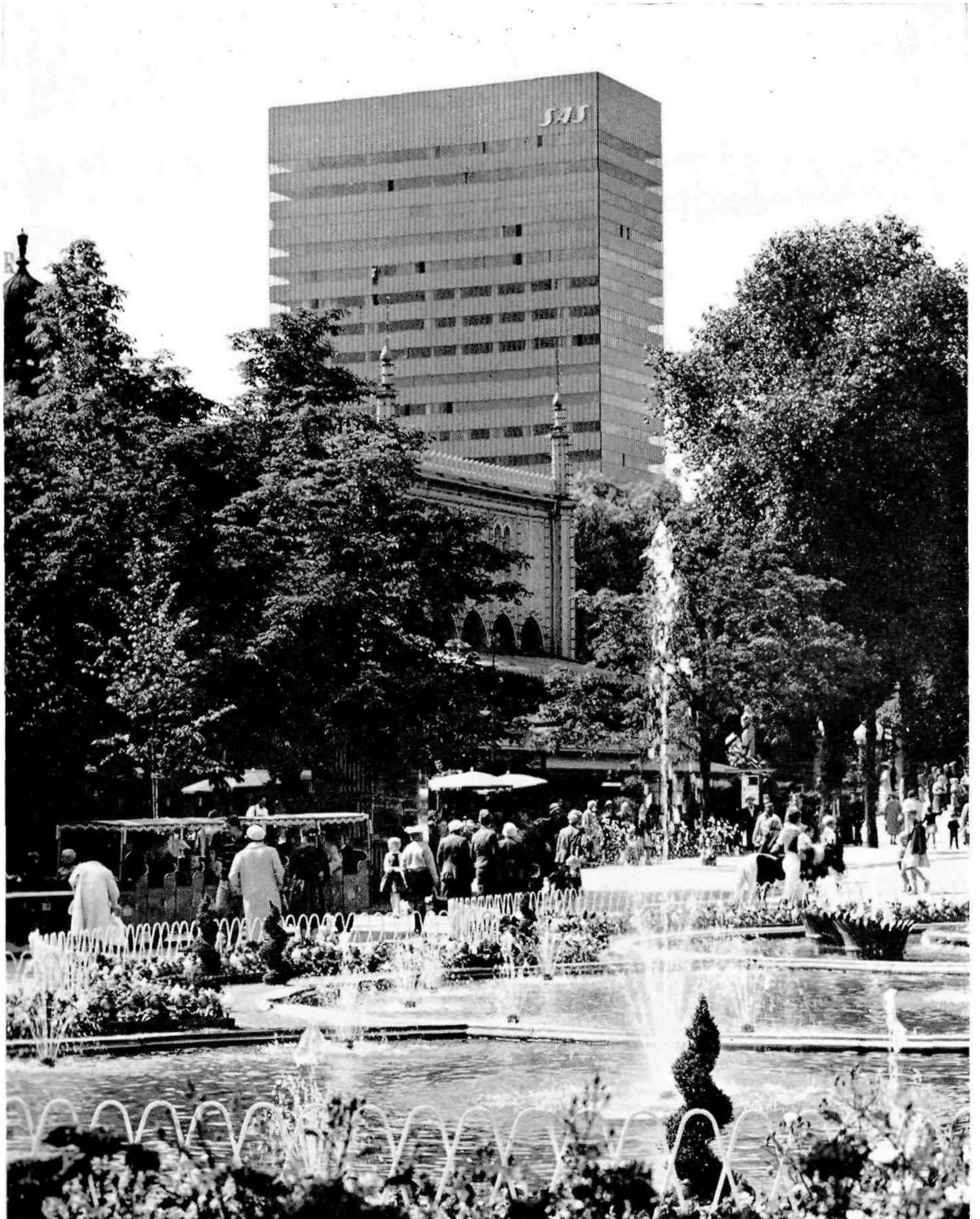
Unfortunately, Copenhagen is also a city with a great shortage of housing. Despite the fact that the City Council and the cooperative and social building societies have gone in for a large-scale house-construction programme during the post-war years, there is still a big demand for new dwellings at a price which the young working-class family can afford. At the present time, this is probably one of the biggest problems which the ancient and beautiful city of Copenhagen has to wrestle with.

If the visitor to Copenhagen does not just want to stroll along its broad boulevards, admire its cooperative enterprises, its many big privately-owned stores, or visit the large number of museums, etc., then he should go along to the Royal Theatre (Det Kongelige Theater) which, in season, presents ballet, opera and plays on two mammoth stages. In addition, there are private theatres, there are cabarets, large dinner-dance restaurants, fine restaurants where one can eat as well as anywhere in the world, circuses, cinemas and literally hundreds of small eating-places and bars catering for all pockets.

In the immediate vicinity (about 15 km. from the centre of Copenhagen) are the Zoological Gardens (Dyrehaven), in which you will find Europe's oldest popular amusement park 'Dyrehavsbakken' (Zoo Hill). Here you can go in for nothing and find entertainment of every sort.

Copenhagen, in other words, is a modern metropolis with ancient traditions. It is a city which wears a dignified but very friendly face—and the sensible, capable and friendly Copenhagener takes after his city.

SAS Royal Hotel towers above trees and fountains near the centre of Copenhagen where tourists and Danes enjoy the sunshine.


SAS

Democracy in action

by PER FEDERSPIEL
Member of the Folketing

AS A KINGDOM in more or less its present territorial structure, Denmark can look back on about 1,000 years of uninterrupted political existence. Throughout that time we have, of course, had our fair share of turmoil, bloodshed, and homicide—the faithful companions of political power, even today. But when one reviews this country's history one is nevertheless struck by a remarkable absence of violent revolutions.

The form of government has naturally changed with the tides of history. Power has shifted from one group to another. Tensions have developed, reached breaking-point, and been resolved. But all this has taken the form of a gradual process of evolution. New ideas matured as the old order grew obsolete and constitutional changes, when they took place, resulted from a sober assessment of the balance of political power. Three examples will illustrate this point.

In 1660, following a war with Sweden which had resulted in 1657 in the loss of the three provinces of Skåne, Halland, and Blekinge, a bloodless revolution resulted in the granting of absolute powers to the king on the initiative of the hitherto unprivileged estates (burghers, clergy and peasantry). The consent of the fourth estate, the nobility, was given grudgingly and not without some coercion. The compromise (and compromise usually accompanied political changes in Denmark) was that the nobility retained their economic privileges but lost their political hegemony. The vesting of absolute power in the monarchy was at the time considered a democratic development, the king being looked upon as the arbiter between the estates. A new balance of power in the community was established, taking into account the factual changes which had occurred, especially in view of the rising wealth and influence of the trading communities in the cities. From this period dates the right of every citizen to address himself to the king with petitions or complaints and to be received in audience.

Christiansborg Castle, housing Parliament, the Foreign Affairs Ministry and the Supreme Court.

The second instance is the introduction in 1840 of the system of constitutional monarchy with an elected parliament based on free elections. The granting of this Constitution, which with some subsequent amendments is the foundation of our modern democracy, was the result of a gradual evolution of political thinking in line with the movements in other parts of Europe which elsewhere led to the explosions of 1830 and 1848. Between these two dates a system of consultative provincial assemblies had been developed. These assemblies had no formal power of decision, but they exercised considerable political influence on the Government of the time, and when the second revolutionary wave swept Europe in 1848 time was ripe for the introduction of government by the people through elected representatives. A procession of worthy citizens in frock coats and top hats called on the king, Frederik VII, who forthwith proceeded to take the necessary steps to introduce the Constitution of June 5, 1849. Here again the process of gradual change took its peaceful and undramatic course.

During the latter half of the nineteenth century—and this is my third example—the King with the support of the right wing of Parliament had maintained a Conservative government based on the Landsting, or Senate, majority, the Senate being mainly elected on a property census, against a rising majority of the Liberal party in the Folketing, or second chamber. This led to a long and at times bitter constitutional struggle which was ultimately resolved by the ruling minority accepting the principle of parliamentary government based on the majority in the second chamber. This was agreed without an amendment of the Constitution and with no protocol or other agreement confirmed in writing. Incidentally, one after-effect of this conflict was the abolition of the Senate in the constitutional reform of 1953, which changed Parliament into a single chamber. Thus the possibility of conflicting majorities in two chambers was eliminated.

Since 1901 the form of government has therefore been strictly democratic and parliamentary in the modern sense of these terms.

A system of proportional representation is secured by the Constitution, which provides in Article 31 that the members of the Folketing shall be elected by a general direct and secret ballot, which must secure an equitable representation of the various views of the electorate and determine the method of election, and that in the territorial distribution of mandates consideration shall be given to population figures, the number of electors and the density of population. In actual practice the electoral system is no longer a political issue, except possibly on the rule of the recent electoral Act, which in fact excludes the representation of parties that receive less than a total of about 60,000 votes.

The system of government is based on the traditional concept of the division of powers; the executive vested in the King and his Cabinet, the legislative in Parliament, and the judiciary in the courts. The courts have the power to control the legality of acts of the administration and at least in theory the power to declare legislation unconstitutional. On this point they are always reluctant to reverse an Act of Parliament, but on the other hand Parliament has traditionally been extremely conscious of its constitutional

responsibility.

The constitutional issue will normally be raised if there is any question of encroachment of the 'bill of rights' which forms an integral part of the Constitution, providing for the human rights, freedom of the person, inviolability of the home, protection of the right of property, freedom of speech, freedom of association, freedom of religion, equality of access to professions and work, and now also the right to free education.

In actual fact, political power is concentrated in the Folketing, in that the Government must depend on the parliamentary majority and can at any time be forced to resign as a result of a vote of no confidence. The courts are similarly bound by the legislation passed by Parliament, though with considerable traditional latitude of interpretation.

How does this system work in practice?

The parliamentary function is not, of course, limited to legislation. The Folketing, from the early days of the Constitution, established itself as the expression of the people's will, and hence the system of parliamentary control has developed, largely on the model of the British Parliament. This control is exercised in a number of ways, mainly through constant consultations between Parliament and ministers, either in parliamentary committees or through the procedure of questions, which are put and answered every Wednesday.

The Folketing does not normally operate through the medium of standing committees for various fields of activity, such as social policy, economic policy, transport policy, defence, etc., but committees are set up *ad hoc* to deal with specific proposals for legislation. Committees can also be formed to study particular questions, like the European Markets Committees, the Foreign Exchange Committee, etc.

The only two standing committees of importance politically are the Finance Committee and the Foreign Policy Committee.

Copenhagen Town Hall, right, was completed in 1903, and houses all the municipal offices.

The Finance Committee is elected at the beginning of each session and sits throughout the year, also when Parliament is in recess. By tradition this committee, whose membership reflects the ratio of party groups, is empowered to authorize grants to ministers even outside the current finance law 'on anticipated appropriation'; but the committee's powers in fact go far beyond the approving of grants. At times it acts as an effective organ of control through its accepted powers to interrogate ministers on their activities. This procedure is from the point of view of parliamentary control much better than, say, questions in open session; a procedure which has the drawback that other members cannot intervene to put supplementary questions, or comment on the Minister's reply. In the Finance Committee a general inquiry can be established and every member of this committee of 17 can take part in interrogating the Minister.

The Foreign Policy Committee is established in conformity with Article 19 of the Constitution, which provides that the Folketing shall elect among its members a Foreign Policy Committee, which the Government must consult prior to any decision of importance in the field of foreign policy. This committee also is elected at the beginning of each session on a proportional basis.

The Foreign Policy Committee meets when required, generally on the initiative of the Foreign Minister. The meetings are strictly *in camera* and members as well as foreign service officials attending are by law forbidden to disclose the business transacted. A short communiqué is usually issued at the end of the meeting in a form approved by the members.

The relevant principle is that major foreign policy decisions must be submitted to the committee and discussed before they are taken. Technically the Government is not bound by the opinion of the committee, but it is obviously a

serious parliamentary risk, which no foreign minister would take, to act contrary to the advice of the Foreign Policy Committee.

In the matter of ratifying treaties the Foreign Policy Committee is not consulted. Treaty ratifications are brought directly before the Folketing, but the constitutional rules may of course require prior consultation with the committee before the signature of a treaty or even before opening negotiations. Such actions as the signature of the North Atlantic Treaty, the OEEC Convention, the Statute of the Council of Europe, and recently the Atom Stop Treaty, were the subject of consultations between the Government and the Foreign Policy Committee.

Naturally, one cannot read the functioning of the system of government out of the Constitution and other political enactments alone. The Constitution, for example, does not mention political parties, although these are, and have been since the first Constitution, an essential element of the political system. Nor does the Constitution provide in detail how the Government should exercise its administration. It does not even indicate how the King should appoint his ministers.

The formation of a Government after an election at which the previous majority constellation has been changed is a particularly interesting constitutional issue. As far back as anyone can remember we have never had a parliamentary situation where one party held an absolute majority. Nor is it likely in the foreseeable future that any one party will be able to command an absolute majority of the electorate or in Parliament. This is a consequence of the system of proportional representation.

The procedure is for the King to ask the acting Prime Minister, who will tender his resignation if he has lost his majority, to form a new Government. He will proceed to consult with his own party, and other parties with whom he may be able to establish a workable programme. If by these discussions he can secure majority support, he will inform the King that he is prepared to form a Government. From that moment the selection of ministers will be entirely in the hands of the Prime Minister and his closest personal advisers, and the ministers may be drawn from Parliament or from outside it.

These discussions may take some time, as much will depend on whether a minority or a coalition Government will provide the best workable solution. If it is a coalition, the leader of the other coalition party or parties will naturally have a say in the number of ministers, the distribution of offices, and the persons to be appointed.

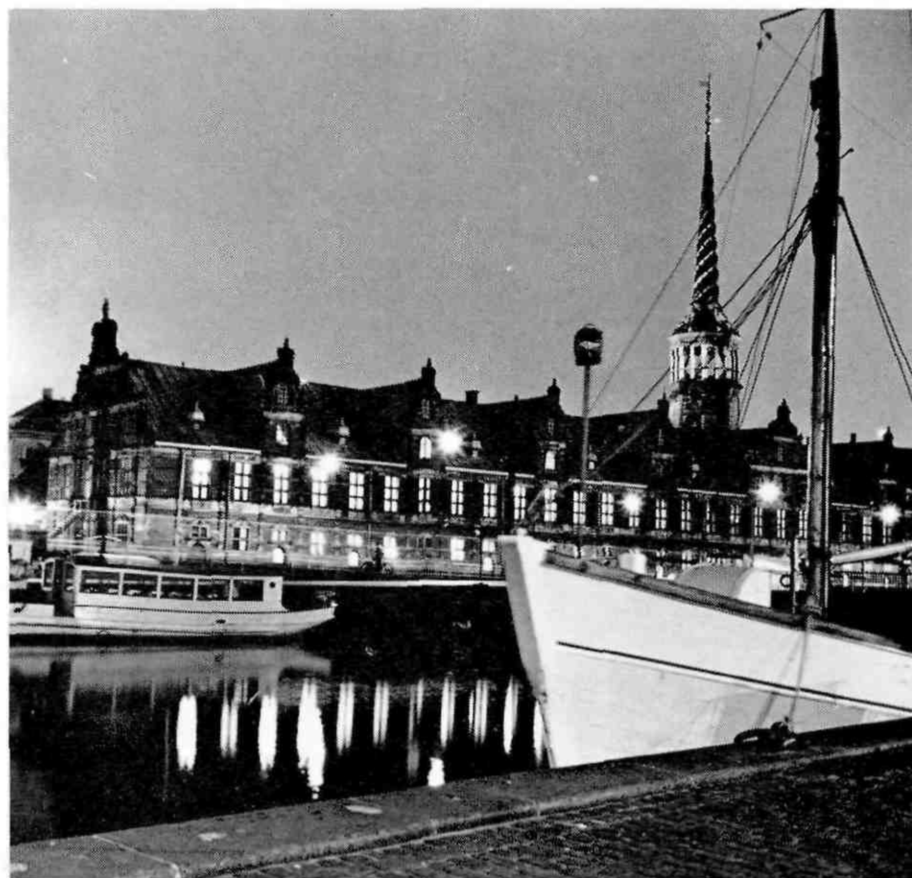
If the retiring Prime Minister sees no possibility of forming a Government it is his duty to advise the King to consult with the leader of another party, and the same procedure is then repeated. In some countries this procedure may take a very long time, but in Denmark the matter is usually settled in a few days, though the possibility is not excluded that an election result may be so complex that it will take the party leaders some considerable time to work out the suitable combination to form the parliamentary basis of the new Government.

Once the Government has been formed, its first act is to present its programme in the form of an opening speech by the Prime Minister. The opening debate will then give an indication of the political strength of the new Government, whether it is a minority Government supported by other parties or a coalition based on a workable majority.

No Government in Denmark could hope to survive for very long if it retired into an ivory tower and concentrated on the necessary work of legislation and administration, solely in consultation with the Folketing. It must have considerably wider contacts than with Parliament and the political groups.

This is where the numerous organizations, agricultural, commercial, industrial, labour and professional, come in.

The Stock Exchange, completed in 1640, its spire formed of four entwined dragons' tails.



The State Broadcasting House, designed by the architect Lauritzen and built in the year 1941.

It is now a long-established custom that the new legislation other than certain acts of fiscal or monetary policy is the subject of consultation with the organizations directly concerned. This does not necessarily mean that the Minister concerned will follow the advice given by the bodies he consults, and indeed it may well be that the advice is conflicting. These consultations, however, give him an opportunity of making himself thoroughly acquainted with the views of the different groups. Such consultations, of course, are purely a matter of political expediency and cannot in any way be seen as a constitutional requirement.

Equally, it is not only in matters of legislation, but sometimes even more in matters of administering the laws, that a Minister will find it important to know the views of the groups concerned. The influence of organizations, however, is not limited to consultation with ministers. When a draft law is placed before the Folketing the matter is once again open to contact between Parliament and these organizations.

The Minister will introduce and explain the Bill to the Folketing. At the first hearing, a few days later, the parties will state their general views on the proposed legislation, but will not go into any detail. The Bill will then normally be referred to an *ad hoc* committee of 17 members, and at this stage the general public is free to seek consultation with the committee. The committee's report, which is presented prior to the second hearing, will then generally record the interviews with the organizations or groups, sometimes individuals, concerned, but not in detail. The organizations may present their views in writing, and if these are considered of importance they will be printed as annexes to the report. Sometimes the committee will seek undertakings from the Minister with respect to the way in which he proposes to administer certain aspects of the legislation concerned, or will require his own interpretation of the administration's intentions. Such undertakings will be recorded in the report and are binding on the Minister not only politically but even legally, in that the law courts in the event of a dispute between an individual and the administration may base their opinion on the legality of the disputed administrative action or the undertakings of the Minister as reported by the committee.

Up till 1953, when the Senate or Landsting was abolished, it was generally considered one of the more important functions of the Landsting that it could correct errors which had crept into the legislation, e.g. in the form of last-minute amendments which had not been carefully considered. Instead, the 1953 Constitution provided in Article 41 that, at the request of two-fifths of the members of the Folketing, 12 weekdays must elapse between the second and final reading of a Bill. This was intended to leave time for correcting possible errors and for interested groups to make their views known between the second and third hearing.

This procedure of consulting with interested bodies may appear to resemble the well-known system of lobbying so prevalent in the United States, and not unknown in other countries. In fact, it probably serves to defeat the practice of lobbying in its more sinister forms because it is exercised openly and in the presence of both Opposition and Government.

Another check on the power of the majority in the legislature is provided in the rule of Article 42 of the Constitution which enables one-third of the members to demand that a Bill passed by the Folketing shall be submitted to a referendum.

This procedure was adopted in connection with four bills mainly dealing with land tenure which formed part of the package of some ten bills, introduced by the Government in 1962 and passed in 1963, to deal with questions of stabilization, partly in general and partly in preparation for possible entry into the European Common Market.

One of the drawbacks of this rule is that it excludes finance bills, in the widest sense, from referenda. Foreign policy questions, such as measures intended to fulfil international treaty obligations, are also excluded from referenda.

At one point prior to the opposition's decision to demand a referendum there was some doubt as to whether another rule could be applied; namely, the rule in Article 73 that one-third of the members of the Folketing can demand that a law providing for the expropriation of property may not be submitted for royal assent until endorsed by a new Folketing after a general election. This is a measure which may force the Government to go to the country if it considers the legislative measure thus held up by the minority to be of sufficient importance.

Sometimes it may be difficult to determine if a measure is legally an act of expropriation, and the legal experts were in doubt as to whether the land legislation just referred to was in the nature of an expropriation. Doubts in this respect can, of course, be resolved only by the courts, but there is no procedure by which the question can

be referred directly to the Supreme Court, which has the ultimate decision.

An important feature of political practice is that of the meetings of political party chairmen. These meetings are quite unofficial, but enable the Prime Minister and his Government to sound out the opinions of the chamber on important matters of policy before any official initiative is taken. They are of equal importance to the Opposition, as they give the necessary clue to whether a particular question deserves to become a political issue. And they serve to facilitate procedure in Parliament. There is, finally, the institution of the Ombudsman, which constitutes a further check on the powers of the administration. The Ombudsman is elected, under the constitutional rules, as the Folketing's controller of administrative activities. Technically, he has no other powers than to report his findings to Parliament. He is entitled to call for all information, documents, files, etc., from the administration, and he may consult the Minister concerned, or his officials, in order to have errors or abuses put right voluntarily. In some respects he provides a substitute for the quasi-judicial hearings, similar to the American congressional committees, but in fact his influence goes beyond these, since he is generally the arbiter between corporate or individual interests on the one hand and the administration on the other. He may take up questions on his own initiative, and he is not limited to requests from members of the Folketing.

In another way he fills a gap, as he may take action on the complaint of an individual citizen, whereas Parliament, under the Constitution, can receive petitions only through the agency of a member of the Folketing.

During the ten years in which Professor Stephan Hurwitz has held this office, it has established itself as a kind of public conscience and has, directly and indirectly, exercised considerable influence on the efficiency of the administration. Any Government department is extremely alive to the unpleasantness even of a mild snub by the Ombudsman.

Government, therefore, is subject to an elaborate system of checks and balances. All these are known to any Government and they do not mean that surprises can be sprung. These checks and balances provide the tactical framework within which any Government can move. For a minority Government this is of obvious importance. For a Government with a secure majority it would be unwise to ignore the checks. The people are extremely conscious of abuses, and it is a generally accepted principle that no majority should abuse its rights.

This brief survey of the functioning of government in Denmark can be no more than a sketch, but may have sufficed to convey some idea of the practice of democracy in a country which does not claim to have reached perfection in its system of government, but which endeavours to combine flexibility and consultation with a strict adherence to the rule of law.

Modern supermarket in Narssaq, Greenland. Greenland has been an integral part of Denmark since 1935, with exactly equal rights.

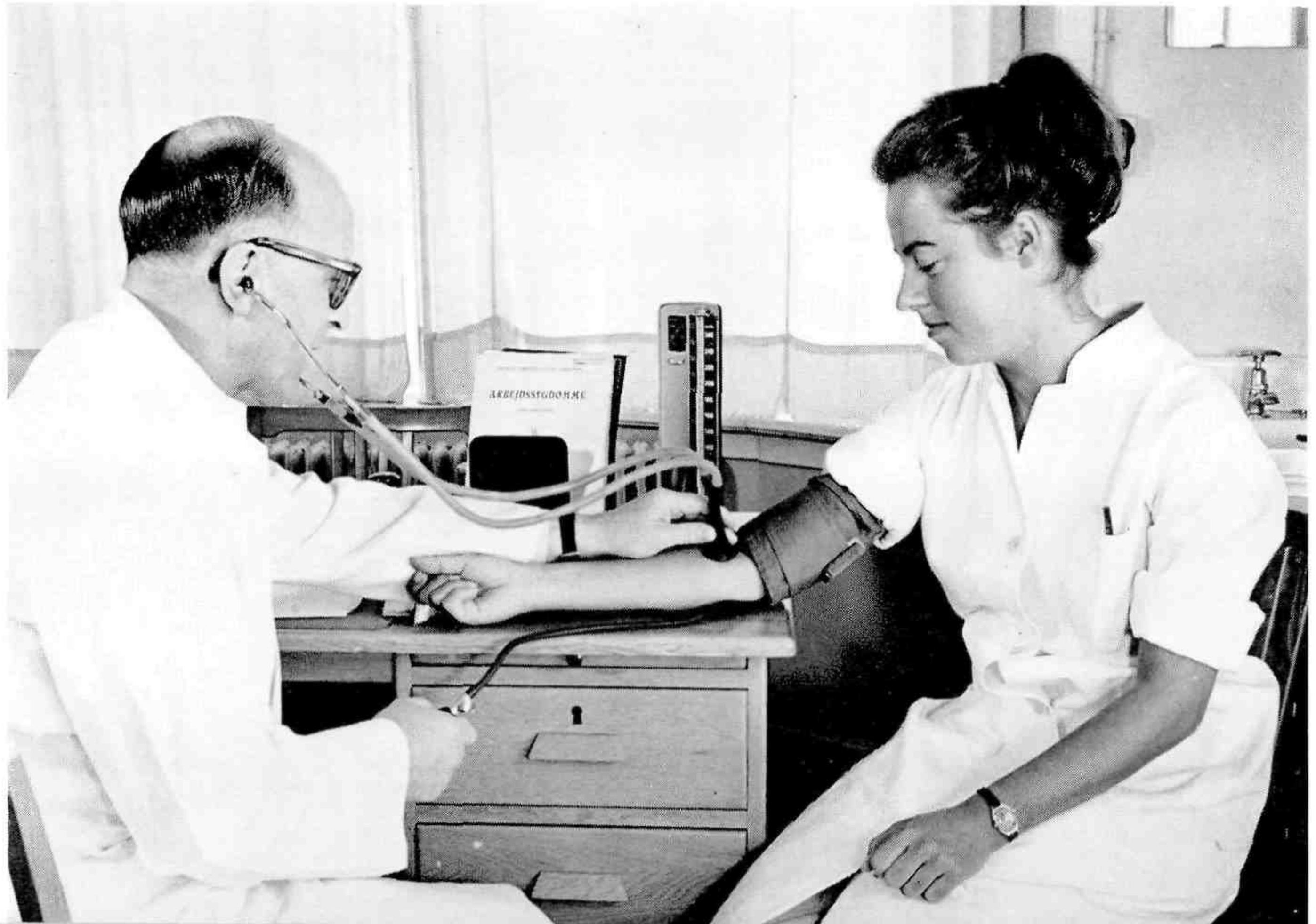
SOCIAL SECURITY IN DENMARK —

A CONSIDERABLE PART of the Danish social security system, comprising provisions for illness and unemployment, is based on contributory schemes which are publicly supported. The current **health scheme** dates from an act of 1960. Under the previous Act of 1933, health insurance was organized in government-subsidized approved societies for persons with limited means, and in non-subsidized controlled societies for the better-off. The 1933 Act made membership of a health insurance society compulsory; so that persons not entitled to benefit as members of either an approved or a controlled society had to apply for acceptance as contributing members. Admission was subject to age and health qualifications.

An approved society had to provide its members with free medical treatment, free hospital services, allowances for important medicines, and various other benefits, including a small cash payment in the event of incapacity during sickness. A society might also voluntarily decide to pay allowances for specialist medical treatment, dental treatment, and certain other requirements. The controlled societies partly reimbursed the costs of general and specialist medical treatment and paid hospital charges, but they did not usually pay for medicines and dental treatment.

The new Act which came into force in 1961 changes a number of these rules. Whilst upholding the principle that public contributions should almost exclusively benefit persons with restricted means, this Act substantially modifies the structure of the health insurance system, in that it establishes an administratively unified scheme for all, irrespective of financial status. Other amendments include the abolition of age and health qualifications, with the object of ensuring, more than was done in the past, that assistance is given to those really needing it. The provisions governing daily allowances in the event of incapacity because of illness are also brought up to date.

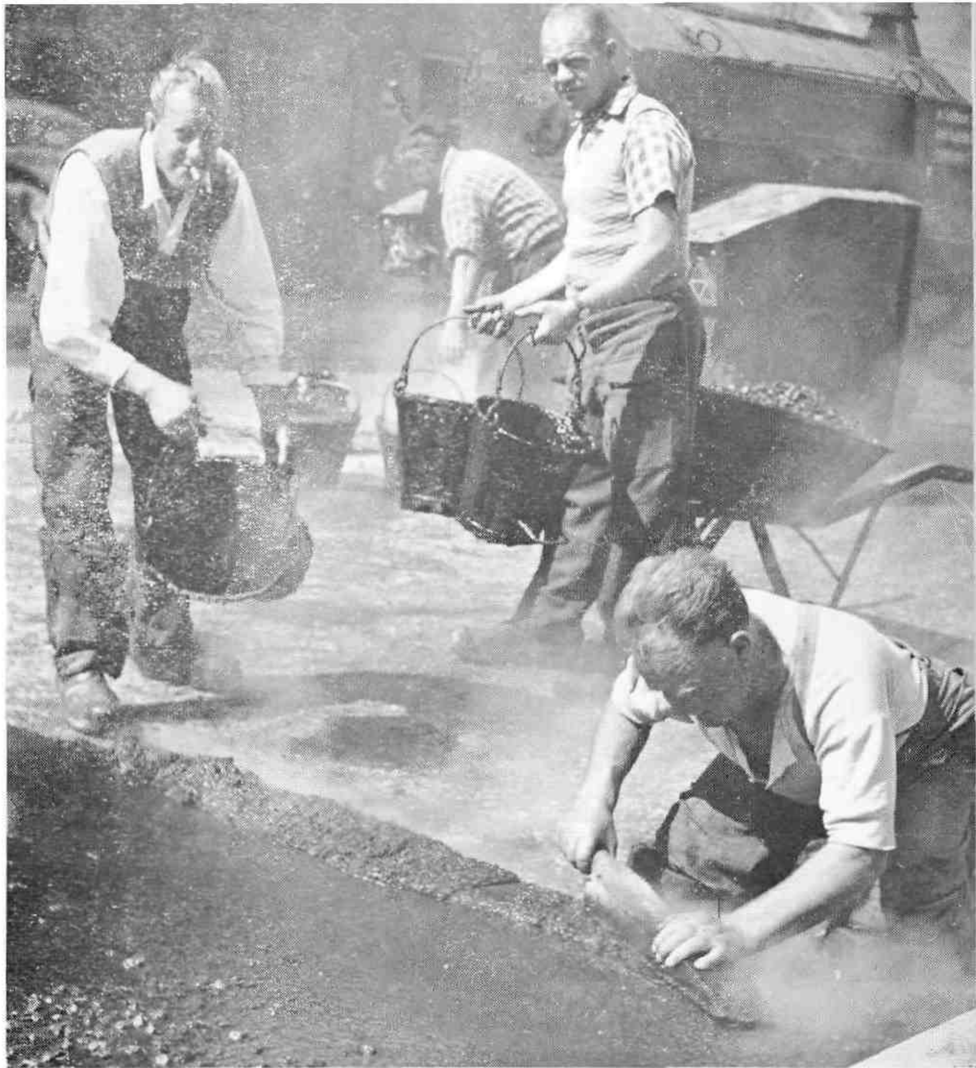
The need for providing against the consequences of **unemployment** arose in Denmark in the latter half of the nineteenth century, when industrialization involved unemployment on an unprecedented scale. Considering that unemployment in its incidence is as fortuitous as sickness and industrial injuries, it was natural to seek to provide against its consequences by means of insurance. An Act was passed in 1907, its provisions being based on a shared system of insured persons' and government contributions. The foundations of this state-subsidized insurance scheme were the already existing unem-



ployment funds established by the trade unions. A condition for the receipt of the government contribution was that the unemployment funds should be kept strictly separate from the unions' own finances. The law has been amended many times over the years; the rates of benefit have been made more differential and the public contribution has been increased. But the system of a government-subsidized insurance remains the same.

An unemployment fund must be state-approved in order to obtain state contributions, and membership is restricted to persons for whom wages are their chief means of support. As a general rule, a fund must have a minimum of one hundred members, be associated with one or more trades, and embrace at least a province. The nature and extent of the benefit which the fund may pay in every case is determined by the committee in accordance with the rules of the fund, but the law lays down general provisions on maximum rates for the various forms of benefit and minimum periods of unemployment in relation to certain categories of benefit. The maximum total benefit for persons with dependent children is four-fifths of the average daily earnings in the trade or trade group; for other persons it is two-thirds. The payment of benefit is conditional on the insured person's availability for work; thus it is not payable during sickness entailing incapacity, or in the event of a labour dispute involving the insured person. The unemployed person is obliged to take suitable work found for him by the unemployment fund committee, a public labour exchange, the local authorities, or the local council's employment committee. Refusal entails loss of benefit rights.

The **care of the aged** emerged as a separate welfare service in 1891, with the passage of a law which separated it from the general poor law. Under this law, an assessed old-age allowance could be granted, on a generous test of means, to persons over the age of 60 who fulfilled a number of specified



Some of the worry is taken out of dangerous jobs by the Danish Industrial Injury law.

qualifications. This first law embodied two principles which have been upheld in Danish provision for the aged ever since; the allowance aimed at providing full maintenance, without the need of supplementary public or private assistance; and the scheme was non-contributory, all costs being a charge on the public.

A true old-age pension scheme was introduced in 1922, when the right to a pension ceased to be based on an assessment of needs and was linked to certain conditions set out in the law, the amount of the pension being also prescribed by the law. The present provisions for the aged rest on an Act of 1933 and a comprehensive amendment act of 1956. Under this law, a pension, called the national minimum pension, is paid to all, regardless of their income and other means. It is not intended to provide full maintenance. Those who need this receive the income-regulated national pension, which is rather higher than the former old-age pension and is automatically adjusted to the cost-of-living index. Although the national pension aims to provide full maintenance, the pensioner is allowed, without reduction of pension, a certain amount of income in the form of wages, interest earnings, or private pension. This non-deductible income, like the amount of the pension itself, varies according to locality, and whether the pensioner is married or single. With effect from 1 April 1961, the pensionable age has been: for receipt of national minimum pension, 67; for income-regulated national pension for men and married women, 67; for unmarried women, widows, and married women whose husbands receive a national or disability pension, 62.

Compared with the systems already described, the first **disability insurance**

scheme appeared late, in 1921. It was a voluntary scheme, in that it was associated with the voluntary health insurance scheme, and it was both a contributory insurance and a public welfare service, being financed by contributions from insured workers, compulsorily insured employers, and the central and local governments.

The provisions were amended in 1933, when the old-age and disability pensions were to a large extent standardized, a development which has since continued. To qualify for a disability pension the insured person's working capacity must have been reduced to within one-third. Whether this is so is decided by the disability insurance tribunal. Disability pensions are identical with old-age pensions, except that the disabled receive an additional allowance. Special allowances are paid to the blind and those totally incapacitated.

Widows' pensions are governed by an Act of 1959, and are paid to all women who have become widowed after the age of 55, and to women who have become widowed after the age of 45 if they have two or more dependent children. In the latter case the pension ceases when the youngest child attains the age of 18. In addition to the cases mentioned, there are certain other cases in which pensions may be paid to widows and single women who have reached the age of 50. A widow's pension is the same in amount as an old-age pension for a single person; and like this, it is graded according to the pensioner's income, a certain amount of income being allowed without reduction of pension. When the variable reduction according to income exceeds five-sixths of the basic amount the pension is disallowed. Old-age pensions, disability pensions, and widows' pensions are administered by the local government authorities.

Social security also includes **industrial injuries insurance.** The first legal provision for this was made in 1898 but was limited to large-scale industry and occupations commonly regarded as hazardous. A succession of subsequent measures extended the scope and in 1916 they were coordinated in the first general Industrial Injuries Insurance Act. This law, the principles of which are still current, made it compulsory for employers to whom it applied to insure their employed workers against industrial injuries, with an approved insurance company. The current Act applies to virtually all working conditions, irrespective of the nature and duration of the work, or the wages. The insurance chiefly covers injuries sustained in the course of the insured person's work, which temporarily or permanently reduce his capacity to work, as well as certain specified occupational diseases. The benefits allowable comprise treatment and rehabilitation. The cash benefits include daily allowances during periods of temporary incapacity and compensation in cases of permanent disability, as well as compensation to dependants in the event of death.

Because of the general health insurance system, however, the provision of patient treatment under this insurance is not very extensive. The right to cash benefits is subject to the inability of the injured person to resume his work on appreciably the same scale as before the injury. The amount paid comprises three-quarters of the daily wage, calculated as 1/300th of the injured person's earnings in the preceding year, up to a maximum of two-thirds of a day's wages based on an annual wage of 10,000 kr. The limit is adjusted to the cost-of-living index.

In principle, the benefit runs from the fourth day following the injury; if, however, the incapacity extends over at least 10 days, then from the first day following the accident. The right to compensation is subject to the reduction of working capacity by at least five per cent. As a general rule, compensation takes the form of an annual pension, which with complete loss of capacity amounts to two-thirds of the injured person's annual earnings, calculated on the same basis as for benefits and with the same maximum. If the degree of disability is fixed at under 50 per cent, it is normal for the pension to be compounded by a lump sum. Compensation to dependants is always paid as a periodic benefit.

In the spring of 1960 a **Rehabilitation Act** was passed with the object of relieving or limiting the effects of disability or illness by means of facilities and assistance for obtaining special treatment, as well as education, training, and other vocational measures for disabled or handicapped persons. The Act is a general one, applicable in cases for which assistance is not provided by the special welfare for particular groups of handicapped or disabled persons. Assistance may be given for obtaining dentures, invalid chairs, hearing aids, motor vehicles and education or training at technical schools or special rehabilitation centres. Assistance may also be granted for the purchase of tools and implements, and for establishing the handicapped person in business.

The principal object of the Act is to resettle the handicapped in the general labour market, but where this is not possible the Act enables special measures to be taken in order to promote employment in the public services or in jobs specially adapted for disabled persons.

The elderly are covered by an old-age pension adjusted to the cost-of-living index.

A new approach to education

by EDELE KRUCHOW

New Education Acts passed in June 1958 altered the structure of the Danish education system, and the changes are now beginning to take effect in schools. How it is envisaged that education at its various levels should be attuned to present-day needs is suggested in a general guide published in 1960. The ideas and intentions are described by a headmistress—one of those who helped to formulate them.

UNDER THE NEW Education Acts the Danish school system has been divided into three departments: a comprehensive school system comprising up to ten classes, a three-year *Real* department, and a three-year *Gymnasium*.

At the end of the voluntary ninth and tenth years pupils are entitled to receive a full leaving certificate, showing the results obtained in the subjects taken. The three-year *Real* course concludes with a public examination, the *Real* examination; and the *Gymnasium* with the *Studenter* examination, admitting to universities and colleges.

Following the passage of the Acts in 1958 two ministerial committees drew up two suggested curricula. One of these relates to the comprehensive school and the *Real* department, while the other deals with the teaching and aims of the *Gymnasium*.

The principal new feature of the Acts is the continuous seven-year department of the comprehensive school, which in the course of the seven years must provide a well-balanced education in all the subjects taught. As the period of

compulsory education in Denmark is likewise seven years, this department now coincides with the compulsory period.

The crucial problem of the Danish school all through the present century has been to provide the required special education for those pupils, not academically minded, who want to continue their education but who are unable to fulfil the requirement. The authorities, in collaboration with national trade and professional organizations, have now carried out the groundwork that will give the voluntary eighth, ninth, and tenth years the special educational content both to match the abilities of the pupils and meet the demands of an industrialized society for further education in technology, handicrafts, commerce, and agriculture.

The *Real* examination concluding the three-year *Real* department is not new to Denmark, and its aim is still the same: that of giving academically-minded children a sound education with a view to their employment in trade and the administration, often as a basis for further education in these fields.

The principal innovation here is that the content of the subjects taught has been thoroughly analyzed; the analysis of requirements, both as to content, method, and means of teaching is evidence that an extensive renewal of the Danish school system is in progress, especially in the teaching material (books). At the same time, a tremendous expansion is also taking place in school building. Smaller schools are being replaced by central schools able to accommodate a larger number of pupils and afford better facilities in specially equipped rooms, particularly in the case of physics, biology, domestic science, woodwork, physical education, and the library.

Earlier ministerial circulars relating to the curricula of these classes consisted for the most part of brief lists of subjects to be studied by pupils under the guidance of their teachers. The subjects were based on the learning of facts. The new view of all this is that education should not be confined to the acquisition of knowledge and skills but should also include such processes as learning to learn, learning to live with others, and learning that it is possible to direct one's actions into channels which take account of others.

Teachers are urged to promote self-expression and to guide their pupils to individual reading suitable to their respective stages of development.

The renewal in the three-year *Gymnasium*, too, is chiefly observable in a thorough revision of the content of the

Children playing outside flats in the suburbs of Copenhagen. They have a sound general education, with the opportunity to specialize later on.

subjects, followed up by the publication of a series of new text-books. Whereas the other new curricula have been in force since 1961, that for the *Gymnasium* was only introduced in 1964. The aim, now as before, is to give a general education which will also provide the necessary basis for further studies.

There has been an evolution from the classical, European, and religiously based education of the Middle Ages and Renaissance, through the nationally biased teaching of the nineteenth century, to an education which aims to promote the concepts of internationalism and interdependence, as brought about by the development of communications, economic exchanges, common technical advance, and weapons of mass destruction.

A development such as this clearly requires the highest possible technical education combined with a correspondingly high degree of general education. A population composed of specialists who view the world from the standpoint of narrow technical or vocational interests, while lacking knowledge and understanding of the views and circumstances of other people, is badly equipped for life in the twentieth century.

Quite new is the place given in the *Gymnasium* to the social science streams, where subjects like economics and social structure, culture-determining factors in society, and the political structure and processes will dominate these special streams. As university-trained teachers are not yet available and the required textbooks have still to be prepared, the teaching in these streams will not come into force until after 1967.

A renewal that will benefit all pupils is the place now being given to the history of ideas. In order to illustrate the interlocking of subjects and the historical perspective behind the past and present approach to problems, each pupil will have a book explaining the ideas which have played a significant part in our civilization. It is assumed that this book will be read during the *Gymnasium* period, also in connection with the various teachers' references to the chapters touching on matters dealt with by them.

To ensure that pupils are as fully informed as possible of the educational facilities available after they have passed their university entrance examination, they will all receive, during the three-year *Gymnasium* period, 14 hours of vocational guidance given by specially qualified teachers.

Apprenticeships

The Danish system of apprenticeships has evolved from the guilds, with their regulations governing the period of apprenticeship, wages, and so on. The current regulations are contained in the Act of October 2, 1956, on Apprenticeship Conditions. The first clause of this Act states that an employer engaging a person under 18 years of age for work defined by the Act as a trade must conclude a written contract on training. The same applies to further training conditions, even though on contracting for the new conditions the trainee is over 18. A person engaging an apprentice must, generally speaking, have been trained in the trade himself. No person may become an apprentice before completing the legal school-leaving age of 14.

Training is combined with general and vocational education at a recognized technical or commercial school. Training begins with a trial period of six months, during which the contract may be dissolved by either party; the duration of the training must be stated in the contract and fall within the maximum and minimum limits imposed for the trade in question. The contract must also state the financial terms under which the trainee shall work during the training period. The trainee is entitled to an annual holiday of 18 working days with pay in each training year, of which at least 12 days shall be allowed consecutively during the period between May 2 and September 30. The trainee is guaranteed his wages during illness up to a period of three months.

Each trade must appoint a joint trade committee, composed of elected representatives of the employers' and workers' organizations, to recommend training regulations to the Apprenticeship Council (*Laerlingerådet*), which then establishes the regulations. At the conclusion of the training period apprentices in crafts and industries must pass a journeyman's test (*Svendeprøve*) or other test as recognized in the trade.

Attendance for theoretical education at a recognized vocational school may be waived only if the trainee has already undergone a similar education. In crafts and industries it may be decided that the education shall include a preliminary training or other supplementation of the practical training, and that the instruction shall then take place in special classes for trainees in the same or related trades, and separately for trainees at the same level of training. Education at technical and commercial schools, which in the past has chiefly taken place in the evenings, is now in principle given in the daytime. Trainees must be paid wages when attending for daytime education in normal working hours, and they are not obliged to attend school in their holidays. The education may be provided, in full or in part, at vocational schools approved by the Minister of Trade, or in ways other than those specified in the Act.

The Act also includes a provision to the effect that collective agreements to restrict the number of trainees in a trade covered by the law shall be invalid.

The training of unskilled workers

Of the organized workers of Denmark about 200,000 are skilled and 400,000 unskilled. Whereas the apprenticeship training of skilled workers is firmly based on traditions going back to the Middle Ages, there has been no traditional training of unskilled workers, which has been random and fragmentary, confined as a rule to the individual acquirement of necessary proficiencies on the job.

Only two institutions have offered unskilled workers a systematic training on any appreciable scale; the Work Technical School (*Arbejdsteknisk Skole*), founded in 1940; and the State Courses for General Workers (*Statens Arbeidsmandskursus*), established in 1950. The former is an evening school, providing education in three consecutive winter seasons of 144 hours. Branches are set up and discontinued as required: in 1960 there were about 100 branches with a total of approximately 3,000 students. The State Courses for General Workers are run at five boarding schools situated in various parts of the country, and unemployed unskilled workers attend for three weeks in the winter season. The total attendance each season is about 2,000.

In May, 1960, Parliament adopted an Act on the Occupational Training of Non-skilled Workers. Its two-fold object is to coordinate the existing scattered efforts, and to promote a vigorous expansion of the training of unskilled workers generally. The Act applies to all non-skilled workers over the age of 18; persons in the 14–18 age group, who will not be apprenticed but who are expected to become manual workers, may obtain training at Youth Schools.

The Act, and the report of the commission on which it was based, outlined a scheme of training by means of a series of courses in separate stages complete in themselves, the maximum duration to be 144 hours, equivalent to three weeks of 48 lessons each, or a winter's attendance at evening classes. The individual stages need not be taken consecutively.

The education is so arranged as to provide, trade by trade, a series of specialized courses proceeding from elementary to advanced. Any worker may join at the stage corresponding to his qualifications in his present job; or, if re-training is necessary, he may obtain a comparatively brief course of preliminary training for a new job.

A flexible system such as this is designed to promote mobility of labour from one trade to another. Alongside the specialized training, a rudimentary basic training will be given in related trades. It is not the intention to set up a fully elaborated system of courses in every branch, but to allow each trade to decide how many courses it needs.

The courses may be established in the form considered most appropriate to each case (whether at boarding schools, day schools, evening schools, in factories, at mobile courses, or in any other form); but the education provided is the same in all cases. Workers can fill a period of unemployment by attending a day course, and may supplement it by taking evening courses when working.

In order to harmonize the training offered by the courses and the workers' subsequent employment, the organizations of the trade branches have been made directly responsible for the content of the courses. Each branch appoints a committee, made up of an equal number of representatives of workers' and employers' organizations, with the prime object of drafting plans for courses on the scale required and ensuring that the plans are adequately carried out.

Over and above the branch committees there will be an educational council covering all branches. The council comprises a chairman nominated by the Crown; fourteen members appointed, seven each, by the two sides of industry, the Employers' Confederation and the Trade Union Centre; and five non-voting members representing the interested Government departments. The council's object is to centralize and coordinate not only the work done by the branch committees, but also relations with other educational forms, the central organizations of employers and workers, ministerial departments, educational institutions, and so on.

In order that workers may take advantage of the day courses there is an allowance corresponding to the amount that would be payable in unemployment benefit if they were out of work and were insured against unemployment, with a supplementary allowance for workers who have dependants and who were employed at the commencement of training.

The training itself is free of charge, except that a generally very small registration fee may be required, and also all travelling expenses are paid. Workers without dependants must pay for board and lodging when attending boarding schools.

The State assumes the principal costs of establishing the required educational institutions; the remainder must be procured from other sources, such as local governments or organizations.

The working expenses are also borne by the State to the extent of 85 per cent, though 15 per cent of this amount is refunded by local governments. The remainder of the running expenses must be procured from other sources.

As far as possible, the training is coordinated with the education given in youth schools and in the last years of the primary schools. Likewise, close collaboration is sought with the military and with other institutions and schools at which unskilled workers are educated, with the additional intention of facilitating smooth transition from the courses for unskilled workers to further technical training.

School near Copenhagen. Schools are run by the municipal authority for children of compulsory school age. Only 5% attend private schools.

STRUCTURE AND ACTIVITIES OF THE DANISH TRADE UNION MOVEMENT

WITH A TOTAL MEMBERSHIP OF 818,077, the Danish trade union movement, as represented by LO (Landsorganisationen i Danmark) the national trade union centre, is the largest popular movement in Denmark. Comparing the membership figures with the total population of Denmark, 4,585,256, it is obvious that the trade union movement represents a considerable force in Danish society. The affiliates of LO have no less than 3,513 local branches throughout the country which maintain a direct contact with individual members. Six unions with a membership of 32,360 spread over 221 local branches do not belong to LO, although their leaders have repeatedly attempted to obtain members' approval for affiliation with the national centre, in order to strengthen the trade union movement. The Danish LO was founded on 3 January 1898. Its purpose, working together with the trade unions and other popular organizations, is to achieve a redistribution of the nation's productive wealth so as to assure workers their rightful share. LO is also committed to modernization in industry and to socialization of production. LO is administered by an Executive Committee consisting of 23 members, 7 of whom are full-time employees. Twenty-one members of the Executive Committee are elected at Congress, which is LO's supreme governing body. A further two members of the Committee are drawn from the leadership of the Danish Social Democrat Party. LO's affairs are managed by the Executive Committee in conjunction with the General Council, which consists of one representative for every 2,000 members (or fraction thereof) from each affiliated union.

All workers benefit from the central wage agreement negotiated periodically between LO and the Danish Employers' Association.

Since its foundation, LO has maintained extremely fruitful cooperation with the Danish Social Democrat Party. There is an LO general assembly every 4 years, and the General Council meets annually.

In order to promote inter-union co-operation throughout the country, local trades councils have been set up to enable trade union branches to form collective organizations for their particular localities. Copenhagen has one of these trades councils and most of the unions in the capital belong to it. The trades councils work in close association with LO.

LO's rôle in industrial relations

The national centre is the workers' national collective bargaining agent. Its function is to negotiate with the Danish Employers' Association, with which it has concluded a central agreement laying down provisions to be contained in individual industrial agreements. LO has a large number of important duties to perform, among which are:

1. To represent the trade unions in contacts with the Danish Employers' Association, both on a day to day basis and in national wage negotiations which generally take place every two years.
2. To represent the trade union movement on specially appointed commissions, committees of enquiry and joint consultative bodies.
3. To assist individual organizations through the secretariat.
4. To represent the trade union movement in legal actions arising from trade union disputes (Arbitration Tribunal).
5. To provide advisory services for union members.

In addition to the influence which LO exerts in the field of industrial relations and the effect it has had on economic and social development, the Danish trade union movement has also,

For a small country Denmark has a wide variety of industries. It is an exporting nation and transport is therefore of importance. LO's 800,000 members include a large proportion of transport workers.

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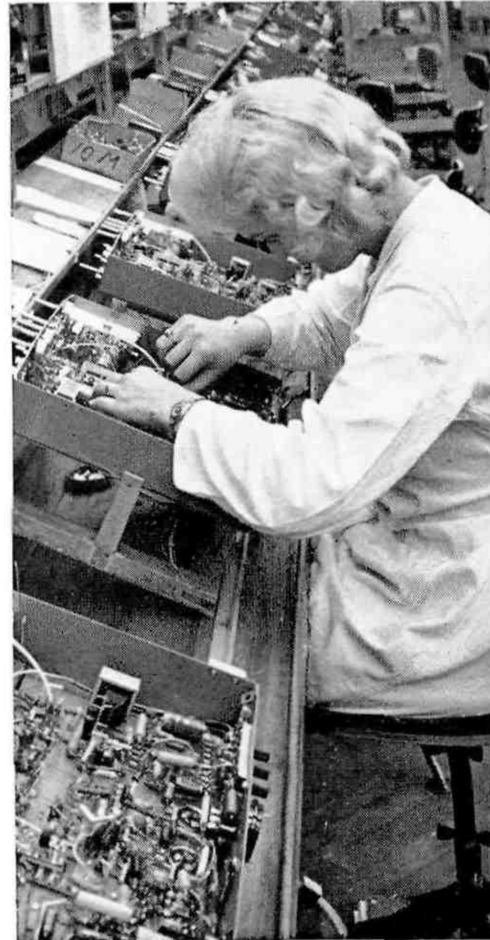


by assistance to the cooperative movement, helped to bring about greater efficiency in production and distribution and encouraged competition in commerce. In giving financial assistance to the Social Democratic Press, LO encourages an impartial presentation of important issues in the interests of the further development of a democratic society.

Educational activities

The Danish trade union movement, besides maintaining close working relations with the Social Democrat Party and with the Cooperative Movement, also works in close conjunction with the Workers' Educational Association, which has developed extensive educational services through the high schools and institutes of further education. Esbjerg High School and Roskilde High School were set up by the Workers' Educational Association with assistance from LO. A new high school is planned, to be attached to Højstrupgård, LO's course centre near Helsingør. The educational services are provided locally by the trades councils in collaboration with local branches of the Workers' Educational Association. In 1964 82 courses were held, lasting one week or more, for 3,626 participants. There were 5,488 evening classes and study circles with 100,222 participants, 334 evening courses with 5,706 participants and 976 individual lectures attended by 50,119 people: an impressive record of educational work.

To give guidance on current problems LO has set up, in conjunction with the Social Democrat Party, a Trade Union Information Centre, which regularly sends out publications to shop stewards. The Information Centre also furnishes information direct to workers all over the country through their clubs.

Federations

Whilst in many parts of the world the trade unions have grouped themselves into federations, such developments are scarce in Denmark. Every trade in Denmark has, as a rule, its own organization, which is independently constituted and independently affiliated to LO. The federal structure is however to be seen in the iron industry. The Central Organization of Metal Workers consists of 21 unions organizing workers employed in the iron industry. These unions entrust all wage negotiations for workers in this industry to the Central Organization.

Recent trade union advances in Denmark

The Danish trade union movement is, of course, affiliated to the International Confederation of Free Trade Unions. LO has always been a staunch supporter of international cooperation, and the President of LO, Eiler Jensen, represents the entire Scandinavian trade union movement in the ICFTU.

Opposite page: *the Danish trade union movement has helped to bring about greater efficiency in production and distribution.* Right: *thanks to the Danish government's successful productivity policy unemployment has been reduced to under one per cent.*

When speaking of recent advances in the sphere of wages in Denmark it is natural to mention the Supplementary Industrial Pension Scheme which provides every worker with a supplementary pension of 2,400 Kroner per year after 27 years' service. The first payment of 600 Kroner was made on 1 April this year to wage earners who had been members of the scheme since 1 April 1964, the date on which contributions were first payable. The contribution for workers belonging to the scheme is 1.80 Kroner per week; the employers pay 3.60 Kr.

The central wages agreement concluded on 1 March this year provided for a reduction of the working week by one hour from 45 to 44. Denmark is thus ahead of the other Scandinavian countries in their advance towards achievement of a 40 hour week without loss of pay.

The Danish trade union movement is a particularly active element in Danish society, and has positive views on social problems. Thanks to a very effective productivity policy implemented for more than 10 years by successive Social Democrat governments, it has been possible to bring down the level of unemployment in Denmark to below one per cent, which is an all-time record.

Full employment naturally raises problems for maintaining a sound balance between production, consumption and investment. The Danish trade unions participate through LO representation in the economic consultative work carried on by the Economic Council, an impartial body whose function is to assess the burden which can be borne by Denmark's overall national product.

The Danish trade union movement hopes to be able to preserve the necessary flexibility in its attitudes, so that it may continue to exert a positive influence on social developments and thereby serve the interests of thousands of wage earners and their families.

Left: *quayside workers unload goods in Copenhagen's inner harbour. In the background can be seen the stock exchange and Christiansborg castle which houses Parliament, the Foreign Office, the Royal Reception Rooms and the Supreme Court.* Above: *taxi drivers form an important section of the DASF's transport membership. The Union organizes nearly three thousand of them.* Opposite page: *The Transport and General Workers' Union, affiliated to the ITF since 1921, is Denmark's largest trade union, organizing some 260,000 workers—one sixteenth of the country's population. Its transport membership includes in addition to port and urban passenger transport workers, some 16,000 packaging and warehousing workers and 19,000 truck drivers.*

The Danish Transport and General Workers' Union

THE DANISH TRANSPORT AND GENERAL Workers' Union (Dansk Arbejdsmands og Specialarbejder Forbund) is Denmark's largest union. It is a non-industrial union organizing mainly unskilled workers, affiliated to the ITF for those of its members employed in the transport industry. The majority of DASF's members however are employed in the building trade, industry, agriculture and forestries.

The DASF was founded in 1897 as the Danish General Workers' Union (Dansk Arbejdsmands Forbund). The last twenty years of the Nineteenth Century saw the nation's workers become conscious of their unfavourable position in society. Industrialization was rapidly changing the face of the country and the workers needed to find ways of defending their interests against exploitation by unscrupulous employers. While skilled workers were joining together to form trade or craft associations, the unskilled men formed themselves into working men's unions. In the '90s there were a large number of these unions largely dispersed in small local groupings. The year 1897 marked the birth of a large national union to cater for these workers, when a number of the small regional unions of general workers amalgamated to form the DAF, an organization totalling fourteen thousand members.

This amalgamation was brought about by one of the legendary figures in the history of Denmark's labour movement, M. C. Lyngsie, who is remembered as a great fighter and a great trade unionist both in Denmark and abroad. He is remembered particularly in Finland for the manner in which the organized shipments of provisions from Copenhagen to striking Finnish dockers.

The DAF first affiliated with the ITF in 1921, and has been closely associated with the international transport workers' movement ever since.

To begin with the union was so organized that all the work of negotiating agreements and ironing out difficulties arising from their interpretation was undertaken by the executive officers. It soon became clear that some measure of reorganization was necessary, since the union had to deal with many and diversified interests. Accordingly in 1925 it divided itself into three industrial groups, each with its own secretary, to cater for factory, building and transport workers. In 1934 the agricultural workers merged their union with the DAF, and formed a fourth industrial group The Danish Transport and General Workers' Union took on its present name when the Specialiarbej-

derforbund, another general workers' organization, merged with it in 1959.

Today some 260,000 Danish workers belong to the DASF. On 1 October 1963 membership of the four groups was as follows:

building industry	93,831
manufacturing industry	83,054
agriculture and forestry	18,348
transport workers	64,106
total	259,339

The transport membership is further divided into groups, according to the branch of the transport industry the members are employed in.

Taxi and minicab services employ 2,953 DASF members. They are paid a fixed guaranteed wage and a percentage of their takings.

Bus drivers account for some 3,100 of the union's members. They earn a fixed wage and receive supplements for work done between six in the evening and six in the morning, and for work done on Sundays and public holidays.

About 2,500 delivery drivers are organized by DASF, and truck drivers account for 18,785 members. The system of payment usual in the trucking industry is based on an hourly or weekly rate. Some new agreements have been concluded recently however which provide for payment on the basis of distance driven and load carried.

Another body of workers who belong in the transport group are the warehouse and packaging workers. The DASF numbers around 16,000 of these among its members. The payment system here is also an hourly or weekly rate, and some firms have moreover introduced bonus provisions.

Port workers account for some 6,000 of the Union's members. About 60% of these are paid on a piecework system. The remaining 40% are paid by the hour. Since working conditions can vary from port to port the piece rates are fixed by the local branches concerned.

The DASF has an impressive record of trade union achievements, amongst which its unemployment fund, set up in 1907, and its enterprising activities in the field of workers' education should be mentioned. It joins with Denmark's other unions in the annual wage negotiations conducted nationally between trade union central organization, LO, and the Employers' Federation, and with its quarter million members—one-sixteenth of Denmark's total population—is one of LO's mainstays. The DASF has also proved itself many times a valuable affiliate of the ITF.

Danish seafarers' organizations

THE FIRST DANISH SEAFARERS' organizations were set up as long ago as 1880. However, these organizations were short-lived because of the difficult circumstances at that time and attempts to create new organizations in the years immediately following failed for the same reasons. It was not until 1897 that these attempts were successful. In that year two seafarers' organizations were set up, the Danish Firemen's Union in February, and in May, the Danish Seamen's Union, which caters for deck ratings. It was some time, however, before the catering staff had their own organization: the Danish Sea-going Catering Staff Union was not founded until 1907.

In view of the fact that the Danish trade unions have been in existence for some considerable time and that there are 20,000 Danish seafarers in all, it is perhaps a typically Danish characteristic that there are still no less than seven Danish organizations catering for seafarers. The Masters, Mates, Engineer Officers, Radio Officers, Deck Ratings, Engine Room Ratings, and Catering Staff all have their own organizations and although there is excellent cooperation between them, this division into so many unions does undoubtedly weaken the seafarers to a considerable extent.

Of these seven organizations only four are members of the ITF: the Radio Officers' Union, the Sea-going Catering Staff Union, the Seamen's Union and the Firemen's Union. The Masters, Mates and Engine Room Officers, who do not regard themselves as transport workers, are not members of the national centre to which the other seafarers' organizations belong, and this exclusive spirit prevents them from having the same international affiliation.

The past history of the deck and engine room ratings' organizations has been characterized by a great number of strikes, some of which were legal and some illegal. Again, internal political differences have weakened the efforts of the organizations to organize all ratings and bring about reasonable wages and working conditions. Although the two organizations catering for ratings have for many years worked closely together and held joint meetings of the two union executives, all attempts to merge the two organizations have so far failed.

The Danish Seamen's Union whose members include bo'suns, ABs, ordinary seamen, young seamen and carpenters, has today a membership of approximately 6,500. However, there are about 1,500 deck ratings employed on a large number of coasters who are unorganised and whose working conditions are much worse than those applying to organized seamen.

The Danish Firemen's Union, whose membership includes donkeymen, motormen, firemen, greasers, etc., has a membership of about 1,500. Once again there are about 200 engine room ratings working on coasters and other small vessels who are unorganized and have worse working conditions than in the rest of the Merchant Navy.

The Danish Sea-going Catering Staff Union, whose members include stewards, cooks and female catering staff, has a membership of about 1,200. Once again there are many unorganized sea-going catering staff—at least as many unorganized as organized.

On Danish ships in the foreign trade a large number of Asian seamen are employed in all three departments. These are paid at the Hong Kong rates which are not recognized by the Danish unions. All together, it is estimated that there are 2,000 foreign seafarers working on Danish ships and of these only half are organized in *bona fide* seafarers' organizations.

Left: *Einar Berthelsen, President of the Danish Marine Firemen's Union (Søfyrbødernes Forbund), to whom we are indebted for the provision of much of the material on Denmark and the Danish trade union movement used in this issue of the ITF Journal. He is Chairman of the Joint Committee of ITF Unions in Denmark charged with making the arrangements for Congress.*

Right: *Svend From-Andersen, President of the Danish Seamen's Union (Sømaendenes Forbund), which organizes some 6,500 workers on board ship. The membership of the Seamen's Union includes bo'suns, ABs, OSs, young seamen and carpenters.*

Below: *Danish seamen match their skill in a games competition organized by the Danish Merchant Navy Welfare Board. The Board exists to provide seafarers with services and comforts of which their life on board ship would normally deprive them, such as sports facilities in ports, special radio broadcasts.*

About 75 per cent of all Danish seafarers serve on ships which trade exclusively between non-Danish ports. The remaining 25 per cent are on vessels which sooner or later come into a Danish port.

In spite of these difficulties—and the organizations themselves must bear the greater part of the responsibility for them—it has been possible by many years of hard struggle, to increase the wage standards of organized Danish seafarers so that they are now among the best paid in Europe. Political pressure by the unions has also succeeded in improving crew accommodation on Danish ships so that standards here are now exemplary. Standards of catering and other crew facilities on Danish ships can also be regarded as very satisfactory.

Danish seafarers come under a special Seamen's Tax System which places them in a privileged position. Through legislation and collective agreements with the Shipowners' Federation, Danish seafarers now have three weeks paid annual holiday. Sick pay is given for up to two months, and any seafarer who has been twelve months away from Denmark is entitled to a free passage home. Working hours are 45 a week and from 1 March, 1966, are being reduced to 44 hours a week.

Although employment opportunities for Danish seafarers are very good at present, the unions have a difficult problem before them in the steadily increasing rationalization and automation of work on board ship. Manning scales of Danish vessels are laid down by law and the most recent legislation on this subject which was enacted in May 1964 reduced crew sizes by almost 25 per cent in the face of strong protests from the unions. Over and above this reduction in manning scales, the authorities are empowered to allow shipowners to reduce manning scales even further in practically all new vessels. In spite of the demands put forward by the seafarers' organizations, it has not yet been possible to reach agreement with the shipowners on compensation for rationalization and automation.

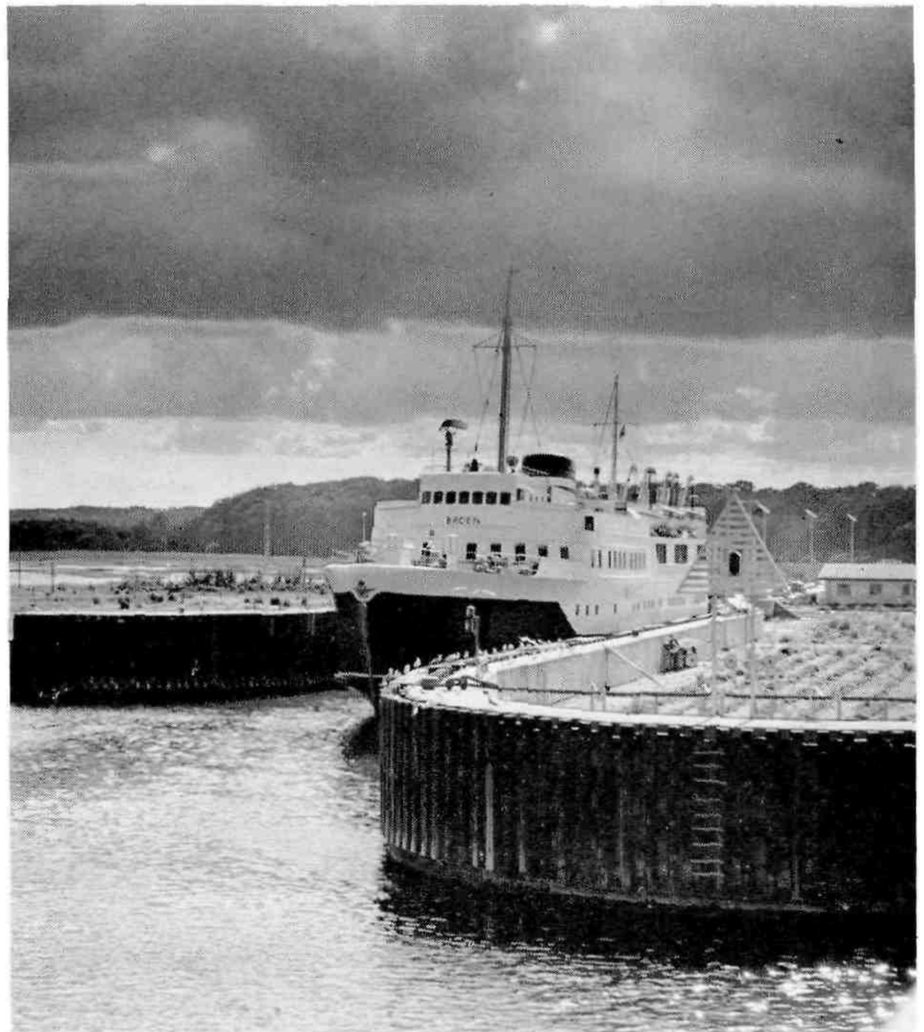
In 1965 new collective agreements were negotiated giving wage increases of between 4 and 11½ per cent. The most immediate tasks confronting the Danish seafarers' unions can be summarized thus:

Increased supervision and control of rationalization and automation measures so as to prevent reductions in crew sizes which might jeopardize safety of life at sea;

Compensation for rationalization, automation and interchange of deck and engine room working;

A radical improvement in social legislation to bring Danish standards at least on a par with those applying to seafarers in Norway, Sweden and Finland. To this end the Danish organizations are co-operating closely among themselves and with the other Scandinavian seafarers' organizations within the Scandinavian Transport Workers' Federation. The Danish Unions will also have to make a serious effort to merge the different seafarers' organizations and to organize all seafarers working on Danish ships.

It will probably be of interest to seafarers in other countries that the Danish seafarers' organizations have had their own approved unemployment benefit schemes since 1925. These do not only provide assistance for unemployed seamen, child allowances, help with housing and fuel costs to an extent which allows unemployed seamen to live reasonably when they are not working; they also provide allowances for the families of seamen who have just signed on after a period of unemployment, thus tiding the families over until the breadwinner's earnings arrive.



Danish railwaymen and their work

by BØRGE AANAES, *Secretary of the Danish Railwaymen's Union*

Danish State Railways train going on board the rail ferry which links Zealand with Fyen.

OWNING AND RUNNING the railways is no longer a thriving business in Denmark, so that the Danish State Railways—together with the state-supported private railways—are constantly under fire and several times a year there are major debates in Parliament about their operation.

This is due principally to the fact that railways as a means of public transport do not have the same social importance in the age of the private car as when they were first introduced. Clearly it will be some time yet before every Dane has his own car, but a considerable number of citizens of Denmark's welfare state have become independent of public transport in recent years. This development parallels that of most other Western European countries.

Nevertheless, Danish railways are by no means at a standstill. There is a constant increase in commuter traffic, and long-distance traffic is being built up by means of better equipment and locomotives, in order to compete successfully with other forms of transport.

Alongside this is the comprehensive rationalization and automation programme which the Danish railways have been putting into effect in recent years, but this undoubtedly alters the working conditions for the railways' employees, and not always for the better.

In order to get some kind of a picture of the Danish railwaymen's organizations and working conditions, it is necessary to go back some way in time. The first railway in Denmark was opened to traffic in 1847, and covered

Permanent way workers repair the line; State Railways staff are organized in five unions.

the 30 km. from Copenhagen to Roskilde. But although the beginnings were modest, the railways had to come stay, and during the following years the network was expanded. In 1856 the line was taken from Roskilde to Korsør, so that people could now go by rail right across Zealand. In 1865 the line from Nyborg to Middelfart was opened, which gave Fyen its railway, and finally from 1862 to 1869 a railway was established the length of Jutland. But a complete railway network linking the three parts of the country was not possible, since they are separated by water —the Great Belt and the Little Belt.

Only after a long period of time, when bridge-building became more widespread, did it become possible to 'drive' between Fyen and Jutland, when the Little Belt Bridge was opened in 1935, and from this date onwards trains crossed the Great Belt by ferry.

Two years later the 3.2 km.-long Storstrøm Bridge was opened to ease the way for traffic between Denmark and foreign countries to the south. Before this bridge was built all those travelling from Denmark had to change from train to ferry not only to cross the Great Belt and the Little Belt, but also to cross the sound between Zealand (Masnedø) and Falster.

The route to the south was further shortened when the 'Fugleflugtslinien' ('As the crow flies'), which provided a new bridge link between Falster and Lolland, was opened to traffic in 1963.

On the whole the bridge-building programme has been of great significance to the Danish State Railways, and there is now talk of a combined road-rail bridge across the 20 km. stretch of water between Zealand and Fyen (the Great Belt). Authority has been obtained to go ahead with the preparatory work, but it is a project which will certainly take many years to complete, and there are therefore no plans to curtail the ferry services over the Great Belt, which the State Railways run not only for their own traffic but also to carry motor vehicles.

These ferries are a chapter to themselves in the story of the Danish State Railways. Both train passengers and motorists benefit from the relaxation of a crossing which takes from an hour to an hour and a half. The route is served by eight triple-track motor ferries for the trains; for car transport a number of two-deck and one three-deck ferries are used.

Although by far the greater part of Denmark's railways—about 2,500 km. in all—is state-owned, there is also a fair stretch of privately-owned railway; however, the latter has contracted considerably in recent years, since it has proved impossible to overcome competition from private cars.

On the other hand, Denmark has a flourishing bus network, for the most part privately owned, and many private railways have gone over into this side of passenger transport. The State Railways run a bus network of about 6,000 km., and also a number of road haulage routes which serve customers all over the country.

Organization of railway employees

Although railways have existed in Denmark for almost 120 years, it was nearly fifty years after the first railway was opened that railwaymen became aware of the necessity to band together—not in one organization, but in a number of different bodies.

The basic units of organization were the many associations which had grown up before the turn of the century at the individual workplaces. Some of these aimed to provide social benefits and assistance, and others were simply social clubs.

The Danish State Railways employ about 27,000 workers, of whom two-thirds are 'established' employees, who are organised as follows:

—About 4,500 office staff, in the Railway Association;

—About 2,000 locomotive staff, in the

Danish Locomotivemen's Association;

—About 2,000 workshop employees in the State Railways' Common Organization;

—the remainder in the Danish Railwaymen's Union, which has 9,600 members.

Trade union membership is not compulsory, but practically 100 per cent are organized.

On the private railways the employees belong to the Private Railways Staff Union—about 580 members—and the Danish Locomotivemen's Union — about 200 members.

With the exception of the Railway Association the individual unions are all members of the national centre LO, and in this way join in solidarity with the rest of the Danish trade union movement, whilst retaining the right to negotiate autonomously.

Negotiating rights for established state employees (railway workers, police, customs, postal workers, etc.) are vested in two central organizations (CO I and CO II) which cover staff and officials respectively. However, this regulation does not prevent the individual organizations from negotiating independently with the appropriate management committee on all conditions except wages, which, once agreed, are established by law. Although the Danish railwaymen are not all in one organization, this does not mean that each union goes its own way. The four organizations which have members employed by the Danish State Railways have set up a Joint Committee, which discusses all questions which affect more than one of the unions concerned.

Wages and working conditions

It would be impossible in a few words to set out how Danish railwaymen are paid, but it can be mentioned that the starting rate for more than half the employees is on a level with—or even a little higher—than the pay for unskilled workers in private industry, and that the pay regulations are drawn up so that general increases in wage levels in outside industry are reflected in the pay of established state employees. In addition, wages are automatically adjusted to compensate for increases in the cost of living.

Average working hours are calculated by the month, and correspond to a working week of 45 hours. A gradual decrease to the 40-hour week will begin on 1 April 1966, when the hours will go down to 44 per week for day workers and 42 for shift workers. Paid annual leave is three weeks for all workers up to the age of 50, and four weeks thereafter.

... the future

Although the railways are undergoing a period of decline, and the membership of railwaymen's organizations is dropping, the work of those organizations is far from becoming less demanding.

Rationalization and automation present many problems for the employees, and since it is no use opposing these developments the unions have chosen to cooperate with them and in doing so to obtain the best possible results for their members.

The future will tell whether these results will be worth all the effort put into achieving them.

Danish railways are modernizing their equipment to serve present-day traffic requirements in the light of competition from motor cars.

The Radio Officers' Association

THE DANISH RADIO OFFICERS' organization was founded on 6 October 1917, and the Association still carries the date in its official title—Radiotelegrafistforeningen af 1917. Today its members number 1,700, of whom 450 work on board ship, 600 in shore establishments, the remaining 650 being non-active members. The shore-based radio officers work in a number of different capacities: the majority—about 275—are employed in the defence services, there are about 150 based in Greenland, while the remainder operate in coastal radio stations, at airports, etc.

The union is non-political and has as its objects to promote the professional and economic interests of radio officers, to seek employment for unemployed members and to establish cooperation with brother organizations in other countries.

First and foremost the radio officer has to look after the radio safety service on board ship, which means that for eight hours a day he is on active duty, during which time he keeps watch on emergency and calling frequencies for emergencies and security signals. He also has to take note of navigation notices, storm warnings, ice reports and other signals important to the safety of navigation.

The radio officer is the only person on board with the training to judge the actual situation on emergency and calling frequencies, and he is consequently responsible for operating the station and receiving the necessary navigation information by radio.

The radio officer's second job is to take care of the daily telegraphic and telephonic communications with Denmark and the coastal stations of other countries. He has to forward messages and conversations over the radio-telephone, while maintaining strict professional secrecy.

His third task is to maintain and repair the radio equipment, including radio transmitters and receivers, alarm apparatus and radio direction finders. He is also expected to have knowledge of radar installations, telephone equipment, etc. All batteries are his responsibility. In addition, the radio officer has to keep his own radio accounts.

In certain cases the radio officer has another important function, that of keeping the wages accounts for the whole of a ship's crew—often as many as thirty to fifty men. This means calculating the amounts of salary, bonuses, overtime payment due to crew members, together with the amounts owed for radio services. He is also responsible for engagement and discharge documents, inward and outward clearance papers, doctor's call for sick crew members, distribution of the mail and the very comprehensive secretarial work which every port call entails.

The members of the Radio Officers' Association are mainly employed under two big agreement groups: the first being the Ministry of Finance, the second the Danish Shipowners' Association. Shore-based radio officers coming under the Ministry of Finance are paid as follows:

—Starting rate, 1,877 Danish kroner per month;

—After 20 years' service, 2,666 D.kr. per month.

Seagoing radio officers under agreement with the Danish Shipowners' Association have the following rates:

—Starting rate, 1,444 D.kr. per month;

—After 30 years' service, 2,019 D.kr. per month.

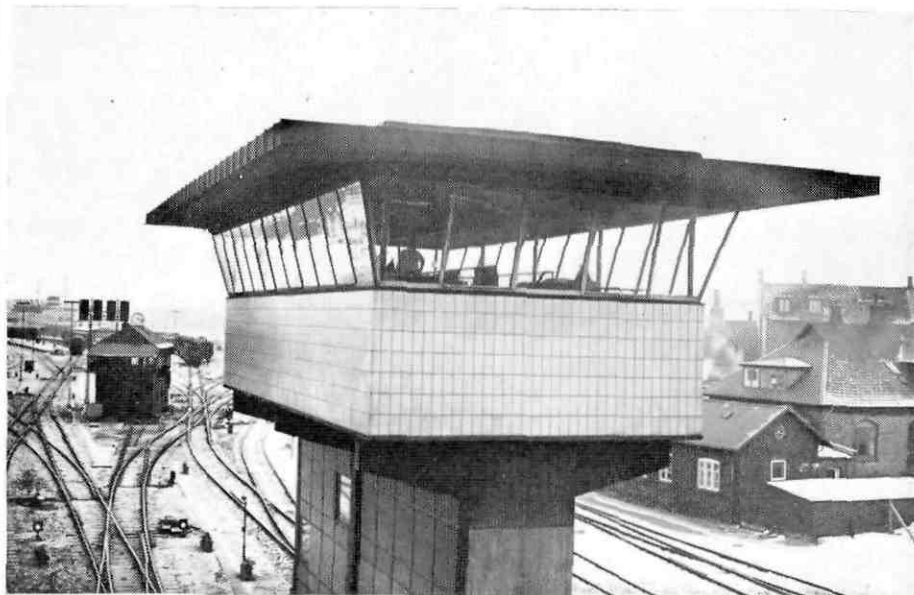
In order to raise the salaries of the seafaring members, negotiations have been taking place with the shipowners during recent weeks. Up to the time of writing these negotiations have been unsuccessful, and the Association has, consequently, prepared and sent out strike notices to all its members which will come into effect on 15 September unless agreement is reached before then.

S. Bøje Larsen, Chief Executive of the Danish Radio Officers' Association.

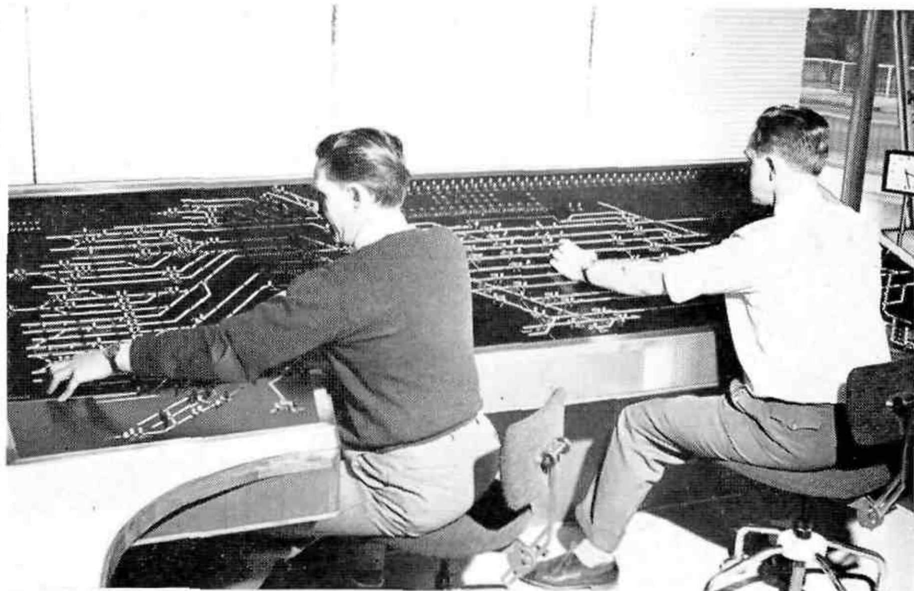
In its 1965 negotiations the Union has again been very pleased to gain assistance from the ITF in the form of information on salaries and working conditions for radio officers in other countries: 'We consider this service very useful to our negotiations and we cannot strongly enough request all organizations within the ITF to strengthen the Federation by supplying it with information on salaries and working conditions so that all affiliated organizations are constantly kept informed about international economic, social and occupational conditions.'

Copenhagen's One-Man Buses

COPENHAGEN'S CHIEF MEANS of city transport was the tram, until recently. Most routes have now been—or are being—converted to operation by one-man buses. An attempt has been made to make the ticket-issuing part of the driver-conductor's job a little easier by introducing ticket automats. There is a standard fare of one Krone for any journey, but to encourage passengers to use the automats and thus save time Copenhagen transport has introduced a discount system. The automats have been designed to take metal tokens—one token, one journey—of which the passenger can buy six for 5 Kroner. Copenhagen's new buses have been specially designed for maximum efficiency in the ticket-issuing process. Passengers without tokens board on the right-hand side of a dividing rail in the doorway and give their money to the driver, who issues them with a ticket and five tokens, or with one ticket if they wish, though they pay the full fare in this case. Mounted on the dividing rail and angled towards the passengers is the token-operated ticket vending automat. Tickets are issued with the exact running out time printed on them. Passengers who have to change may use the same ticket on the second bus, provided they board it within the time limit. Tests with the automats, before their introduction, showed that the average ticket issuing time per passenger could be halved.



The new signal box at Nyborg was built in its toadstool form so as not to take up track space.



The Danish State Railways' centralized traffic control installation at Nyborg on Fyen island.

Centralized traffic control on Denmark's railways

IN 1956 THE DANISH State Railways (DSB) established two centralized traffic control units: one at Masnedo and one at Hjulby. These first beginnings were in the nature of an experiment although much had already been learned from centralized traffic control experiments carried out in Norway and Sweden in the three years preceding. Denmark made rapid progress in installing centralized traffic control on its lines. By June 1964, 53 units had been brought into operation, and there were six control centres each serving anything from one to 14 units.

The sections now under centralized control provide the DSB with valuable information as to how future systems should be developed and operated. The systems in operation at Nykobing and Odense are equipped with train time recorders which trace a train's actual progress and thus make it possible to assess requirements for line improvements, such as duplication of track, installation of automatic equipment.

In 1962 a study was launched into the possibility of devising a centralized control system for lines with low traffic density. A system was needed which made small demands on investments, allowed less chance of failure and was cheap to maintain. The difficulties were quite formidable at the beginning, but most of the problems attendant on the task of developing such a system have now been solved. Work is now proceeding on the establishment of further centralized traffic control systems: the DSB are in a position to place 10 sections per year under centralized operation.

FIRST OVER THE POLE

A THOUSAND YEARS AGO the first important step was taken towards the discovery of the North-West Passage—the journey of Leif Eriksson, a Norseman, who sailed his Viking ships via Iceland and Greenland to reach the shores of North America. Five hundred years ago, the search for the North-West Passage began in earnest as John Cabot's expedition discovered—or rediscovered—Labrador and Newfoundland.

Sixty years ago, Roald Amundsen completed the first crossing of the North-West Passage, sailing his ship *Gjøa* north of Canada to Alaska.

And ten years ago—on November 15, 1954—the North-West Passage became a commercial reality, as Scandinavian Airlines System inaugurated its service between Europe and the US West Coast, flying the route of the Polar pioneers.

SAS had been formally constituted in 1946, started flying the North Atlantic route the same year, and instituted an intense study of Polar navigation.

Thus the airline's technical experts and navigators were well prepared when, in November 1951, SAS's president Per Norlin gave the go-ahead signal for the North-West Passage project to a group headed by Knut Hagrup, then operations manager, and today one of the carrier's executive vice-presidents. As theoretical preparations neared completion, so did the construction of the first of the 14 longer-range DC-6B airliners which SAS had ordered from the Douglas factories in California.

To put theory and equipment simultaneously to a test, it was decided to fly the first two aircraft in the series to Scandinavia over the North-West Passage route. SAS took delivery of its first DC-6B, *Arild Viking*, on November 15, 1952. Three days were required to outfit it with special instruments, spare parts, cabin and galley equipment as well as the Arctic survival gear, on which Canadian authorities had insisted for such a survey flight. At 8.30 a.m., local time, November 19, 1952, *Arild Viking* was ready for take-off from Los Angeles.

The aircraft touched down in Copenhagen the following day, 28 hours 6 minutes later. It had made two intermediary stops, at Edmonton in Canada and at Thule in north-west Greenland. Instruments and equipment had functioned to perfection. Commercial flying

over the high Arctic had become a reality. Five more exploratory flights were to be performed, however, before regularly scheduled operations could begin. The second flight followed the path of *Arild Viking*.

But the third was something else again. Carrying 40 volunteers bound for the Norwegian Field Hospital in Korea, it started out by flying the 'conventional' route from Oslo to Thule. But then, instead of veering south, it continued over the Arctic Ocean to Anchorage, Alaska, and thence to Shemya and Tokyo. Thus for the North Pole short-cut route to the Far East, which when it opened in 1957 was to give SAS another first and the world's only Polar system.

The fourth transarctic flight was planned in such a manner as one would not wish on any passenger—it was to make as many intermediary stops as possible to test alternative airports along the route. With all obstacles out of the way, the stage was set for the inauguration of the SAS North-West Passage route on November 15, 1954.

Confidence in the new route grew apace with experience. Contrary to popular expectation, weather conditions over the Arctic area were well-nigh ideal for flying—generally light winds, infrequent and thin clouds and low humidity. Ironically, from a layman's point of view, the sometimes severe weather conditions during the ground stops proved to be the greatest obstacle, but these difficulties were overcome as special measures were taken to protect the engines, water lines and air-conditioning systems against excessive cooling.

Radio communications in the Arctic have steadily improved. Before the opening of the North-West Passage route, SAS had built a radio transmitter at Angmagssalik, on the south-east of Greenland, and widened the range of transmitters at Frobisher Bay, Churchill and Winnipeg. In preparation for the North Pole route, additional stations were built, equipped with ground-wave transmitters which cannot be blacked-out by atmospheric disturbances.

In 1957, the DC-6B was supplanted on the North-West Passage route by the DC-7C *Global Express*, which will always be remembered as the finest long-range piston-engine aircraft ever produced. The longer range of the DC-7C—which also enabled SAS to open its North Pole route to the Far East—reduced the number of intermediary stops between Europe and the US West Coast to one, and the introduction of DC-8 jetliners on the route, in June 1960, cut travel time by more than 50 per cent.

Over the past ten years, SAS has flown 5,500 flights between Los Angeles and Copenhagen. It has carried 235,000 passengers, 4,500 tons of freight, and 970,000 kilograms of mail a total distance of 51.5 million kilometres.

What of the future? The next important step is bound to be the inauguration of a non-stop service between Europe and the US West Coast along the true great circle route.

For its achievement in opening up the Arctic for commercial flying—thereby also opening the doors for its friends and competitors among the world's great airlines—SAS has been awarded the Columbus Prize, the only airline thus honoured.

EUROPE'S FIRST PEDESTRIAN STREET

THE DANISH DICTIONARY defines strøg (pronounced ' stroy ') as 'the length of street in a town which is especially frequented by pedestrians and shoppers'. Thus every town has a strøg. But *when we speak of Strøget ('Stroyeth')* —with a capital letter and the appended definite article—every Dane and millions of others know that it means one particular length of street, the one which winds through the centre of Copenhagen from the Town Hall Square to Kongens Nytorv, the city's two principal squares. The name does not occur in the official nomenclature. The word Strøget is not to be found in *any document or on any house wall.* Consult the street signs and you will find that Strøget consists of five streets and three squares (besides the two main squares it connects). We will skip the official names. Copenhageners themselves do that; indeed, the great majority of them would be unable to say them in the right order. Strøget is an entity, and denotes far more than can be conveyed by any word ending in -gade *(street).*

The length of street which forms Strøget is as old as Copenhagen. Of course the houses have been replaced a number of times—after the great fire in the eighteenth century and after the British bombardment in 1807, for example—but the general layout and width are the same as in the Middle Ages. Strøget is the length of street in the Danish capital that has been *'especially frequented by pedestrians'* for 900 years.

Yet there was a period of 10–15 years after the war when pedestrians came to feel more and more like outcasts when they walked there. *That was* when the blessings of motorization descended on Copenhagen in earnest. Day by day the throng of cars grew in the city centre (it still does), and it seemed as if they all had to pass through the bottle-neck of Strøget at least once a day.

The result was the most nerve-racking traffic jam. Buses, vans, lorries, private cars, motor cycles, mopeds, and bicycles waged a ruthless battle for a place in

This picture could not be taken today, but Strøget might have looked like this three years ago, when it was still open to traffic.

the road. There was continual chaos, and it was well-nigh impossible to hear one's own voice in the general din. Over this whole scene of confusion hung a thick blanket of petrol fumes.

Pedestrians suffered most in the mêlée. They hugged the walls, casting nervous side glances at the traffic; to cross the street they had to run for their lives. Those who refused to relinquish their right to stroll took the first opportunity to turn into the small side streets, where they could still find some peace and balm for their nerves.

The situation in time became intolerable. Something had to be done. 'Strøget is sick,' a newspaper wrote; 'tourists can still write home about it, but nothing to its credit. And visitors who value their lives will only swallow once the suggestion in the travel brochure of a pleasant stroll along the famous shopping street. The time has come when the City Council and the shopkeepers of Strøget must consider whether they want to keep this stretch as a fine shopping street or as a parody of a thoroughfare.'

The moment came in the autumn of 1962. By then the press had developed a feeling in favour of returning Strøget to its rightful owners, the pedestrians, closing it to wheeled traffic, and making it Denmark's first pedestrian street. Many people had their doubts about such a radical step. The traffic police and municipal traffic authorities predicted that traffic in the city centre would break down when the main street itself was segregated. The 300–400 shopkeepers in Strøget were with few exceptions horrified. They thought they would go bankrupt if their customers were called on to walk 200 yards to their premises. The beneficial experience of other countries with pedestrian streets failed to remove their fears.

But public wishes could not be disregarded. The City Council decided, experimentally for a few months, to close Strøget to wheeled traffic, and on November 17, 1962, the pedestrian street was inaugurated with a flourish, with mayoral speeches, brass bands, and flags. When the tape was cut, something like half a million jubilant Copenhageners poured in.

The advocates of the pedestrian street were satisfied with the experiment; they were never in doubt about the final result. The experimental period was prolonged by a year; and at the end of that year the arrangement became permanent. By then all anxieties had long been set at rest.

In a week the traffic experts had had to admit that there was no trouble at all about diverting the traffic, for one reason because 3,000 cars had simply disappeared from the city centre. This unexpected side-effect proved that Strøget must have attracted a lot of unnecessary traffic. It had been used as a short cut, and to 'do Strøget' by car had become the fashion. 'Lazy white man sits down and walks,' the Red Indian used to say. So slowly did the

Strøget, centre of Copenhagen's fashionable shopping and entertainments quarter, gaily decorated for Christmas. Pedestrians can now enjoy to the full all the attractions the street has to offer, for since 1962 it has been closed to motor traffic. Strøget has now become a place where the art of strolling is cultivated and appreciated. The shopkeepers opposed the plan to close Stroget to traffic, but now see their mistake.

traffic move that it was possible to window-gaze while driving.

The shopkeepers were harder to convince; but in time all talk of public interference in private initiative was silenced, and now, two years after, most of them readily admit they were mistaken. The cash registers have spoken. The business turnover, as far as can be ascertained, has risen sharply all round; and if there are exceptions to this rule they may have other reasons than the disappearance of cars.

The rising turnover is a logical consequence of the fact that more people now frequent the line of streets than before; people for whom Strøget is the aim and who do not just hurry through it. Systematic counts were made both before and after November 1962. A year after, the number of pedestrians had nearly doubled, and it is still increasing. Curiously enough, it is increasing fastest at the end of the street where opposition from shopkeepers was strongest.

This also shows that Copenhageners like their pedestrian street, and that should be the criterion. It is odd to see many of them still suffer from the after-effects of car fright. Even though they have the whole street at their disposal they still cling habitually to the sides, till they suddenly realize that they can relax and move about at will. It takes a little time to re-learn the art of strolling, but it comes back.

With its 1,200 yards, Strøget is the longest pedestrian street in Europe; and though such things are always debatable, we think it is also the pleasantest. It is not easy to explain wherein Strøget's charm consists. The houses are not, at least most of them, architecturally outstanding; but the proportions, the continually changing street scene, and the practically based 'furnishing' provide a wealth of visual experience. All this, together with the life which unfolds itself in the street, can be summed up in the word milieu. Here is a milieu that is entirely 'made in Copenhagen'. The observant pedestrian will note nuances in it. Nearest the Town Hall Square it is 'popular'; in the middle it is 'artistic'; and at the bottom end, near Kongens Nytorv, it is 'smart'. But it is genuinely Copenhagen throughout its length.

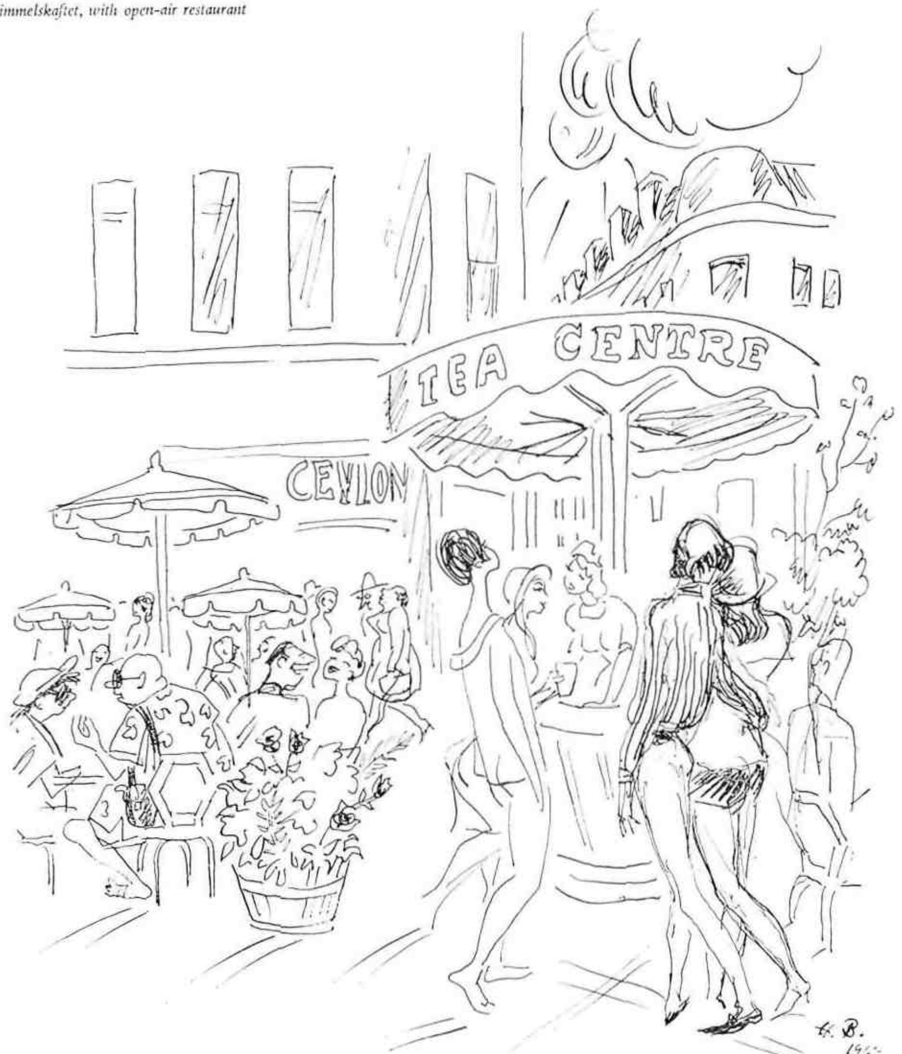
Strøget is more than a street, more

than a physical reality. Like all good streets it has a soul. This is sensed immediately by the visitor; and more strongly, perhaps, by the Copenhagener, who knows something of the part which this line of streets has played in Danish history and culture. In Strøget, in the past as now, known and unknown Danes have mingled. Here walked the comedy writer Ludvig Holberg, who lived for a time in Gammeltorv. Here Hans Christian Andersen would drift, as he said, to and fro, by day and night, as fresh fairy tales shaped themselves in his imagination. Here walked the philosopher Søren Kierkegaard, a figure of fun to his contemporaries because of his odd appearance. Here Danish writers on their daily walks met colleagues from the other Scandinavian countries—among them Bjørnson, Strindberg, and Hamsun—and from their encounters new ideas often sprang.

In Strøget the fashionable Copenhagener has promenaded at all times, and not least the fashionable Copenhagen woman. New fashions have always been displayed here first. The shopping trade of Denmark had its origins here. Dealers in fancy goods opened the first shops here in the eighteenth century, on Paris lines, and Strøget became a shopping street in the course of the century. Even cobblers had to have 'a shop with a large lamp', and milliners had windows 'enclosed by sheets of glass so large one could almost feel afraid of them'. One of the best-known shopkeepers in Strøget was Louise Rasmussen, the milliner who, as Countess Danner, married King Frederik VII. She was an enterprising lady: in her shop window she displayed a mechanical doll.

In those days, when Copenhagen was still only a small and very provincial metropolis, it was the shopkeeper's ambition that his premises in Strøget should resemble those in other capitals, notably Paris. Copenhagen aspired to be 'the Paris of the North'; and the newspapers almost succeeded in convincing Copenhageners that it was! The great world and its changing tastes came to Denmark via Strøget.

Vimmelskaftet, with open-air restaurant



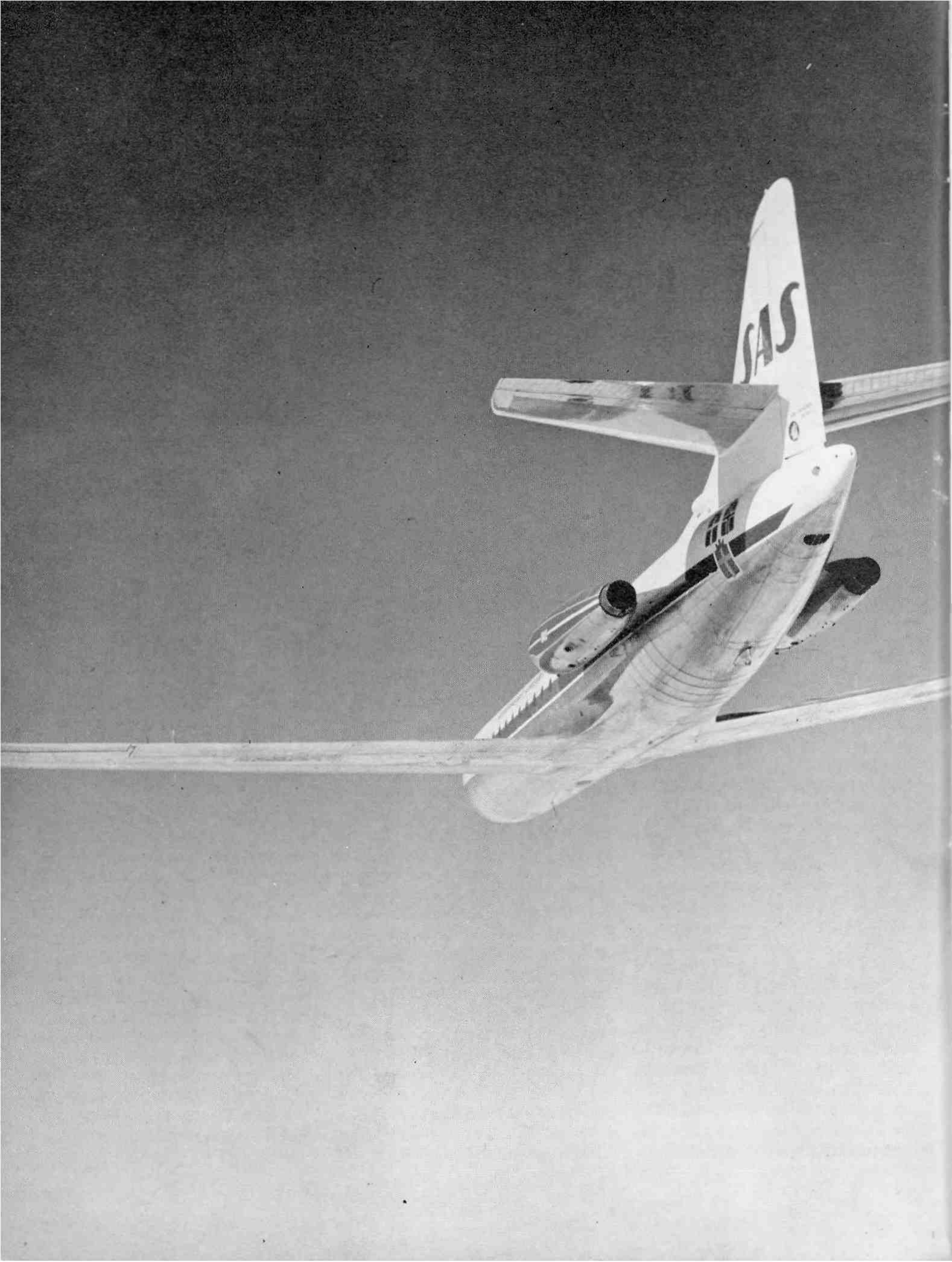
DRAWINGS BY HANS BENDIX

Today, too, the great world comes to Strøget, but it comes now, so to speak, in person, represented by the hundreds of thousands of tourists who visit the city every year. The visitors are not, of course, looking for something they already know. They come to experience the Danish atmosphere and buy Danish. Surveys have shown that a very large proportion of tourists visit Copenhagen for the chief purpose of buying Danish-designed applied art and Danish quality furniture, silver, porcelain, pottery, glass, textiles, clothing, furs, specialized foods, and many other articles.

In tourist brochures Copenhagen is now called 'The shopping centre of Europe'. Tourist promoters are always so lyrical! But it is true nevertheless that Copenhagen as a shopping city is outstanding. Any Copenhagener wanting to buy the obligation presents to take home for his family when abroad finds that—apart from certain liquids—it is very difficult to find anything he cannot also get at home—often both better and cheaper.

In its development into a true metropolis Copenhagen has also been transformed from a single-centre city into a multi-centre one. The trade in everyday needs has been decentralized, and at the same time the old main centre round Strøget has tended more and more towards specialization and higher quality in every respect.

All this is excellent. But best of all, by turning Strøget into a pedestrian street Copenhagen did something towards humanizing the modern city.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- Reconstituted at Amsterdam in 1919
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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;

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